GREEK CULTS OF DEIFIED

ABSTRACTIONS

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by

Emma J. Stafford
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**ABSTRACT**

This dissertation aims to explore the phenomenon of the worship of abstract concepts in personified form and its development in the Archaic and Classical periods. An introductory chapter surveys previous scholarly literature on the subject and covers some general theoretical issues: i) definitions; ii) problems of sources and methodology; iii) the question of the predominantly feminine gender of these figures; iv) ancient and modern theories on deified abstractions as a class. Six chapters then look at a selection of individual cults in roughly chronological sequence, each exemplifying one or more of the general questions raised by such cults. Themis provides a good example of the very “mythological” deified abstractions of the Archaic period and the problems of tracing the origins and early history of personification cults. Nemesis was probably worshipped at Rhamnous from the sixth century, but acquires unique status in the fifth from an association with the battle of Marathon; the cult of the two Nemeseis at Smyrna, I argue, is a fourth-century innovation. Peitho is often associated with rhetoric, but a survey of her cult associations in a variety of locations emphasises her erotic side, an aspect further revealed in vase-painting. These three figures all have roots in archaic literature, whereas Hygieia, though soon mythologised as daughter of Asklepios, does not appear in any medium before her arrival in Athens in 420 BC in the healing god’s wake. Her cult particularly raises the question of how seriously personifications could be taken as deities, since the concept which she embodies is so patently a human desideratum. Later innovations are similarly often dismissed as “mere” allegory or propaganda, as is illustrated by the case of Eirene in fourth-century Athens, most famously represented in Kephisodotos’ group of Peace holding the child Wealth, her cult introduced in response to quite specific political circumstances. The problems of correlating archaeological and literary sources are particularly acute in the case of the most “abstract”, figure to be considered, Eleos, eponymous deity of the Athenian “altar of Pity”; although the altar dates from the late sixth century, its insubstantial god is probably a later development. From these six case studies some provisional conclusions can be offered on the place of deified abstract ideas in Greek religious thought and practice.
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Lampeter, September 1998
CONVENTIONS AND ABBREVIATIONS

As a general policy I have included the Greek or Latin text of passages quoted as well as a translation (my own unless otherwise specified); this may at times seem cumbersome, but I hope it will be of assistance to the reader to have both the original and my interpretation to hand. I have adopted the usual compromise position over transliteration, following the Greek spelling for the most part but retaining traditional Latinisations for some familiar names, such as Thucydides. Abbreviations of ancient authors and works follow those listed in the *OCD* with some amplifications in the interests of intelligibility. Modern works other than those below are referred to by author’s surname and date of publication, full details being given in the bibliography. Abbreviations of periodical titles follow *L’Année Philologique*, but I include here a few Greek periodicals not listed therein.

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<thead>
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>AAA</td>
<td>Αρχαιολογικά Ανάλεκτα εξ Αθηνῶν</td>
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<tr>
<td>ABV</td>
<td>Beazley, J.D. (1956) <em>Attic Black-Figure Vase-Painters</em>, Oxford</td>
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<td>AEphem</td>
<td>Αρχαιολογική Εφημερίς</td>
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<td>ARV²</td>
<td>Beazley, J.D. (1963) <em>Attic Red-Figure Vase-Painters</em>, 2nd ed. Oxford</td>
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<tr>
<td>CVA</td>
<td><em>Corpus Vasorum Antiquorum</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>EAA</td>
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<tr>
<td>FGrH</td>
<td>Jacoby, F. (1957-) <em>Die Fragmente der Griechischen Historiker</em>, Leiden</td>
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<td>IG</td>
<td><em>Inscriptiones Graecae</em></td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
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<tr>
<td>LIMC</td>
<td>Lexicon Iconographicum Mythologiae Classicae, Zurich and Munich 1981-</td>
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<td>LSJ</td>
<td>Liddell, Scott and Jones (1940) Greek-English Lexicon, 9th ed. Oxford</td>
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<td>Para.</td>
<td>Beazley, J.D. (1971) Paralipomena: Additions to ABV and to ARV², Oxford</td>
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<tr>
<td>Praktika</td>
<td>Πρακτικά της εν Αθηναίς αρχαιολογικής εταιρείας</td>
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<tr>
<td>RAC</td>
<td>Reallexikon für Antike und Christentum, Stuttgart 1950-</td>
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<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>Paulys Real-Encyclopaedie der Classischen Altertumswissenschaft, Stuttgart 1893-1972</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEG</td>
<td>Supplementum Epigraphicum Graecum, Leiden 1923-</td>
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<tr>
<td>SGDI</td>
<td>Collitz, H. et al. (eds. 1884-1915) Sammlung der griechischen Dialekt-Inschriften, Göttingen</td>
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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION: PERSONIFICATION AS A MODE OF GREEK THOUGHT

We see that intelligence, faith, hope, virtue, honour, victory, health, concord and other things of this sort have power, but not the power of gods. For they are either properties inherent in ourselves — like intelligence, hope, faith, virtue and concord — or objects of our desire — like honour, health and victory. I see the value of these things, and I see that statues are dedicated to them. But why they should be held to possess divine power I cannot understand without further investigation.

Cicero

While personified figures are quite familiar to anyone versed in Western art or literature, as artistic or rhetorical devices passed on through the Classical Tradition, the idea that such abstract figures should actually be worshipped may appear even more unlikely from a late twentieth-century standpoint than it did to Cicero. Literary personifications range from such figures as Milton’s Sin and Bunyan’s Hope, Goodwill and Piety to Baudelaire’s Ennui, or even the Death who features prominently in Terry Pratchett’s fantasy Discworld novels. Visual representations come in various forms, from the complex allegories of Renaissance painting — Cranach’s Charity, Gherado di Giovanni’s Combat of Love and Chastity, La Hire’s Grammar, and Batoni’s Time orders Old Age to destroy Beauty — to the host of sculptural figures which decorate the nineteenth-century monuments and public buildings of many European cities; Britannia herself has featured on British coins from the Reformation, and is still quite literally in everyday currency on the reverse of the 50p coin. One would not, however, expect to take any of these figures seriously as real powers to be

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1 Cicero, De Natura Deorum 3.24.61 (the speaker is the Academic Cotta): Nam mentem fidem sperm virtutem honorem victoriam salutem concordiam ceteraque huius modi rerum vim habere videmus, non deorum. aut enim in nobismet insunt ipsis, ut mens ut spes ut fides ut virtus ut concordia, aut optandae nobis sunt, ut honos ut salus ut victoria; quorum rerum utilitatem video, video etiam consecrata simulacra; quare autem in is vis deorum insit tum intelligam cum cognovero. See below pp.56-8 on Cicero.

2 Paradise Lost ii 648-60; The Pilgrim’s Progress (passim); “Au Lecteur”, Les Fleurs du Mal; The Colour of Magic, etc. (1983-). The music of Hildegard of Bingen is currently enjoying something of a vogue, her Ordo Virtutem peopled by no fewer than nineteen personifications.

3 See Warner 1985 passim. On the particularly rich crop of allegorical figures in the public sculpture of Liverpool, see my forthcoming paper (Stafford 1999b).

4 Britannia as a symbol of the triumphant nation is a significant transformation from her earliest appearance, on a first century AD relief at Aphrodisias, as a warrior-woman at the feet of the emperor Claudius, where she represents Rome’s newly subdued province. A more dignified figure, recognisably the iconographic ancestor of the one familiar today, first appears on coins of Hadrian (AD 119). See Warner 1985, 46. The British Museum postcard “Britannia on Coins” juxtaposes a bronze sestertius of Antoninus Pius (c.143-4), a penny of George III (1797) and a penny of George V (1933).
revered or propitiated — indeed, in a monotheistic culture personification is
*necessarily* just a manner of speaking, or a way of giving artistic form to something
intangible.\(^5\) It might come as a surprise, then, to discover that amongst the many
personifications which people ancient Greek art and literature, a number were indeed
apparently worshipped — that is to say they had altars, temples and cult statues, they
received sacrifices and more lasting dedications, and they were invoked in hymns and
prayers. The extent to which these trappings of cult can be taken to indicate belief in
the real "divine power" of the kind of figures about whom Cicero is so sceptical will be
the subject of this thesis.

Various categories of non-human things in ancient Greece were at one time or
another represented in human form, and in some cases worshipped: geographical
features, especially rivers and springs (e.g. Acheloos, Arethousa); countries, islands
and cities (e.g. Hellas, Delos, Thebes); natural phenomena (e.g. Nyx, Selene). What
will concern me here, however, are cults of abstract ideas — of ethical qualities,
political ideals, social goods, states of being. While such a division is very much a
modern categorisation, it is obviously useful in limiting the material under discussion,
and has some justification insofar as the personification of abstract concepts requires
"the additional intellectual leap of imagining the invisible and intangible in physical
form".\(^6\) Moreover, geographical/political entities are likely to be restricted to specific
localities, while the worship of natural phenomena in human form is likely to be a
development from earlier forms of nature-worship/animism, considerations which
require discussion beyond the scope of this thesis.\(^7\) On similar grounds I have also
largely avoided the various female groups who appear in Greek mythology — the
Furies, Seasons, Fates and Graces — whose collective nature seems to merit separate
discussion.\(^8\)

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\(^{5}\) Johnson on the personifications of Fame and Victory: "to give them any real employment
or ascribe to them any material agency is to make them allegorical no longer, but to shock
the mind by ascribing effects to non-entity" (*Life of Milton*, quoted in Bloomfield 1963, 167).

\(^{6}\) Shapiro 1993, 27; my definition of "abstract" is broader than Shapiro's, however (see
below). Cf. Pottier's ten categories of conceptual type (1889-90), Papadaki-Angelidou's
twelve (1960), and Gardner's three (Foucart et al. 1917, 793).

\(^{7}\) Smith (1997, 17-18) points out that this dichotomy is first apparent in Roscher's
mythological *Lexicon* (1902-9), where Deubner's entry on personifications of abstract
concepts is distinct from Steuding's on "Lokalpersonifikationen". See Ostrowski (1990, 15-
21) for bibliography on local personifications in ancient art.

\(^{8}\) The Furies feature largely in Aellen 1994; for a slightly convoluted discussion of their
status, see especially 82-90, "La Furie est-elle une personification?".
Cults of deified abstractions raise a number of general questions, which can perhaps be formulated under a number of (interrelated) headings:

i) Origins
How does a personification cult arise? Are there any necessary preconditions, such as the figure's prior appearance in literature or art, or association with an Olympian deity? What historical circumstances give such a cult the impetus to develop?

ii) Status
How were deified abstractions seen in relation to other gods: did they have the same status in the belief system or were they recognised as somehow more "intellectual"? Is any such difference in status reflected in different forms of worship? Did personification cults perhaps appeal especially to the educated upper classes? Is there something more "artificial" and "arbitrary" about personifications whose cults were introduced in the late fifth or fourth centuries, as opposed to those who have a place in early literature? Is Eirene, for example, any less "real" a goddess than Nemesis?

iii) Conceptual categories
What ideas attained deified status, and are any conceptual categories better represented than others? Does the presence of particular personification cults give a fair indication of the values which were held to be of special significance for the community at the time? Or is our evidence too scattered to establish such patterns?

iv) Relationship between cult personifications, art and literature
Were the distinctions between an abstract noun, its personification in art/literature and its deification clearly felt? What implications does the presence of a local cult have for our understanding of a figure's appearance in art or literature, and indeed for the use of the abstract noun?

v) Myth v. logos
The very existence of cults of deified abstractions is surely an excellent crystallisation of the "myth into logos?" debate, since the concepts represented are, at least at first sight, quite in tune with "rational" thought, whereas their divine incarnations are necessarily "mythological". Does their development shed any light on the wider issue of the development of logical thought?⁹

⁹ Personification cults were a notable omission from the colloquium Myth into Logos? held at Bristol, 24th-27th July 1996; see the forthcoming proceedings (ed. Buxton).
Greek personifications in general, and particularly their incarnations in visual media, have received a good deal of scholarly attention in the last hundred years. Several works on personification cults appeared in the first two decades of this century. Deubner's article "Personifikationen abstrakter Begriffe", in Roscher's *Ausführliches Lexikon der Griechischen und Römischen Mythologie* (1902-9), sets out to give an overview of personification, both Greek and Roman, in all its aspects, under the headings Cult, Myth, Poetry and Art, concluding with a list of epigraphic, literary and numismatic evidence for over ninety Greek and fifty Roman cults of personified abstractions. For the most part Deubner merely states the evidence, with little comment, and the list of testimonia gives very few indications of chronology, nor of the relative reliability of the evidence, but a vast amount is covered in the space, and the interdisciplinary approach makes this fundamental for later studies. Farnell disposes of cults of deified abstractions in a few pages at the end of the final chapter of *Cults of the Greek States* (1896-1909, V.xi), after cults of natural phenomena and localities; he too supplies a list of testimonia, which agrees substantially with Deubner's though including fewer than half as many deities. Roman cults receive more detailed consideration in Axtell's *The Deification of Abstract Ideas in Roman Literature and Inscriptions* (1907), which discusses public and private worship of individual personifications, as well as dealing with issues relevant to deified abstractions as a class. Ten years later Greek and Roman cults are put into a broader theoretical framework in the entry "Personification" in Hastings' *Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics* (1917), by Foucart and others, which also covers the phenomenon in Egyptian, Indian and Semitic contexts.

Subsequent encyclopedia entries on "Personifikation" by Stößl in *Paulys Real-Encyclopaedie der Classischen Altertumswissenschaft* (1937), and Pötscher in *Der Kleine Pauly* (1972) do little to add to Deubner. Nilsson's 1952 article "Kultische Personifikationen", however, a postscript to his *Geschichte der griechischen Religion*, makes a serious attempt to tackle the theoretical issues raised by abstract deities as a class, focussing especially on the question of how they came about. A more general overview of "Personification as a Mode of Greek Thought" is provided by Webster's 1954 article, while the relationship between cult personifications and allegorical figures is the focus of Reinhardt's essay "Personifikation und Allegorie" (1966). The most
extensive treatment specifically of Greek cults is Hamdorf's *Griechische Kultpersonifikationen der Vorhellenistischen Zeit* (1964), which does great service to the subject by drawing attention to the large number of cults attested before the Hellenistic period. Hamdorf covers natural phenomena and local personifications as well as abstractions, accompanying each section with a catalogue of testimonia. The main drawback to Hamdorf's work is that the large amount of material covered leaves space for only brief discussion of each figure, often obscuring the very different standards of evidence adduced, and few general conclusions are reached; it is best consulted as a starting point for further investigations. A return to the broader theoretical approach can be seen in Gombrich's 1971 article "Personification" in Bolgar's *Classical Influences on European Culture AD 500-1500*, which relates the Greek precedent to the "ubiquitous habit of personification" in medieval and early Renaissance art and literature. Similarly, the colloquium held in Paris in 1977 on *Mythe et Personification* had papers considering the phenomenon in Scandinavian, Renaissance Spanish, and modern Greek literature as well as in Greek and Roman mythology, and the proceedings (ed. Duchemin 1980) attempt to arrive at a general definition of "mythical personification". The search for a universally applicable explanation of Greek personification cults recurs in Humphreys' "Dynamics of the Greek breakthrough: the dialogue between philosophy and religion" (1986), which places the phenomenon in the context of a more general rationalising trend. An attempt to combine theory with more detailed examination of individual cases can be seen in Kershaw's dissertation *Personification in the Hellenistic World: Tyche, Kairos, Nemesis* (1986), which considers each figure in the light of literary usage of the abstract concept, as well as its iconography and evidence for cult. Personification cults feature briefly in two standard general works on religion, just two pages in Burkert's *Greek Religion* (1985, 85-6), but a more substantial section in Parker's *Athenian Religion: a History* (1996, 227-37). A paper delivered by Nicolas Richer at the recent conference *Sparta: New Perspectives* (Hay-on-Wye, September 1997), "Innovations à Sparte à l’époque archaïque: les pathémata et leur évolution", makes a bold attempt to date a number of personification cults known from later sources to the seventh/sixth century on the basis of conducive social conditions demonstrated by archeaic Spartan art and literature. Richer's arguments are admittedly highly
speculative, but his approach is salutary, with its focus on the attempt to explain a
group of personified abstractions worshipped in a particular polis in terms of that city’s
social history.\(^\text{10}\)

Much work has focussed on personification in the visual arts, often raising
issues of interest to the current study.\(^\text{11}\) Hinks’ seminal *Myth and Allegory in Ancient
Art* (1936) is much concerned with theoretical questions beyond the strictly
iconographic, especially the “mythical thought v. logical thought” question. Three
recent studies, however, give the images centre-stage, combining useful catalogues
with more or less extensive discussion. Alan Shapiro’s *Personifications in Greek Art: the representation of abstract concepts 600-400 BC* (1993, based on a 1977 Princeton
dissertation) provides an A-Z of personified figures in the sixth and fifth centuries BC.
Attic vase-painting inevitably makes up the bulk of his material, but he does also
catalogue lost works known from literary sources, and discusses each figure in the
light of evidence for her cult; his entries provided a starting point for all but one of the
figures on which the current work focusses. Published in the same series, Christian
Aellen’s *À la Recherche de l’Ordre Cosmique: forme et fonction des personnifications
dans la céramique italioite* (1994) is concerned solely with personifications in fourth-
century South Italian vase-painting. Aellen gives much consideration to questions of
definition — how personifications relate to other mythological figures — and the
function of personifications in the scenes in which they appear, but his discussion keeps
mostly within the terms of the literary and iconographic tradition, only rarely making
reference to cult practice or any other facets of the historical context in which the
images were created. Amy Smith’s dissertation *Political Personifications in Classical
Athenian Art* (Yale 1997), however, covers some of the same ground as Shapiro, but
adds local personifications and continues the investigation into the fourth century.
Smith eschews the catalogue approach in favour of a chronological one, with three
chapters each covering a 50-year period (480-431, 431-378, 378-322 BC), which,

\(^{10}\) This is due to appear in English translation in the conference proceedings (Richer
forthcoming).

\(^{11}\) For a summary of pre-1900 works see Smith 1997, 16-17, or Aellen 1994, 14.
along with the focus on a particular polis, enables her to relate individual figures closely to their political context. 12

Personified natural phenomena and localities have been the subject of a number of recent studies. Neuser’s Anemoi: Studien zur Darstellung der Winde und Windgottheiten in der Antike (1982) focusses on the iconography of the winds, with a chapter on their place in cult. Weiss’ Griechische Flussgottheiten in Vorhellenistischer Zeit (1984) considers representations of river gods in literature and various visual media, especially coins, while Brewster’s The River Gods of Greece: myths and mountain waters in the Hellenic world (1997) is a more popular survey of rivers and their divine incarnations, lavishly illustrated with photographs of the modern Greek landscape. Roman as well as Greek rivers are covered in Ostrowski’s Personifications of Rivers in Greek and Roman Art (1991), though not in great depth; the question of whether representations of rivers in human form should be regarded as gods or as personifications is considered in the introduction. Ostrowski is also the author of Les Personifications des Provinces dans l’Art Romain (1990), which provides a brief survey of the representation of local personifications in Greek art as a background to the personified Roman provinces under consideration. 13

In addition to these works on various groupings, individual personified figures have received extensive treatment in recent years in the Lexicon Iconographicum Mythologiae Classicae (1981-). Although the focus is obviously on iconography, each entry begins with a summary of the figure’s place in literature and gives some indication of her/his place in cult, with questions of status sometimes receiving further discussion in the commentary which follows the catalogue of images. A few deified abstractions have also been the subject of recent monographs, including two whom I consider below: Corsano’s Themis: la nomà e l’oracolo nella Grecia antica (1988) is mainly concerned with the goddess’ role in literature, relating her fortunes to those of the concept she represents; 14 Sobel’s Hygieia: die Göttin der Gesundheit (1990) provides some commentary on her cult, although the focus is on her iconography, with

12 This dissertation came to my attention on its completion in 1997; I am grateful to Amy Smith for sharing her work with me since then.
13 Cf. Marshall 1997 on the personifications of Cyrene and Libya, who, along with the oecist Battus, functioned as symbols of civic identity in Roman Cyrene.
14 See further below p.66 n.1 for studies of Themis.
a catalogue of representations. Nike and Erôs, two figures excluded from Shapiro's catalogue, have received some coverage since. Mark's *The Sanctuary of Athena Nike in Athens: architectural stages and chronology* (1993) discusses the cult as well as more technical architectural matters, the study arising from a New York dissertation (1979). Erôs' status as deity is discussed in relation to the philosophical tradition in Osborne's *Eros Unveiled: Plato and the god of love* (1994), while a chapter of Thornton's more popular synthesis on ancient attitudes to love and sex, *Eros: the myth of ancient Greek sexuality* (1997), is devoted to Erôs' divine incarnations in literature. Wührle's *Hypnos, der Allbezwinger: eine Studie zum literarischen Bild des Schlafes in der griechischen Antike* (1995) is a thorough survey of Hypnos' appearances in Greek literature and ancient attitudes towards sleep, with a few pages on his cult. The most complete recent account of any single personified abstraction's cult is Gaetan Thériault's *Le Culte d'Homonoia dans les cités grecques* (1996), which examines all the possible sources, primarily epigraphic and numismatic, for Homonoia's cult in the Greek world. Each one of five chapters takes a particular aspect of homonoia — within the city, between cities, "the homonoia of the Hellenes", homonoia in the family, and Roman imperial concordia — and discusses the concept in general to provide a context for the individual cult attestations which follow, each complete with translation and commentary. I shall return to Thériault's conclusions below.

Ancient personifications in general, then, have attracted much interest of late, more than a dozen of the works just mentioned having been published in the 1990s.

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15 Nike on the grounds that she is practically inseparable from Athena in sixth- and fifth-century Athens, Erôs because he "would require a separate monograph": Shapiro 1993, 27-9.
16 See especially 1993, 94 on "the popular confusion of Athena Nike, a form of Athena, and Nike, the personification".
17 On Erôs, see below pp. 50-1 and n.146.
18 See below p. 51 and nn. 150-2. I hope to address Hypnos' iconography and cult in a forthcoming paper.
19 Further indication of the current vogue for personification can be seen in Yale University Art Gallery's exhibition *An Obsession with Fortune: Tyche in Greek and Roman Art* (1st September-31st December 1994), accompanied by a collection of essays on Tyche (ed. Matheson 1994), and, on Renaissance personifications, the National Gallery's exhibition entitled *Themes and Variations: Ideas Personified* (28th Sept.-4th Dec. 1994), accompanied by a video of the same title. One of the new Hellenistic rooms at the British Museum (Room 14) has a panel on "Realism and Personification", which explains that Hellenistic art "demonstrates an enormous interest in the individual and in the abstract forces that were felt to shape the variety of human experience", while a nearby case displays the well known
Most recent work on deified abstractions, however, has focussed on individual figures and/or on iconography; on the phenomenon of personification cults as a whole no single extensive study has been undertaken since Hamdorf (1964). What the current work aims to provide is a synthesis dealing with the general problems associated with such cults, but approached via case-studies of just six individual figures, so that the theoretical discussion can be tested against a more thorough evaluation of the evidence than Hamdorf’s catalogue-style format allows. Every one of these figures deserves to be treated at greater length — ideally each would be considered in the context of a study of the meaning and usage of the abstract noun, and of the various regional cult systems in which the personification appears. Conversely it could quite properly be argued that a much greater number of such figures needs to be examined before any reliable conclusions can be drawn about personification cults as a class. Given the enormity of the task presented by these conflicting demands, however, what is offered here is a practical compromise.

The personified abstractions in question are Themis (Order), Nemesis (Retribution), Peitho (Persuasion), Hygieia (Health), Eirene (Peace) and Eleos (Mercy). The choice of these six has been determined by a number of factors. Firstly there is the practical consideration that their cults are relatively well attested — for the worship of many figures we have no more evidence than a single dedicatory inscription or a passing mention in Pausanias, which would provide little basis for discussion. Secondly, with the exception of Eleos, they cover a chronological spectrum from the sixth to the fourth century — personification cults have widely been held to be primarily a feature of the Hellenistic period, despite Hamdorf’s demonstration to the contrary, so a study of the earlier period seems desirable. I shall of course be discussing dates of inception, but broadly speaking Themis and Nemesis are first attested in the sixth century, Peitho is largely a fifth-century phenomenon, Hygieia

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20 See e.g. Buxton 1982 for the literary contextualisation of Peitho, or Richer (forthcoming) for personification cults at Sparta.

21 The Hellenistic period in general has some coverage from Kershaw (1998), and much of Thériault’s material dates from the third and second centuries BC (1996). See also various articles in Matheson ed. 1994, especially Matheson, S.B., “The Goddess Tyche” (18-33) Brouecke, P.B.F.J., “Tyche and the Fortune of Cities in the Greek World” (34-49), and Smith, A.C., “Queens and Empresses as Goddesses: the public role of the personal Tyche in the Graeco-Roman World” (86-105).
appears in the late fifth century but achieves wide popularity in the fourth, and Eirene is installed in Athens in the first half of the fourth century. Eleos is an odd case because of his almost exclusive connection with the Athenian “altar of Pity”; the altar itself dates from the late sixth century, although Eleos’ divine status is extremely problematic before the late Hellenistic period. Thirdly, my six figures represent a variety of conceptual categories — Themis and Nemesis are bound up with ideas of fate and justice, Peitho with rhetoric on the one hand, sex on the other, Hygieia with physical well-being, Eirene most obviously with politics, and Eleos with the ethics of supplication. Fourthly, each figure exemplifies to some extent one of the more general questions raised in the rest of this chapter. Just how representative a sample these six figures are must await further study, but it is to be hoped that the provisional generalising conclusions reached on the basis of this selection will provoke discussion and provide a starting point for more detailed work on both the figures considered and their fellow personifications in Greek cult.

Before turning to my case studies, however, some theoretical preliminaries are in order, which will be the subject of the remainder of this chapter. In section I I shall examine some definitions of the term “personification”, and clarify my own use of it. In section II I shall address the problems of having to work with a wide variety of evidence, often geographically and chronologically scattered as well as diverse in nature. I shall consider some problems of personification in Greek literature and art, looking particularly at the question of how, if at all, a distinction can be drawn between “allegorical” figures and “real” deities, before arriving at a set of working criteria for the identification of a personification’s cult. In section III I shall look at the much-commented-upon fact that personifications are predominantly female. Finally, in section IV, I shall survey views ancient and modern on deified abstractions as a class, and outline how the various questions raised are to be addressed in the following chapters.
I. DEFINITIONS ANCIENT AND MODERN

**Personification**: 1755 (f. personify) 1. The act of personifying, esp. as a rhetorical figure or species of metaphor; b. an imaginary person conceived as representing a thing or abstraction 1850. 2. A person or thing viewed as embodying a quality, etc., or as exemplifying it in a striking manner; an incarnation (of something) 1807. 3. A dramatic representation, or literary description, of a person or thing 1814.

**Personify**: 1727 [a. F. personnifier] 1. trans. To figure or represent (a thing or abstraction) as a person, esp. in speech or writing; in art, to symbolize by a figure in human form. 2. To embody (a quality, etc.) in one's person or self; to exemplify in a typical manner. Chiefly in p. pple. 1803.

*Shorter OED*

In general usage the terms “personification” and “personify” are most often applied in the second sense defined by the *OED*: “he was regarded as the personification of evil”, “she is grace personified”. For obvious reasons, the first, more technical usage, “representing a thing or abstraction as a person”, is largely confined to literary criticism or art history. In the context of the present study the distinction between the two is of some importance: to call Aphrodite “love personified” is to describe the goddess in terms of her major sphere of influence, as exemplifying love, whereas to label Hygieia “health personified” is simply to apply a technical term, indicating that she represents an abstraction in human form. It should also be noted that, as an English speaker, my understanding of personification must be affected by a fundamental difference between English and ancient Greek, and most other modern European languages: its lack of an explicit gender structure. The basic distinction in English is between animate and inanimate: the neuter pronoun “it” is applied to anything inanimate, whether a concrete object or an abstract concept; the moment I assign a masculine or feminine pronoun to a “thing”, it becomes animate. “We will seek justice” brings the abstract to mind, but as soon as I add the qualification “though she is elusive” it becomes clear that Justice in human form is meant. The English term “personification” is obviously derived from the Latin *persona + facere*, but no Latin term exactly corresponds to the concept defined above. Instead, what does appear, in Quintilian, is the term *prosopopoeia*, a transliteration of the Greek rhetorical term προσωποποιία, of which *personae factio* would of course be the literal translation.

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22 See further below pp.33-4 on interpretational allegory.
23 Bloomfield (1963, 162) notes a number of German analyses of English literature which are fascinated by the freedom of English writers in choosing the gender of their personifications; he comments, “One might say that languages with grammatical gender, unlike English, have automatically built-in personification of some sort.”
The word seems to be of fairly late coinage and has a wider range of meanings than "personification", though what I understand by the latter is included in the broader category.

From its first appearance in Demetrios’ De Elocutione προσώπωσις is used in analyses of literary and rhetorical style in the sense of “putting speeches into characters’ mouths”, as opposed to maintaining authorial narrative, a basic meaning which it retains throughout antiquity. It is employed to designate “dramatisation” in comparisons of Thucydid’s and Herodotus’ style by Dionysios of Halikarnassos and Marcellinus, and similarly by Athanasius and John Chrysostom in exegeses of the Septuagint. Clement of Alexandria implies “characterisation” by his application of the term to a parable in Luke, a shade of meaning emphasised by Origen in his refutation of Celsus, where he uses it of both the process of characterisation and of the resulting speeches given to a character. In rhetorical treatises, however, προσώπωσις has a broader definition, with the general idea of speaking in the voice of a character not actually present, whether real or imaginary. Suitable subjects include dead ancestors and countries as well as abstract concepts, like Demosthenes’ Kairos (Olynthiac I.2); some distinguish between imaginary, generic characters and real people, or specify that any real person represented should not be living at the time; the figure is an effective vehicle for feeling and useful for making a point memorable.

The earliest Latin rhetorician refers to the figure as conformatio, including “people not

24 De Elocutione 265. On the grounds of internal evidence, Roberts (1902 ed.) favoured a first-century AD date, but more recently earlier dates have been argued for, c.270 BC or second century BC; see D.C. Innes’ introduction to the latest Loeb translation (1995, 312-14).
25 Dionysios, De Thucydide 37 (on Thuc. 5.85) and De imitazione 2.3, Marcellinus Vita Thuc. 38, ed./tr. Piccirilli (1985); Athanasius, MPG 27.188B (on Psalm 38); Chrysostom, In Job Sermo III, MPG 56.572D (cf. De Cruce et Latrone 10.9).
26 Clement, on Luke 12.16-20, Stromata 3.6.56.3 (ed. Stählin 1906; Origen, Contra Celsum (ed. Borret 1967) especially 7.36.19-21, but also P.6.2, 1.32.1, 1.34.1, 1.49.11, 1.50.15, 1.71.23, 2.1.3, 2.1.13 (cf. In Jeremiam 5.10.3, Fragmenta in Lamentationes 41.5, Commentum in Epistulam ad Romanos 41.4, Fragmenta in Psalmos 37.17.19).
27 The most extensive analysis of the term comes in Aelius Theon’s Progymnasmata, ed. Spengel, Rhet. Graec. II, 115.11-28, 117.30-2 (cf. 60.22-30, 68.21-3). The example of Demosthenes’ Kairos is cited in discussions by Alexander Rhetor in his De Figuris (Spengel III, 19.14-20) and Apsines of Gadara in his Ars Rhetorica (Spengel I, 299.6-12). Aischines’ Against Timarchos (1.128-30) introduces a deified abstraction as just such a law-court witness (although she is not represented as actually speaking); “The city and our ancestors founded an altar of Pheme, as being a great goddess... If I had presented witnesses about an individual, you would have believed me. Will you then disbelieve me, if I cite the goddess as witness...?”; see below n.54, and cf. On the Embassy 145. On the memorability of personifications, cf. the imagines agentes of the “art of memory”, on which see Yates’ fascinating book (1966).
present” as well as “mute things” as characters to be represented. Cicero describes the figure, under devices for amplification, as personarum ficta inductio, but seems to have no proper term for it. Quintilian coins the transliteration prosopopoeia and uses it, in the broadest sense of the Greek word, of “representation of characters”, but his examples do include such well known personifications as Vergil’s Rumour, his longest treatment of the device coming in a list of figures for intensifying emotion. That giving words to inanimate things is any different from giving them to imaginary people seems not to have been strongly felt. Quintilian comments that “there are some who” apply the term προσωποποίησις only to cases where a body as well as words has to be imagined (personification proper), calling imaginary human conversations διάλογοι or sermocinatio (ηθοποιία), but the only extant writers to draw such a distinction explicitly are Hermogenes of Tarsus and Priscian.

The absence of specific discussion of personification in the modern technical sense in the majority of ancient texts, despite the wide occurrence of the phenomenon, would suggest that there was no distinct concept in Classical thought. It might even seem that incarnations of abstractions and inanimate things were not generally recognised as distinct from any other kind of imaginary people, or from people who were real, but intangible because dead and buried. It has to be noted, too, that all occurrences of the term προσωποποίησις refer to speech put into a character’s mouth, either in the context of dialogue within a historical narrative or in that of adopting various personae within a public speech. Theoretical discussion of personification confines its material to rhetorical and literary style, making no link with artistic representations or cults of personifications.

For the purposes of this dissertation, I shall restrict myself to a narrow definition of “personification” as a technical term, meaning an anthropomorphic

28 Rhetorica ad Herennium 4.53.66.
29 De Oratore 3.5.204-5.
30 Quint. 9.2.29 ff., cf.1.8.3, 2.1.2, 3.8.49, 6.1.25, 11.1.41. The only other extant Latin writer to use the term prosopopoeia is Pomponius Porphyrio, who applies it to designate the form of Horace Odes I 28 (Comm. in Hor. Carm. 1.28.pr.).
31 Quint. 9.2.31; Hermogenes 9.1-7, ed. Rabe; Priscian, Praeexercitamina Rhetorica 9.27 (ed. Keil III, 437.29-438.1). Priscian elsewhere raises the seldom noted point that, while the third person can apply equally well to both animate and inanimate, the first and second imply some degree of personality; application of the latter to an inanimate subject therefore automatically personifies it (Institutiones Grammaticae 12.6.18, Keil II, 587.22-25). See Lausberg (1990, 407-13) the sermocinatio/fictio personae distinction.
representation of any non-human thing. I am primarily concerned with the personification of abstract ideas, taking “abstract” in the general sense of “non-concrete” — ideas indicating a quality, a state of being, an emotion. I include in my definition a number of characters who have some mythological role: figures such as Themis, Erôs and Hebe are so well established on Olympos that they might be thought hardly to count as personifications at all. The critical point, however, is that, unlike the names of Zeus, Hera and the rest of the Olympians, θεµίς, ἔρως and ἡβη are used as abstract nouns throughout antiquity. We have become so accustomed to these words as gods’ names that as often as not we leave them untranslated, making a distinction between deity and concept which would not have been perceived so sharply by a native speaker of ancient Greek. Whether or not a particular personified abstraction is a god is of course a question that I shall be concerned with throughout. I take “personification” to be the general, all-embracing category, but by the term “deified abstraction” I shall be implying that a personified concept has demonstrable cult status.

II SOURCES AND METHODOLOGY

The sources available for the study of Greek cults of deified abstractions are dauntingly diverse in nature, provenance and time. What might be considered the most “direct” evidence comes from material remains, especially inscriptions recording dedications or regulations concerning the worship of personified figures, and from the testimony of antiquarians, geographers and lexicographers writing of altars, cult statues and aitia for local rituals in honour of personifications. Our information on a particular figure may be concentrated on a specific location, as in the case of the

32 Cf. Bloomfield’s definitions of “true personification”, which he distinguishes from various related forms of “pseudo-personification” (1963, 163-4).
33 Shapiro (1993, 14) likewise takes the occurrence of the divinity alongside the abstract noun as qualification for the title “personification, in that she (or occasionally he) was felt to embody the essence of the abstraction”. Cf. Gardner’s definition in Hastings ed. 1917, 792-3.
34 Hebe’s role as wife to Herakles, symbolising his immortality, may be a post-Homeric development (Od. 11.602-4 being recognised as an interpolation even in antiquity) but the pair are shown in a chariot, flanked by other gods, as early as the seventh century on an unpublished Orientalising krater from Samos (LIMC s.v. “Herakles” 3330). See Burton 1996 chs. 1.3 and 4.5 on Herakles’ immortal (or otherwise) status, and Laurens 1988 on Hebe. Cf. Sarian 1990 and Angiolillo 1992 on Hestia.
35 Reinhardt (1966, 9) is begging the question by applying “deification” more generally.
Athenian Eleos, but is more often geographically scattered, with perhaps a dedication from Paros here and a Pausanian reference to Megara there. Rarely can any kind of chronological continuity be established, either, huge gaps intervening between the few notices we have, and, as always in the study of Greek religion, there is the problem of explicit commentary being largely confined to sources writing centuries after the event. The sparsity of direct testimonia means that material from literature and art needs to be brought into play to answer even the most basic questions about such cults: Greek poetry from Homer and Hesiod onwards is thronged with personifications, they are legion in extant sculpture and painted pottery, and we hear of yet more in descriptions of such lost works as the Chest of Kypselos. With such material, however, there is always the question of status — can a poetic or visual representation of a personification be taken as evidence for the figure’s existence in cult, or is it just a matter of “artistic licence”? Since I am dealing with such a wide range of material, it is perhaps particularly important to be aware from the start of the problems inherent in various categories of evidence, and explicitly to outline the methodology which underlies the presentation of material in the chapters which follow. I shall, then, briefly survey some general questions about personification in poetic literature and art, including the related phenomenon of interpretational allegory, before considering the more “direct” sources for cults of deified abstractions.

PERSONIFICATION IN GREEK LITERATURE AND ART: THE “STATUS QUESTION”

Accomplished craftsmen... represent not only the various gods in human forms, but everything else as well, sometimes painting rivers as men and springs in certain feminine forms, and islands and cities, and practically everything else, just as Homer dared to represent the Skamandros speaking beneath the flood, and though they cannot give voices to their figures, they do give them forms and symbols appropriate to their nature...

The desire to distinguish between “artistic” personifications and “real” cult figures seems to have troubled most commentators on the subject, and various attempts have been made to address this “status question”. Stößl distinguishes three

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36 Dio Chrysostom Oratio 4.85: οἱ κομνοὶ τῶν δημιουργῶν... οὐ μόνον τὰς τῶν θεῶν ἀπομιμούμενοι φόρεσις ἀνθρώπινοις εἶδοισιν, ἀλλὰ καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἐκαστῶν, ποταμῶς τε ἐν χρόνος γράφοντες ἑνδαπέσιν ὁμοίοις καὶ κρήνας ἐν τοις γυναικεῖοις εἶδοισι, νήσους τε καὶ πόλεις καὶ τὰ ἄλλα μικρὸς δεῖν ἔμμεντα, ὅποιον καὶ ὁμήρος ἑτολήμησιν ἐπιδείξας Σκάμιμανδρον φθεγμένον ὑπὸ τῇ δίνῃ, κάκεινιοι φανάς μὲν οὐκ ἔχουσι προσθεῖναι τοῖς εἴδολοις, εἴδη δὲ οἰκεία καὶ σημεῖα ἀπὸ τῆς φύσεως...
steps, from "pure abstraction" to fully individualised divinity; Webster outlines a scale of decreasing vividness, from deification via strong and weak personification to technical terms; Pötscher distinguishes between personification proper (the poetic) and "Person-Bereichdenken" (the religious), subdividing the latter into four categories, from those with "ausgeprägtem Persönlichkeitscharakter" to those with scarcely any personality; Kershaw favours a "sliding scale" and draws attention to the fact that any one personification may appear at several points along it.37 Evidence of cult might be taken as an important criterion for establishing a figure's place on the "reality" scale, although, as Aellen quite properly points out, it is difficult to generalise when our cult evidence is so scattered in terms of place and time.38 We might question the usefulness of the whole exercise, which betrays such an academic preoccupation with categorisation, and obscures the point that any one figure may have been regarded differently in different places and times. Rather than attempting to define a figure's exact status on an imaginary scale, it might be more helpful to take a broad overview of her/his incarnations in various media to gain a general indication of more or less widespread recognition.

**Literature**

The first problem with literary personification is technical: in a language which makes no formal distinction between animate and inanimate, and which has no such convention as the initial capital for a proper name, where can the line be drawn between an abstract noun and its personification? At the least explicit end of the scale, a noun can be described as personified if it is qualified by a verb or adjective denoting human action, feeling or status, a use of personifying language which might be termed "light personification".39 Some authors are more prone to it than others, but it can be found in a diversity of genres (prose as well as poetry), indicating how deeply embedded in Greek thought is the tendency to conceive of things in human terms. The

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37 Stößl (1937); Webster (1954); Pötscher (1972); Kershaw (1986, ch.1, 1-14). Cf. Willcock (1970, 3) on divine action in the *Iliad*, on a scale from "little more than a figure of speech" to "totally independent agent", and 1977 on "Augenblickserfindung" or "autoschediasma" in the *Iliad*.

38 Aellen 1994, 173 n.2.

39 Cf. Webster (1952a, 28), who includes this in his criteria for recognising a figure as personified.
topic deserves fuller treatment, but a handful of examples will illustrate the principle. The adverb *dikaiōs* implies that the subject is acting according to human ethics: “vengeance does not succeed fairly”, while the application of the qualification *sophos* to a plant is clearly humorous: “the wood of the vine is clever”. The verb *homilein* usually denotes human social intercourse, but can relate abstract ideas to the concrete world: “battle against the stronger is hard company for men”, “you consort with good fortune”. Similarly the verb *hepomai*, used primarily of people, “to follow” or “to attend (as a servant)”, is striking when applied to abstracts: “may daring and wide-spreading power attend me”, “let persuasion follow, and success in action”. One can be “captured” (*haliskomai*) by death, madness, weariness or love; “words are the healers of the disease of anger”, “ageing time teaches everything”. Within this category of light personification I would also place the figure of apostrophe, which implies personification by putting its object in the place of the human audience, and imbuing it with sufficient personality to be addressed.

More obviously personifying is the presence of a genealogy, used to convey close relationships between concepts. The whole of Hesiod’s *Theogony* is based upon more or less significant genealogical relationships, from Memory as mother of the Muses to Strife, mother of Toil, Famine, Sorrows, Slaughter, Lawlessness and the rest. Duchemin explains Hesiod’s partiality for personifications at least in part as a

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40 Thuc. 4.62.4: τιμωρία γὰρ οὐκ εὔνυχει δικαιαίως. See Smith 1918 for a catalogue of examples from Thucydides.
41 Eur. Cyc. 572: σοφὸν γε τὸ ἄλον τῆς ὀμπέλου.
42 Pind. N 10.72-3: χαλεπά δ’ ἔρις ἀνθρώπων ὀμιλεῖν κρεσσόνων.
43 Eur. Or. 354: εὐνυχία δ’ αὐτὸς ὀμιλεῖς.
44 Pind. O. 9.82-3: τόλμα δὲ καὶ ἀμφιλαφῆς δύναμις ἔσποιτο.
45 Aisch. Suppl. 523: πεῖθο δ’ ἔσποιτο καὶ τύχη προεκτήριος.
47 PV 377: ὤργῆς νοσοῦσις εἰσίν ἱεροί. PV 981: ἀλλ’ ἐκδιδάκεις πάνθ’ ὁ γηράσκων χρόνος.
48 Quintilian (9.2.31) makes the point that it is impossible to conceive of speech without conceiving it to be spoken by a person, so the figure of *prosopopoia* (in this case personification in a strict sense) is necessary to make acceptable the attribution of words to inanimate things. See Chappell 1991 on apostrophe in Homer and Pindar, and Frye 1957, 249 ff. Cf. the standard signature formulas inscribed on vases and statue bases, “Χ made/painted me”, and the boundary stones of the Athenian Agora: ὤρος εἰμι... , on which see Ober 1995 and Oliver 1998.
49 Theog. 915-7, 226-32; see West (1966, 34-7) on Hesiod’s “family planning”. See below p.68 on the daughters of Themis (*Theog*. 901-6) and p.94 on the children of Night (*Theog*. 211-225). Buxton (1994, 15) comments: “Erecting an artificial barrier between the mythical and non-mythical in Hesiod — a barrier between Dike (‘Right’) and dikē (‘right’), or between Pandora and womankind — travesties the poet’s thought.”
result of his project to present a unified picture, in honour of Zeus, out of very diverse source material, with personifications used to create links between disparate elements; she also points to the influence of Near Eastern genealogies on the Theogony. The lyric poets likewise use genealogies to express relationships, or to exalt an abstract concept by association with divine parentage. Alkman makes Lawfulness sister of Persuasion and daughter of Forethought. Bacchylides even invents a special genealogy for the first day of the Olympic festival: “O radiant daughter of Time and Night, you, the sixteenth day of the fiftieth month at Olympia...” Herakleitos develops the device as a central principle for his cosmology — “War is father of all and king of all” — as well as using personifications in a number of striking phrases to express his view of cosmic order — “The Sun will not transgress his measures. If he does, the Furies, ministers of Justice, will find him out”, “Lifetime is a child at play, moving pieces in a game. Kingship belongs to the child”.

A further stage is represented by statements which explicitly attribute deity to an abstract idea. Hesiod’s Pheme is an early example: “No rumour wholly dies that many people rumour; she too is somehow a goddess”. Euripides, however, provides some of the most startling uses of the trope. The Cyclops’ assertion that “Wealth is the only god for the wise; the others are boasts and fine forms of words” characterise

50 Duchemin 1980. She distinguishes between two categories of Hesiodic personification, that of abstract ideas, the “intellectual”, and that of natural phenomena, the “primitive”; she takes the latter to be a development from animism, the former to be “le produit de l’esprit humain” (1). She takes a fairly optimistic view of the status question: “il a toujours été vraisemblable... que les divinités énumérées dans la Théogonie avaient eu en quelque lieu des fidèles et des clergés pour les servir, des poètes pour les chanter. Le seul problème était pour nous de savoir où et quand...” (4).

51 PMG 64: Εὔνομίας < te > καὶ Πειθός ἀδελφόι καὶ Προμαθής θυγάτηρ. Cf. PMG 57 for Dew daughter of Zeus and Selene. On Alkman’s personifications, see Piatkowski 1960, though her ideas on the “cosmogonic” fragment 2390 have been demolished by Most (1987).

52 Bakch. 7.1-3: Ω λιπαρά θυγατέρ Χρόνου τε και/ Νυκτός, σε πεντήκοντα μηνών ὀμέραν/ ἐκκαθαρδόταν ἐν Ὀλυμπίαι. See Bowra (1964, ch.5) on Pindar’s genealogies.

53 Herakl., tr. Kahn 1979 (q.v. ad loc.). Fr. 53 DK (Kahn LXXXIII): Πόλεμος πάντων μὲν πατήρ ἔστι, πάντων δὲ βασιλεὺς. Fr. 94 DK (Kahn XLIV): "Ἡλιος γὰρ υἱὸς ὑπερβῆσατο μετα- εὶ δὲ μή, Ἑρινός μὲν Δίκης ἑπίκουροι ἐξευρήσονται. Fr. 52 DK (Kahn XLIV): αἱὸν παῖς ἔστι παιζόν, πεσσαέων· παιὸς ἡ βασιλεία. Cf. the personifications of Empedokles frs.116-7 Wright (1981, 280-2), related by pairing, mostly as oppositions, e.g. "lovely Truth and blind Uncertainty".

54 Op. 783-4: φήμη δ’ οὗ τις πάμπαν ἀπόλλυται, ἤντινα πολλοὶ/ λαοὶ φημίξοντε θεὸς νῦ τίς ἔστι καὶ αὐτή. See above n.27 on Aischines’ use of Pheme, and Parker (1996, 235) on “the easy transition from a description of Pheme’s power to an inference that she is divine".

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him not only as conventionally impious but also as something of a sophist. A number of comparable statements appear in Euripides’ tragedies, such as Helen’s exclamation “Gods! For recognising one’s friends is a god.” In the Trojan Women, Hekabe opens the agon scene with a prayer addressed to “Zeus, whether the compulsion of nature or the mind (nous) of men”, and later equates Helen’s particular nous with Aphrodite: “Seeing him (Paris) your own mind was made the Kyprian; Aphrodite is just the folly of mortals, and the goddess’ name comes straight from her aphrosyne.”

In the Phoenician Women, Ikastia exhorts Eteokles to shun the “unjust goddess” Ambition and rather “honour Equality”. Paradoxically, no one would suggest that this kind of statement is indicative of “real” deity; presumably it is the very fact that Ambition is not a goddess that gives the description its point. A related problem is presented by hymnic invocations of personifications. Pindar’s address to Hesychia, for example, has several formal features of the hymn genre: an initial address followed by reference to Hesychia’s parentage, descriptive relative clauses and a statement of power introduced by γὰρ:

Kindly Quiet, daughter of Justice who makes cities very great, you who hold the sovereign keys of councils and of wars, receive from Aristomenes the honour of a Pythian victory. For you know how to give gentleness to others as well as receiving it, at exactly the right time.

Since Hesychia appears so deified only in Pindar, this cannot be taken as evidence for a cult as such, but we should be cautious of dismissing her claim to divine status out of

55 Cyc. 316-7: ὁ πλοῦτος, ἀνθρώπισκε, τοῖς σοφοῖς θεός; τὰ δ’ ἄλλα κόμποι καὶ λόγων εὐμορφία. Seaford 1984, 164 (ad loc.): “This form of statement had been used for the simple attribution of divinity or description of popular allegiance. The sophistic movement of the late-5th century may be behind a third use: sophisticated attribution of divinity, tending towards persuasive redefinition of divinity, particularly when it appears to be exclusive.”


58 Phoin. 531-6: τις τῆς κακιστῆς δαμαλῶν ἐφίσσατο Φιλοτημίας, παί μὴ σὺ γ’ ἀδικος ἢ θεὸς.... κείνο κάλλιον, τέκνον./ ἱσότιτια τιμῶν. But see below pp.192-3 on Wealth.

59 But see below pp.192-3 on Wealth.

hand. The question of the status implied by hymns will arise later in the cases of Nemesis, Hygieia and Eirene. The seriousness or otherwise of an invocation's context is important in assessing the status of its addressee, and I would obviously not take such a comic passage as the opening of Lucian's poem on gout to indicate podagra's godhead: "O hateful name, o you who are hated by the gods, Gout, much-groan-causing, child of the River of Wailing (Kokytos)...

In addition to the personifications merely talked about in tragedy and comedy, a number appear as dramatis personae, presenting something of a challenge of representation for the producer, ancient and modern. In extant tragedy the phenomenon is limited to the Prometheus Bound's Kratos and Bia (see below) and Lyssa, who probably first appeared in Aischylus' Xantriai but is better known to us from Euripides' Madness of Herakles. A number of personifications, including Lyssa, however, appear in Pollux' list of characters requiring "special masks" (ἐξοσκευα πρόσωπων), at the end of a section describing the masks of various stock tragic characters:

Special masks: Aktaion is horned, Phineus blind, Thamyris having one eye grey the other black, Argos many-eyed, Euipepe being changed into a horse by Cheiron in Euripides, Cheiron, Tyro with livid cheeks in Sophokles — [this because she has suffered her step-mother Sidero's blows] — Achilles with hair shorn because of Patroklos, Amymone, a river, a mountain, Gorgo, Dike, Thanatos, Eriny, Lyssa, Oistros, Hybris, a Centaur, a Titan, a Giant, Índos, Triton, and briefy Polis, Priam, Peitho, Muses, Seasons, [Mithakos'] Nymphs, Pleiades, [Apathe, Methe, Oknos, Phthonos].

61 For a full treatment of Pindar's use of hyismic invocations, see Williamson 1990, 219-47; she concludes that no clear line can be drawn between "the ritual and the literary" (240). See Pulleyn (1997, 43-51) on the relationship between hymns and prayers.
62 See below for hymns to Nemesis (p.122), Hygieia (p.158) and Eirene (pp.196-7).
63 Luc. Podagra 1-2: "Ω στυγνόν οὖν', ὁ θεός στυγνοῦμεν, / Ποδάγρα, πολυστένακτε, Κοκυτοῦ τέκνον... Thanks to Nicky Devlin for many hymn references.
65 Pollux 4.141-2: τά δ ἐξοσκευα πρόσωπα Ἀκταίον ἐστὶ κερασφόρος. ἦ Φινεὺς τυφλός, ἦ Θάμυρος τὸν μὲν ἔχων γλακυν ὀφθαλμόν τὸν δὲ μέλανα, ἦ Ἀργὸς πολυφθαλής. ἦ Βύσση ἦ Χεῖρανος ὑπαλλαττομένη εἰς ἵππον παρ' Εὐρυπέθη, ἦ Τυρὸ πελιδήν τὰς παρεὶς παρὰ Σοφοκλεῖ — [ποῦ τε ὠκ ζη τῆς μητρῶς Σιδήρους πληγαῖς πέπονθεν] — ἦ Ἀχιλλεὺς ἕπι Πατρόκλῳ ἄκομος, ἦ Ἀμιφίμνη, ἦ ποταμός ἦ ὄρος, ἦ Γοργώ, ἦ Δίκη ἦ Θάνατος ἦ Ἐρινὺς ἦ Λύσσα ἦ Ὀιστρός ἦ Ὑβρίς, ἦ Κένταυρος ἦ Τιτάν ἦ Γιάς ἦ Ἰνδός ἦ Τριτός, τάχα δὲ καὶ Πόλις καὶ Πρίμος καὶ Πειθό καὶ Μόντσα καὶ Ὡρα καὶ [Μιθάκου] Νύμφαι καὶ Πλειάδες καὶ Ἀπάτη καὶ Μήθη καὶ Ὀκνός καὶ Φθόνος.] Apathe, Methe, Oknos and Phthonos appear in only one MS.
Apart from Lyssa, Oistros may have appeared in Euripides' *Antiope*, but what plays the others are from is a matter of speculation; nonetheless, the passage is a reminder of how much tragedy is lost to us, and that personifications may have appeared on the tragic stage more often than our few surviving examples would suggest. Webster argues that Pollux' list may derive from Aristophanes of Byzantium's *On Masks* (Athen. 659e), and iconographic evidence relates many of his masks to the late fourth or early third century, giving some idea of what early Hellenistic revivals of classical tragedies might have looked like. A great variety of personified characters likewise appears in extant comedy, Old and New. Aristophanes has Just and Unjust Arguments debating at length in the *Clouds*, while Demos is a principal character in the *Knights*, as is Wealth in the *Ploutos*, which also features Poverty, while the Eirene of the *Peace* is attended by Vintage and Festival. In Menander's more everyday world, the personifications Ignorance, Fortune and Proof still find a place speaking the prologues of, respectively, the *Perikeiromene*, the *Aspis* and a play of unknown title. Once again, such characters may be purely inventions of the playwright to suit the dramatic circumstances of the moment, but the fact that personifications were presented in physical form must have helped, alongside representations in the visual arts, to give them substance in the popular imagination.

Before leaving literary personification, the phenomenon of interpretational allegory deserves some notice, since the two are often confused. The exact converse of the deification of abstract ideas is the process whereby the name of a personal god comes to function as an appellative for what the god represents.
We should note that all the Greeks, when they saw a thing to be powerful, believed that its power did not operate without the authority of the gods. They called both the powerful thing and the god set over it by the one name.\textsuperscript{72}

This passage from Tzetzes’ commentary on Hesiod continues with an extensive list of “things”, both tangible and abstract, which are called by god’s names: Hephaistos for fire, Demeter for bread, Bakchos for wine, Athena for wisdom, Aphrodite for sex.\textsuperscript{73}

This would seem to go hand in hand with the philosophical trend for allegorising the Olympian gods which is apparent from the mid fifth century on. Veyne discusses this as a strategy adopted by rationalists for upholding the truth of myth: “Since the Stoics are certain beforehand that myth and poetry speak the truth, they have only to put them to torture to reconcile them with this truth. Allegory will furnish this Procrustean bed.”\textsuperscript{74} It is not unreasonable to suppose that, by blurring the distinction between deity and abstract, the development of such interpretational allegory would have facilitated the making of personifications into gods. It cannot be coincidence that Prodikos, credited as one of the earliest exponents of the view that the gods are just names for elements of the world basic to human life, is also the author of the “Choice of Herakles”, which Whitman calls “the first true personification allegory in the West”.\textsuperscript{75}


\textsuperscript{73} Cicero (De Natura Deorum 2.23.60) illustrates this by quoting a line of Terence: sine Cerere et Libero friget Venus (cf. 3.24.62 for refutation).

\textsuperscript{74} Veyne 1988, 65. On Homeric gods as “personifications of psychological motivations, or externalised causes for unexpected events” see Burton 1996, ch. 1.2.

\textsuperscript{75} Prodikos fr. 5 DK. Whitman 1987 makes a clear distinction between compositional and interpretative allegory in his stimulating account of allegory in ancient and medieval literature; cf. Lewis 1936, 44-111, and Curtius 1948, 128-44, 203-13. Particular questions of allegorical interpretation will be raised throughout this thesis, but for general studies of allegory in ancient art, see Hinks 1939 and Shapiro 1986.
The Visual Arts

... the ancients, wishing to make Fortune's wickedness manifest, were not satisfied with painting and sculpting her merely in the form of a woman (though this is sufficient sign of folly) but also gave her a rudder to have in her hand, placed under her feet a rolling pedestal and deprived her of her eyes; demonstrating through all these things the uncertainty of fortune.76

Personification in the visual arts presents a different set of problems. Unlike the literary figure, there is no room for ambiguity between abstract and personification: the artist either represents an abstract in human incarnation, or the idea must be expressed without recourse to anthropomorphism at all, so degrees of "personifiedness" are not in question.77 Rather, the major problem with visual representations is that of identification: how are we to recognise a personified abstraction in sculpture or painting? The figures familiar to us from the Classical Tradition are identifiable by their armoury of attributes or particular style of (un)dress, a language which requires a dictionary such as Cesare Ripa's influential Iconologia of 1593 for its interpretation.78 Some of these attributes have a long tradition, but very few are acquired before the Hellenistic period, and may not be constant even then. What is immediately striking about the figures of the period 600-400 BC catalogued in Shapiro's Personifications in Greek Art is their similarity — the vast majority are in the form of young women with no distinguishing features, only identifiable if accompanied by an inscription. Of the figures to be considered below, only Hygieia is readily recognisable by her snake, Eirene less easily so by the cornucopia-carrying child she holds (although this could equally make her Tyche), and the two Nemeseis of Smyrna by their measuring-rods; for identification of Themis, Peitho and the fifth-century Nemesis we are entirely reliant on inscriptions.79 In the following chapters I shall consider one or two more speculative cases, where identification rests on

76 Galen Exhortation to Medicine 2.2, tr. Rebecca Flemming: ἦς τὴν μοχθηρίαν ἐμφανίσας βουληθέντες οἱ παλαιοὶ γράφοντες καὶ πλάττοντες αὐτὴν οὐ μόνον ἐν εἴδει γυναικός ἰπρόσθησαν, καὶ τοῦτο ἰκανὸν ἦν ἀνοίχα σύμβολον, ὀλλα καὶ πιθαλίων ἔδωσαν ἐν χειρὶ ἔχον αὐτῇ καὶ τοῖς ποδοῖς ὑπὲθεσαν βάσιν σφαιρικίν, ἐστερημαν δὲ καὶ τοῖς ὁρθαμοῖν ἐξεικνὺμενοι διὰ τόσον ἀπάντασαν τὸ τῆς Τύχης ἀστατόν.

77 Cf. Beazley (1947, 7) on Athanasia. Shapiro (1993, 15) proposes some distinction of degree in terms of more or less specific iconographies.

78 The second edition (1603) advertises itself as "ampliata di 400 & più imagini". Each figure is described, many with accompanying illustration, and an explanation given of her/his attributes, often backed up by quotations from Latin texts.

79 See below on Hygieia (pp.174-81) and Peace (pp.190-4).
context/analogy, but an element of doubt must usually remain where inscriptions are lacking.\textsuperscript{80}

A further technical consideration is raised if we ask what purpose artistic personifications serve. In some cases a figure may already be familiar as part of the story known to us from literary sources, so any allegorical significance is already built into the narrative context, as in the case of Sleep and Death carrying Sarpedon off the battlefield.\textsuperscript{81} In others personifications may have an explanatory function, giving expression to ideas not easily portrayed in visual form. In a period when landscape is almost totally subservient to the human form, personified localities or rivers may serve to indicate a geographical setting, as with the rivers Alpheios and Kladeos on the east pediment of the temple of Zeus at Olympia, or the figure of Delos on vases depicting the birth of Apollo and Artemis.\textsuperscript{82} Similarly, personified abstractions may provide a "psychological context", or draw attention to particular aspects of the scene/myth, as on the Heimarmene Painter's "Persuasion of Helen" vase.\textsuperscript{83} Less specifically, personified figures can provide a general atmosphere, as with the Meidias Painter's "feel-good" vases,\textsuperscript{84} nor should comic intent be ruled out: the humour of Lucian's Gout is paralleled by the Kraipale Painter's personification of Hangover.\textsuperscript{85}

Although visual representations are unequivocally personified, then, their status on the "artistic device—cult figure" scale is no more definitionally secure than that of their literary counterparts. When it comes to their use as evidence for a figure's cult, different visual media present a variety of methodological problems, of which a brief review is in order.

\textsuperscript{80} On the need for accompanying texts to make more complex symbolism intelligible, cf. Cohen 1997, 97-101.
\textsuperscript{81} See below pp.51-2.
\textsuperscript{82} E.g. Ferrara Mus. Arch. 20298 (ARV\textsuperscript{2} 1277, 22); Vienna Kunsthist. Mus. IV 1771 (ARV\textsuperscript{2} 1318); Palermo Mus. Naz. (ARV\textsuperscript{2} 1321, 9). Cf. Aellen (1994, 133) on the function of "macrocosmic" personifications on South Italian vases.
\textsuperscript{83} See below pp.107-8 and 150-1. Aellen argues that personifications have a particular role in relation to the funerary function of the ceramics he is discussing, making the myths represented more universal, and in some cases offering hope for justice in the afterlife (1994, 65-6, 180-93).
\textsuperscript{84} See below pp.174-6.
\textsuperscript{85} Not noted by Shapiro 1993. Attic red-figure oinochoe, c.430 BC, Boston 00.352, ARV\textsuperscript{2} 1214,1; see Caskey and Beazley 1954, II no.112.
First, free-standing sculpture. In the absence of the kind of narrative context available to help identification in vase-painting or relief sculpture, it is hardly surprising that many possible identifications of personifications in free-standing sculpture remain speculative. Even where identity can be established, however, whether the existence of a statue of a personification is indicative of her cult is a moot point, since the vagaries of survival and the problem of Roman copies mean that adequate information about a work’s original context is often not available. Even in the rare case of an original statue found more or less in situ, such as Agorakritos’ Nemesis at Rhamnous, cross-referencing with literary sources is necessary to allow definite identification as the cult image. More often literary sources may allow us to identify the subject of a statue and its sculptor, as in the case of Kephisodotos’ Eirene, but put us no further forward in determining the figure’s status — if a statue is not specifically the cult image from a shrine, was it necessarily regarded as embodying the divine? The relationship between the gods and their representations was a matter of discussion even in antiquity; common sense would suggest that different viewers would have had differing opinions on the subject, but even a single person’s response to a particular statue is likely to be beyond the reach of modern scholarship to reconstruct. Perhaps more clear-cut, however, are cases where we have a statue base with a dedicatory inscription, with or without the actual statue; not only does such an inscription usually establish the statue’s identity but it also implies the divinity of the figure represented, since the statue is meant as an offering.

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86 See e.g. Harrison (1977), who makes an interesting, if not entirely convincing, case for identifying the seated goddess L from the east pediment of the Parthenon as Themis. She suggests that Themis would also be a suitable identity for the much debated colossal statue found in front of the Royal Stoa in the Agora (Agora S 2370, c.330 BC): “No other goddess would be so appropriate to stand in front of the place where the law-court of the Archon Basileus held session and where the ancestral law-codes of the Athenians were inscribed on stone” (157). Contra, see Palagia 1994, who identifies this as Agathe Tyche, against her own earlier identification of it (1982) as Demokratia.

87 See Ridgway 1984.

88 See below pp.101-4.

89 Compare e.g. Plut. Mor. 379c-d (on the popular elision of god and representation) with Pollitt’s selection of passages on “Late Hellenistic idealism” (1990, 223-4, cf. 5-6). The question is raised in the, perhaps unexpected, medium of vase-painting on an early Apulian column-krater, where a sculptor at work on a statue of Herakles is watched by none other than the hero himself (Trendall 1989, fig.131). The problem of “viewing and religious experience” is discussed at length by Tanner 1995, 44-80. Cf. Cohen (1997, 14-16) on the impossibility of viewing “through Greek eyes”.

90 See below e.g. on Chairestratos’ Themis (pp. 79-80), and Pyrrhos’ Athena Hygieia (p.164).
Architectural sculpture suffers from the same problems of identification as the free-standing variety, and only rarely has any attempt been made to recognise a personification other than Nike or Erôs on a frieze or pediment; the decorative nature of such sculpture makes it unreliable as evidence for cult status. Other relief sculpture has some advantages because of its tendency to be associated with an inscription. A fair number of local personifications have, for example, been identified on fourth-century Attic document reliefs from the content of the inscription they accompany, as discussed by Amy Smith. She sees the images as ephemeral devices making the substance of the document intelligible to the illiterate, or merely lazy, viewer, rather than necessarily an indication of cult status. This does not of course preclude a figure depicted on a document relief from having divinity, but cult status would have to be demonstrated from external sources. The Demokratia shown crowning Demos on the well known anti-tyranny decree relief of 337/6 BC from the Athenian Agora is a good example — she is known from other epigraphic sources to have been in receipt of cult at this period, but the relief adds to our information by providing us with our earliest extant image of the goddess. Votive reliefs, however, are a different matter, since they are by definition from a cult context. The conventional differentiation in size between humans and deities is useful in interpreting the scene represented, although the identity of the divine figures may have to be inferred from any accompanying inscription, or from the relief's provenance (if known). Where there is no inscription preserved identification may be difficult to establish with certainty, but iconographic context may be of assistance, as in the various reliefs depicting a female figure of divine scale in company with Aklepios, for whom Hygieia is at least a probable identification.

A large proportion of our material evidence for personifications in the fifth century is provided by Attic painted pottery. Only in very rare cases can the appearance of a personification in this medium be taken as anything like positive

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91 See above n.86 on Themis, below pp.146-7 on Peitho.
93 Smith 1997, 173; she points out that Hamdorf frequently, and misleadingly, cites such reliefs as testimonia.
94 Athens, Agora 1 6524, SEG XII.87; Stewart 1997, 154 fig.93. On Demokratia's iconography, see Alexandri-Tzahou 1986, 1993 and 1994; on her cult at Athens, see below p.189 and n.30.
95 Below pp.177-8.
attestation of cult — Themis welcoming Bendis on a red-figure skyphos in Tübingen may be an example\textsuperscript{96} — although the inclusion of a personification may sometimes be most readily explained on the hypothesis of the artist/commissioner's knowledge of a local cult.\textsuperscript{97} More often vase-painting, like literature, needs to be taken as supplementary to more direct evidence, adding to the general impression of how well known a particular personification may have been. At the most it may be permissible to argue on the basis of a figure's repeated appearance in vase-painting for an earlier date for her cult than more explicit testimonies allow — parallel with the methodology adopted by Oakley and Sinos in their study of the Athenian wedding.\textsuperscript{98} The vase shape may give some indication of how a particular figure was viewed — e.g. Himeros and Pothos are deemed appropriate decorations for pyxides, containers for cosmetics — although this is more helpful for establishing conceptual categories than status. The broader question of the status of the painted pottery itself is relevant to some extent, insofar as it has implications for the status of the creators and users of the images, but the matter of function is perhaps more immediately germane: were the pieces I shall be considering made for everyday use or specifically to accompany their owners to the afterlife?\textsuperscript{99} If the latter, we might look for some funerary significance in their decoration, as Aellen has done in his study of personifications on South Italian ceramics.\textsuperscript{100} Even more of a concern, with Attic pottery, is the question of whether the images can be seen as a fair reflection of concerns close to home, or were influenced by the demands of an export market. Such problems are not susceptible of resolution in the space available here, but the question-marks they throw over the use of painted pottery as evidence will be borne in mind when considering individual pieces below.\textsuperscript{101}

As I have not been looking at any instances of personification cults in the Greek

\textsuperscript{96} Below p.78.
\textsuperscript{97} See below on Nemesis (p.98) and Hygieia (p.175).
\textsuperscript{99} Vickers and Gill 1990; see Gill 1988 for a brief outline of problems involved in reconstructing the Greek vase trade and the view that pottery was only secondary to more important cargoes.
\textsuperscript{100} Aellen 1994.
\textsuperscript{101} Useful surveys of questions surrounding the production and trade of painted pottery are provided in Rasmussen and Spivey (eds.) 1991 by A. Johnston, on the market (203-32) and N. Spivey, on Etruscan customers (131-51). See Seeberg 1994 for fifth-century Athenian customers dealing directly with the painter.
colonies of Southern Italy, I have generally not made reference to South Italian vase-painting, except where a connection could be argued via the influence of drama. One point noted by Aellen, however, provides an interesting parallel for a feature observable in Attic vase-painting: the great majority of South Italian personifications are found on Apulian vases, and especially in the work of the Darius Painter and his immediate predecessors and successors. In Attic vase-painting there is likewise a concentration of personifications to be seen in the work of the Meidias Painter and his school. It is at least a possibility that our impression of the prevalence of personifications on painted pottery has been exaggerated by the popularity of such figures in two particular workshops.

OTHER MATERIAL EVIDENCE AND PROSE WRITERS

Personifications in poetic literature and the visual arts, then, present considerable problems of identification and are not necessarily indicative of a figure’s actual worship; for more direct attestation of cult we need to turn to other forms of material evidence and to various genres of prose literature written in the Roman period.

The exact sites where most of the figures to be considered below were worshipped are unfortunately unknown — we either have only very imprecise information on their location or there is nothing on the ground to confirm the kind of notice given by our written sources. The sanctuary of Nemesis and Themis at Rhamnous is exceptional, being the only sanctuary yet found dedicated primarily to a personification; usually it is rather the case that a personification has some subsidiary representation in the sanctuary of an Olympian — as Hygieia has statues, and occasionally altars, in Asklepieia. Where written sources do associate a personification cult with a reasonably specific location it is obviously worth looking for archaeological traces, although matching up the two is rarely straightforward — the case of Eleos, as we shall see, is a particularly good illustration of the problems involved. The main problem with archaeological evidence is, once again, one of identification, since we are nearly always going to need some form of written information to connect any site with

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102 In general see Taplin 1993, or, for a briefer account, A.D. Trendall in Rasmussen and Spivey 1991 (151-82).
103 Aellen 1994, 15; see below pp.174-6.
a personification — either a description from a prose writer or an inscription from the site itself naming the deity in question. This is of course more broadly true, but in the case of better known deities we are more likely to have comparative evidence to aid identification. Particular sorts of offering, sometimes special sacrificial animals, are associated with some gods — representations of body-parts for Asklepios, doves for Aphrodite, pigs for Demeter — so that a shrine may be indentified by the votives dedicated there.\textsuperscript{104} We have as yet established no such information about any deified abstraction, however, so that personification cults must easily go unrecognised in the archaeological record.

The one type of material evidence which can supply us with relatively firm identification of a personification’s cult is epigraphy. The largest category with which I shall be concerned is made up of inscriptions recording dedications and a number which name cult personnel, but there are also a few instances of financial accounts relating to a personification’s cult — loans made from “Nemesis’ silver” at Rhamnous, profits from the sale of skins from Eirene’s sacrificial victims — one case of regulations concerning the prohibition of particular sacrificial victims (for Peitho), and one of the inscription of a hymn (to Hygieia).\textsuperscript{105} Inscriptions arguably share some of the advantages of other material evidence and prose sources: an inscription is (almost) always attached to a specific location and is often at least approximately datable,\textsuperscript{106} it “speaks” more directly than most material remains, and the genre is generally less prone to the problems of artistic licence encountered elsewhere.\textsuperscript{107} Inscriptions of course suffer from the same problems of preservation as other kinds of material evidence, and not all have readily comprehensible texts, but the most common difficulty encountered by the non-specialist is inadequate documentation: details of find-spots are not always recorded, nor dating criteria, which is particularly frustrating

\textsuperscript{104} Many of the articles collected in Alcock and Osborne (eds.) 1994 discuss such problems of identification. See e.g. C. Morgan on the dedicant of the first temple at Corinth (138-9), S.G. Cole on dedications to Demeter — “These are so regular in type that many minor sanctuaries of Demeter may be identified by the votives alone” (203) — and M. Jost on “landscape preferences among the gods” (219-21). Cf. the more theoretical papers of F. de Polignac on the “visibility” of Geometric cults (3-18), and R. Osborne on archaeology and the history of cult activity in archaic Attika (143-60).

\textsuperscript{105} Below pp.100, 127, 158 and 189.

\textsuperscript{106} By an explicit dating-formula, the find-context, or letter-forms, though the latter may provide quite a wide range; on inscriptions and absolute dating, see e.g. Biers 1992, 65-7.

\textsuperscript{107} Though e.g. see pp.135-6 below on Peitho at Daphne.
where the inscription has been lost since recording, nor is it always made clear just how speculative restorations of missing passages are. The absence of such information, especially contextual details, may obviously limit the usefulness of such documents as evidence for cult practice.\(^{108}\)

This brings us finally to the writers of various genres of prose in the Roman period who are major sources of information about cults of all sorts, and often provide our only evidence for the worship of a particular personification. Shrines, statues and altars dedicated to personifications are among the myriad religious sights commented upon by Pausanias in his travels around mainland Greece, some of them merely listed, others more extensively discussed. Traditionally taken as a fairly straightforward chronicle of Greek monuments and customs, Pausanias’ text and its usefulness as evidence for ancient cult practice has been the subject of much recent scrutiny of late. Habicht and (more recently) Arafat look especially at the criteria Pausanias applies to the choice of monuments he describes, his constant emphasis on autopsy, and what kind of information he is more or less reliable on.\(^{109}\) Elsner provocatively defines Pausanias as a “pilgrim”, self-consciously exploring Greek identity through an examination of his own land rather than by an implicit definition by contrast with the otherness of Egypt or Scythia.\(^{110}\) The historical context in which Pausanias was travelling has always to be remembered, and the inherent conflict between his project to give an account of the distinguished past of a free Greece and the politics of his own day, when Greece could be regarded as a unity largely because of its status as the Roman province of Achaia. However, Pausanias’ almost obsessive interest in religious sites and ceremonies, and the importance he attached to the experience of “seeing for oneself”, make him considerably better informed than many of our sources, and I shall

\(^{108}\) For an excellent example of how an inscription can be presented, with full contextual information, see Jameson, Jordan and Kotansky 1993. The articles collected in Hägg (ed.) 1994 demonstrate a number of approaches to the issue of using epigraphic evidence for cult practice.


\(^{110}\) Elsner 1992. The comparison of Pausanias to the early Christian pilgrim such as Egeria may not tell the whole story — Elsner himself draws attention to the important differences that Pausanias was travelling in his own country rather than journeying to distant holy lands, and was writing for an audience who did not necessarily share the particulars of his religious experience, which could encompass the variety of a “mass of conflicting myth-histories” (28).
be referring to him more than to any other ancient author.\textsuperscript{111} I would place more weight on his testimony for things he has actually seen than the stories he adduces to explain them, and will be bearing in mind the possibility of discontinuities in cult practice over the centuries which separate his description from the past he favours.\textsuperscript{112}

Slightly earlier than Pausanias, though still very much a product of the Roman Empire, is Plutarch, whose moralising biographies and essays are my source in a number of cases below. Despite his philosophical interests, he seems to have retained great respect for traditional cult practices, as is apparent from his writings as well as his position as priest at Delphi. His desire to hold intellectual and more conservatively religious views in balance can be seen in a passage, of particular relevance to the current enquiry, in the \textit{Erotikos}, where Erôs' divinity is under discussion. The young Plutarch of the dialogue warns against allowing clever allegorical interpretations to undermine traditional faith in the gods:

\begin{quote}
Others again will say that Aphrodite is desire, Hermes, speech, the Muses arts, and Athena wisdom. You can see the abyss of atheism that opens under our feet if we classify the gods as various passions, capacities, or virtues.\textsuperscript{113}
\end{quote}

It would appear that the ultimate sanction for taking Erôs seriously as a god rather than a more abstract force is simply that “the ancient faith of our fathers suffices” (§13).\textsuperscript{114} As with Pausanias, the fact that Plutarch is writing in a Greece much changed from its classical heyday must always be taken into account; it can often be unclear whether he is referring to ancient practices or ones influenced by the current Roman rule, although he does sometimes demonstrate awareness that even the most traditional of rituals can change over time.\textsuperscript{115}

\textsuperscript{111} Arafat 1996, 17: “Autopsy is, in my view, the single most distinctive feature in Pausanias’ work”.
\textsuperscript{112} Cf. Alcock on “Minding the gap in Hellenistic and Roman Greece” (Alcock and Osborne, eds. 1994, 247-61), and Arafat 1995 on the changing functions of the temple of Hera at Olympia.
\textsuperscript{113} \textit{Eroticus} §14 (757b-c): ἐπειδὴ δ’ αὐτὸς φήσομαι τὴν Ἀφροδίτην ἐπιθυμίαν εἶναι καὶ τὸν Ἐρμῆν λόγον καὶ τέχνας τὰς Μούσας καὶ φρόνησιν τὴν Ἀθηνᾶν. ὃς δὲ δῆσε τὸν ὑπολαμβάνοντα βυθὸν ἡμῶν ἀθέωτητος, αὐτὸς πάθη καὶ δυνάμεις καὶ ἄρετας διαγράφομεν ἐκατόν τῶν θεῶν. On the speech, see Russell 1997.
\textsuperscript{114} Cf. \textit{Eroticus} §18 (763b-d), on the relative merits of poets, lawgivers and philosophers as guides for belief in the gods. On Plutarch's ambivalent attitude towards allegory, see Stafford 1999a. Cf. Sokrates' caution about rationalising explanations of the myth of Boreas and Oreithyia (Plato, \textit{Phaed.} 229-30).
\textsuperscript{115} See e.g. the essay entitled \textit{Why are oracles no longer delivered in hexameter verse?} (Mor. 394-409). On Plutarch's position as a Greek aristocrat in the Roman Empire, see Boulogne 1994, and Mossman (ed.) 1997; and see below p.153 on a \textit{Roman Question}. 

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The Elder Pliny provides some information on representations of personifications in sculpture, and their creators; Pollitt points to the "traditional and unoriginal nature" of Pliny's chapters on art in support of their worth as evidence, drawing, as Pliny himself claims they do, on as many as 2,000 earlier sources.\footnote{Pollitt 1990, 2-4; Pliny NH praef.17; most of the sources Pliny actually names were Greek, and some were even practising artists. For a thorough evaluation of Pliny's chapters on art, see Isager 1991.} Athenaios is even more given to citing his sources, perhaps as a display of erudition, which facilitates the analysis of the earlier material he quotes so freely; although the starting point for any discussion in the Deipnosophistai is of course always an item of food or drink, the range of material drawn in is extremely wide, and includes several passages of relevance to personification cults.\footnote{Arafat 1997 contrasts Athenaios' specificity with Pausanias' vague references to his wide reading.} Finally, a mine of fascinating titbits about otherwise obscure personifications, their festivals and other rituals is to be found in the works of scholiasts commenting on ancient texts, and of lexicographers who range in date from the second to the ninth centuries AD — Zenobios, Hesychios, Pollux, Photios, the Suda. Clearly these need to be treated with the greatest caution, since they are writing a long time after many of the customs they describe must have fallen into disuse, and we usually do not know what sources they are drawing on, but they can sometimes shed at least plausible light on problems raised by other sources.

**WORKING CRITERIA**

To sum up, then. Personifications in literature and art may be more or less well developed, but without external evidence there is always the possibility that they are no more than the products of poetic licence.\footnote{See below for the theory that personifications begin life in literature/art, then somehow move into the sphere of cult.} Epigraphy affords the most unequivocal information available for actual cult status, usually in the form of dedications naming a personification as recipient, and later writers of various prose genres provide much of my material: Plutarch, sundry lexicographers, and above all Pausanias. However reliable or otherwise their testimony, they are at least setting out to be informative, and I take their reference to an altar, a temple or sacrifices belonging to a personification as at least a reasonable basis for investigation. The perennial problem of the lateness of
such sources in relation to the institutions they describe can only be approached by juxtaposing them to the less explicit evidence afforded by earlier literature, art and archaeological remains. To a certain extent any conclusions have to remain provisional, since excavation continues at such important sites as Rhamnous and the Athenian Agora, inscriptions continue to be published, and more sophisticated analyses of the iconographic evidence continue to be produced.\textsuperscript{119} I hope, however, to have established at least a basic framework for further work with the evidence already available, and to have contributed in some small way towards the current trend for a more interdisciplinary approach to Greek religion.

III. \textit{THE GENDER QUESTION}\textsuperscript{120}

(Adelmo compares images of the whore of Babylon and the Virgin Mary):

I was not so much struck by her form as by the thought that she, too, was a woman like the other, and yet this one was the vessel of every vice, whereas the other was the receptacle of every virtue. But the forms were womanly in both cases...\textsuperscript{121}

If we take the personifications seriously, we must take their predominant femaleness seriously too.\textsuperscript{122}

The most immediately striking generalisation that can be made about personified figures is that the majority are female, a rule especially true of concepts connected with happiness and prosperity, "good things". Given the subordinate status of real women in ancient Greek society, it seems ironic that the qualities deemed desirable by Greek men should be represented in female form.\textsuperscript{123} Peace is a mother

\textsuperscript{119} See e.g. below p.113 on the "Great Nemesia" inscription from Rhamnous, published as recently as 1992. Compare Shapiro 1993 e.g. with Smith 1997 on political personifications, and see forthcoming work by Barbara Borg (Heidelberg).

\textsuperscript{120} This section now appears as an article in Foxhall and Salmon 1998 (Stafford 1998). Versions were given as papers in the Gender Studies seminar at Oxford (28/11/94) and the Masculinity, Power and Identity seminar at Nottingham (3/12/94); both audiences made helpful suggestions and I am particularly grateful to Richard Hawley for his subsequent comments and references.


\textsuperscript{122} Padel 1992, 160; cf. 158-9: "Personification, as the fifth century inherited and used it, was not an isolatable trick of language, but part of explaining what happened to and inside people... Cult, above all, tells us that the personifying mode answers to lived fifth-century reality."

\textsuperscript{123} Blundell (1995, 17) comments on the paradox. Stewart discusses the problem in the broader context of Greek use of the naked male body as a metaphor for society: "the metaphor's very specificity and power immediately raised a problem. For \textit{polis} in Greek is
and general terms for prosperity are firmly feminine, like Eutychia and Eudaimonia, not to mention Hygieia, the good Health needed to complement such fiscal well-being. Then there are the civic virtues of Democracy, Justice (Demokratia and Dike), and “Good Order”, in the form of Themis or Eunomia. Andreia does not appear until the 30s BC, depicted on the monument from Aphrodisias which commemorates Zoilos, but it is particularly striking that even “Manliness” should be feminine. The standard answer usually advanced to explain this paradox is linguistic: in Indo-European languages the abstract nouns that tend to be personified are usually feminine in gender. But this is only a start, for why should such nouns be feminine in the first place? And what about those personified nouns which happen to be masculine or neuter in grammatical gender? Further investigation is needed into the sociological and iconographic context in which these personified abstracts developed.

Even English, despite its lack of an explicit grammatical gender system, has a certain under-cover engenderedness. The only inanimate objects regularly given female gender, usually by their male owners, are boats, cars, and even church bells, but male-biased sexism can be found at many levels. An example with obvious application to the case of personified abstractions is the fact that only girls are given as names nouns which designate virtues: the characters Mercy and Charity in Dickens’ *Martin Chuzzlewit* may sound a little old-fashioned, but Prudence and Constance were still popular in my grandmother’s generation, and in my own Verity, Felicity and Grace are not uncommon. Modern Greek girls’ names likewise include virtues, like Eirene, Elpis, Euphrosyne, Eleutheria, Nike and even Themis (Peace, Hope, Good Sense, gendered feminine, as are most abstract nouns. Yet the city’s essence was above all, its *men* (1997, 133).

Zoilos, a freedman of Augustus, himself stands next to Time, “Honour”, while other personifications on the frieze include Mneme, along with the less abstract Polis and Roma: Erim 1979, pls. 21-9. Smith 1998 includes a photograph and drawing of the recent restoration of the frieze, which he calls “one of our best examples of Hellenistic civic allegory” (29).

The inherent androcentrism of English is discussed at length by Spender 1990 and Key 1975.

That bells should be “she” is particularly striking, given such proper names as “Great Tom” and “Big Ben” (thanks to Lin Foxhall and Hamish Forbes for a bell-ringing lesson). The inherent androcentrism of English is discussed at length by Spender 1990 and Key 1975. E.g. the idea that the male is the universal category, the norm from which others deviate, a theory which first found formal expression in John Kirkby’s *Eighty Eight Grammatical Rules* of 1746: rule no.21 states that the male gender is “more comprehensive” than the female (Spender 1990, 147-9).
Freedom, Victory, Order). In ancient Greece real women are less often given abstract values as such than compounds, like Eurykleia; where we do find a wide range of abstracts is in the context of prostitutes’ adopted names. In some cases these seem appropriate to their calling, e.g. Peitho or Euphrosyne (Persuasion, Joy), but paradoxically the majority signify virtues worthy of any good citizen wife or daughter: Eukleia, Galene, Eirene, Sige (Fair Fame, Calm, Peace, Silence).

The gender of English personifications is neatly explained in an eighteenth century dialogue by Joseph Addison:

> It is a great compliment methinks to the sex, says Cynthio, that your Virtues are generally shown in petticoats. I can give no other reason for it, says Philander, but because they chanced to be of feminine gender in the learned languages.

When faced with the question “Why are personifications predominantly female?” most commentators have been happy to point to the congruence between the female sex of these figures and the feminine gender of the abstract nouns they embody: the phenomenon is an accident of grammatical gender. Why such abstracts should be feminine in the first place, though, has generally been left to students of linguistics, as part of the inconclusive debate on the origins of grammatical gender.

The terms masculine, feminine and neuter were first imposed by ancient grammarians, according to the majority of biologically male or female creatures in each morphological category. Aristotle cites Protagoras as his authority for distinguishing genders of nouns (γένη όνομάτων) as masculine (ἀρρένα), feminine

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127 Thanks to the Greek students in my Greek Religion seminar group at Royal Holloway (1994/5) for compiling a list, which also includes: Αγάπη, Αθανασία, Αρετή, Εορδαία, Εόδοξια, Εὐθυμία, Εὐμορφια, Εὐτυχία, Ζωή, Παρθενία, Πίστις, Σοφία.
128 E.g. LGPN I lists just one Themis. Vol. II lists one Peitho and two Themides (though one of these can be read as a priestess of Themis, see below p.87).
129 Athen. 13.577a, 583e, 587f, 593b, 4.157a. Eirene/a is particulary popular: 47 occurrences are listed in LGPN I, 36 in vol.II. A "mythical" poetess Φαντασία, wife of Memphes, daughter of Nikarchos is mentioned by Eustathios (Comm. in Od. 1379.62) and Photios (Bibl. 3.151ab). For geographical names, cf. Themistokles' daughters Sybaris, Italia, Asia and possibly Hellas: Whitby (forthcoming).
130 Dialogue upon the Usefulness of Ancient Medals, London 1726, 36.
131 On linguistic gender and personification, see Wilamowitz (1931, 26): “Man könnte sagen, die Sprache selbst hätte mit der Personifikation angefangen, als sie den Abstrakta männliches und weibliches Geschlecht gab”. For surveys of nineteenth- and twentieth-century theories on grammatical gender, see Fodor 1959, 7-30, and Ibrahim 1973, 14-50. More recently, Lazzeroni (1993) has espoused the position that gender is an arbitrary categorisation in Indo-European languages, but his article gives only a brief sketch of the arguments.
(θῆλεα), and inanimate objects (σκεύη). Aristotle uses the same terms, but sometimes substitutes μεταξό for σκεύη, and notes that many inanimate objects are in fact designated by masculine or feminine nouns.\(^{133}\) In the first century BC Dionysios of Thrace’s *Art of Grammar* standardised the term οὐδέτερον for “neuter”, and added two further genders: “the common and the epicene: the common, e.g. horse or dog (*i.e. may be masc. or fem.*) and the epicene, e.g. swallow (*fem.*) or eagle (*masc.; *i.e. always of same gender, whatever the sex referred to.*)”\(^{134}\) The problem of mismatches between grammatical gender and sex comes under discussion as early as Aristophanes. In the *Clouds* Sokrates is parodied as debating this along with other obscure topics in his “thinking-shop”. When Strepsiades begs to be taught the “unjust logic”, Sokrates replies that first he must learn some basics, and proceeds to set him linguistic traps to fall into. First the fact that ἀλέκτρονιαν can mean either “cock” or “hen” is regretted, and a new word ἀλέκτρονια is coined to distinguish the female. Much play is made with the gender of ἰόν κόρδοπος (“kneading-trough”), one of those awkward feminine nouns of the second declension, which looks as though it ought to be masculine. Then a problem arises with some men’s names which, being first declension nouns, look distinctly feminine in the vocative, e.g. Ἁμυνίας, Ἁμυνία.\(^{135}\)

Despite such difficulties, the theory of “natural gender”, i.e. that grammatical gender reflects biological sex, was espoused in the nineteenth century by such scholars as Grimm; the great many inconsistencies and anomalies observable could be explained as confusions which have crept into this “logical order” over time.\(^{136}\) However, the obvious problems with equating sex and gender, not least that no two languages have an identical gender division, have led many to question the “natural gender” theory. Most late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century analysts tended to look for the origins of grammatical gender in the laws of congruence internal to language, rather than relating the question to the social context of language. Meillet, for example, asserts that the feminine gender is a grammatical category which, in most modern

\(^{133}\) Aristot. *Rhét.* 1407b7.

\(^{134}\) *Ars Gramm.* 634b (ed. Uhlig 1883, I, 24-5): γένη μὲν οὖν εἰσὶ τρίς ἀρσενικῶν, θηλυκῶν, οὐδέτερον. ἔννοι δὲ προστίθεσα τούτοις ἄλλα δύο, κοινὸν τε καὶ ἑπίκοινον, κοινὸν μὲν οὖν ἰππος κόσμου, ἑπίκοινον δὲ οὖν δὲ χειλιδῶν ἀετός. Latin grammar early fell under Dionysios’ influence, and via Latin most of the modern grammars of Europe are indebted to him. See Robins (1951, 1-68) on Greek and Roman grammatical theory.

\(^{135}\) *Nub.* 657-93. On this passage see Loraux 1995, 4-5.

Indo-European languages, holds an important place in morphology, but on the whole has no significance: "Déjà en latin, le genre féminin n’avait plus de signification."\textsuperscript{137}

Adherents of such an approach would hold that grammatical gender has little connection with the way we see the world, but there is plenty of evidence to suggest otherwise.\textsuperscript{138} A sensible treatment of the question can be found in Marina Yaguello’s \textit{Les Mots et les Femmes}, discussing sex and gender in the French language.\textsuperscript{139} She summarises the problem succinctly:

\begin{quote}
La question qui se pose, comme pour le problème plus général des rapports langue-pensée, est bien celle-ci: Est-ce que nous percevons la mort, la mer, la lune, etc., comme féminines parce que la hasard d’une classification nominale aveugle les a dotées du genre féminin? ou bien, au contraire, sont-ils féminins parce qu’il s’y rattache des valeurs symboliques qui seraient liées aux structures mentales et sociales et aux valeurs culturelles? Problème de la poule et de l’oeuf, pourrait-on dire...\textsuperscript{140}
\end{quote}

In the end, she concludes, the question of the origin of gender is a false problem: whichever way the arrow goes, gender $\rightarrow$ symbolism or symbolism $\rightarrow$ gender, the system as we have it certainly does convey an ideology linked to the social status of men and women.\textsuperscript{141}

It is interesting that extremes of good and evil should both be represented in female form, a point made by the Eco quote with which I began this section. At the opposite end of the spectrum from our personified “good things” we might think about the many female monsters of Greek mythology: Skylla and Charybdis, the Sirens and Harpies, Medusa, the Furies, the Chimaira, the Sphinx. Ruth Padel puts our female figures into this context: “Female personifications in classical Greek are a living part of

\textsuperscript{137} Meillet 1938, 24-25: The feminine is a subdivision of the “genre animé”, which covers not only living beings, but is also extended to everything considered “animated”, e.g. earth, tree (opposed to the fruit it bears, which is “inanimée”, neuter gender), hand. “La catégorie une fois créée, on est amené à l’appliquer à travers toute la langue. Le mécanisme grammatical oblige à faire que tout substantif animé soit masculin ou féminin. Et la répartition entre les deux genres peut parfois tenir à très peu de chose.” But even he suspects that in the prehistoric languages which Latin, etc., developed from, the feminine gender did have some kind of value, though he does not enlarge on this. Commenting on Meillet (in the same volume), Mauss points out the necessity of taking into account social and psychological factors when studying this question of categorisation.

\textsuperscript{138} See the linguistic and sociological studies cited by Key 1975 and Spender 1990. Many of their points are relevant to our enquiry, especially in so far as they relate questions of linguistic gender to the place of women and the feminine in society.

\textsuperscript{139} Yaguello 1978, 91-113, “Genre et sexe: La métaphore sexuelle”.

\textsuperscript{140} Yaguello 1978, 98.

\textsuperscript{141} Yaguello 1978, 100.
a precise imaginative landscape. This landscape concentrated daemonic danger in female forms, such as Sirens and tragedy's talismanic daemons, the Erinyes.\textsuperscript{142} Similarly, extremes of human behaviour often seem to find mythical expression in female form; those "monsters" Klytaimnestra and Medea spring to mind. At the "good" extreme, apart from personified abstractions there are plenty of heroines representing the ultimate in virtue of one sort or another (personifying, in the looser sense): Penelope the chaste, Alkestis the selfless wife. In addition to monsters, the landscape, both real and imaginary, is peopled by more or less beneficent nymphs, all ultimately descended from Earth herself, and of course Olympos has just as many goddesses as gods. In a Judaeo-Christian culture we have become more used to deity being male, though female aspects can be unearthed even here,\textsuperscript{143} but in Greek religion Olympian goddesses do not seem, as a rule, to be especially discriminated against. Given the inferiority of mortal women in Greek thought this might seem surprising, but denigration of female deities is rare. Aristophanes' Peisthetairos and Euelpides touch on the subject when discussing a suitable patron deity for Cloud Cuckoo Land in \textit{Birds}:

\begin{quote}
Peis.: What's wrong with Athene?
Euel.: Oh, no. You can't expect a well run city if you've got a female goddess standing up there in full armour, while Cleisthenes gets on with his knitting.\textsuperscript{144}
\end{quote}

In the end they decide on the Persian cock, a unequivocally male bird.\textsuperscript{145}

Although the majority of personifications are female, there are a number of male figures, and we might ask whether there is any significance in their masculinity. The male personifications most often depicted in Greek art are the youthful Erôs and his companions, Himeros and Pothos, though even Erôs seems to have had remarkably little place in cult.\textsuperscript{146} Arguably these occupy much the same position as our female

\textsuperscript{142} Padel 1992, 161. On the place of Furies in the cosmic order represented in South Italian vase-painting, see Aellen 1994, 24-90.
\textsuperscript{143} See Long (1992) on the history of the figure of Wisdom (feminine Sophia in Greek and Hochma in Hebrew) in Greek and Near Eastern traditions.
\textsuperscript{144} Birds 828-331, tr. David Barrett, 1978.
\textsuperscript{145} See Loraux 1992 for a discussion of gender difference and the divine. Cf. Blundell 1995, 191 for the suggestion that Athena's "masculine" iconography reflects her problematic status as a powerful female deity.
\textsuperscript{146} On Erôs, see Hermary et al. 1986, especially 851, on his cult. See Shapiro (1993, 110-24) on the "ubiquitous triumvirate".
figures, being beautiful young men of a suitable age, potential objects of men's desire. In the Hellenistic period Eros becomes younger, increasingly represented as the mischievous child of Aphrodite, inspiring desire in others but not an object of desire himself. The only other personification regularly represented as a child is also male: Wealth (Ploutos), whose first appearance is in the arms of Kephisodotos' "Peace holding the child Wealth", in which context I shall discuss him further in chapter six.

Eros and Ploutos, then, though personifications of masculine nouns, are generally represented as youths or children, categories of ambivalent sexuality. Lysippos' famous statue of The Opportune Moment (Kairos) at Sikyon was also a desirable youth, described in an epigram by Poseidippos and represented in later reliefs and gems. The only other male personifications to appear with any frequency in the visual arts are Sleep and Death (Hypnos and Thanatos). On the Chest of Kypselos, as described by Pausanias, they were shown as children in the arms of their mother Night (Nyx), but thereafter they are almost invariably depicted in their Homeric capacity as pall-bearers to Sarpedon. On Euphronios' much-discussed calyx-krater (c.510 BC) they are both mature, bearded men with wings; vase-painters in the second half of the fifth century usually differentiate between the two by making Death older and bearded, often unkempt, Sleep a beardless youth. Such a differentiation surely reflects the idea that Death is a figure to be reckoned with, in contrast to his more obviously desirable younger brother. Evidence for their cult is sparse: according to Pausanias Sleep shared an altar at Troizen with the Muses, and he received dedications at Epidauros in his capacity as healer. Plutarch mentions shrines at Sparta of Death and two other

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147 Cf. the relationship between the active/passive opposition and the masculine/feminine distinction in grammatical gender: e.g. the active agent phylax is masculine, while the more passive abstract phylake, "guarding", is feminine.
148 See below pp.190-4.
149 Poseidippos, AP 16.275; see Pollitt 1986, 53-4, fig. 47, and Kershaw 1986, ch.3. Pausanias records an altar to Kairos at Olympia (5.14.9), and cf. Alexander Rhetor's analysis of the use of a personified Kairos by Demosthenes in Olynthiac 1.2 (above n.27).
152 Altar at Troizen: Paus. 2.31.3. Epidauros: IG IV 1048, 1335, 1336; cf. Paus. 2.10.2. Sleep is invoked as healer at Sophokles, Philoctetes 827-32. See Wöhrle 1995, esp. 47-50.
male personification, Fear (Phobos) and Laughter (Gelōs).\textsuperscript{153} The kind of laughter respected at Sparta is clarified by Plutarch’s account of Lykourgos’ dedication of a statue of Gelōs, indicating that humour could add light relief to a severe life-style, as well as having educational value in making reproof more palatable. Fear’s temple at Sparta is described by Pausanias as outside the city, a place where adolescent boys had to sacrifice puppies to Enyalios the night before engaging in a vicious-sounding unarmed combat; Plutarch comments that the Spartans honour Fear as a positive force, “because in their opinion the state is held together above all by Fear”.\textsuperscript{154} Outside the Spartan context sacrifices to Fear on the eve of battle sound more apotropaic, meant to avert a powerfully disruptive force.\textsuperscript{155}

Two male personifications of traits which one might categorise as vices are Hesitation (Oknos) and Envy (Phthonos), though neither has an extensive iconography. The former appeared in Polygnotos’ painting of the Underworld in the Lesche of the Knidians at Delphi; Pausanias refers to him as “a man the inscription says is Hesitation”, suggesting that he was not a familiar figure; he was apparently represented as a seated man plaiting a rope, which a she-ass ate as he worked, but no further indication of his appearance is given.\textsuperscript{156} Envy, on the other hand, is explicitly of undesirable appearance in Lucian’s description of Apelles’ allegorical painting Slander.\textsuperscript{157} Envy stands before the throne of a king, who is flanked by Ignorance and Suspicion (Agnoia, Hypolepsis), while Slander (Diabole) drags her unfortunate victim forward, attended by Treachery and Deceit (Epiboule, Apathe), and followed at a distance by Repentance (Metanoia), who turns to look at Truth (Aletheia). Envy, clothed in black, is the only male personification in the scene: “a pale, ugly man who has a piercing eye and looks as if he had wasted away in long illness”.

\textsuperscript{153} Temples at Sparta to Thanatos, Phobos and Gelōs: Plut. Kleom. 9. Statue of Gelōs: Plut. Lyk. 25.; cf. statues of Hypnos and Thanatos at Sparta (Paus. 3.18.1).

\textsuperscript{154} Phobos at Sparta: Paus. 3.14.9, Plut. Kleom. 9. On Sparta’s cults to predominantly male personifications, see Richer (forthcoming). On the “Spartan-ness” of a cult of Fear, see Parker 1989, 162.

\textsuperscript{155} Sacrifices to Fear: Plut. Thes. 27, Alex. 31, Appian Pun. 21. Phobos is also among the deities listed as responsible for Selinous’ victory at IG XIV 268 (ML 38).

\textsuperscript{156} Paus. 10.29.1. See Shapiro 1993, 178-9 on this and another possible representation of Oknos (black-figure lekythos, Palermo 996).

\textsuperscript{157} On not being quick to believe slander, 6-8. Botticelli’s Calumny of Apelles, in the Uffizi, follows Lucian’s description closely, except for the figure of Truth; see Warner 1985, 316-7.
Personifications in adult male form, then, are often of equivocal or even negative values, but the main point is their scarcity. For the most part literary and artistic tradition demands that abstract qualities, positive or negative, should be represented in female form. A good example of the strength of this tradition can be seen in the story recorded by Kallisthenes, quoted by Athenaios, about Limos, "Famine"; the word is usually masculine in gender, though there are occasional instances of ἡ λίμῳς (fem.) in Doric dialects. According to Kallisthenes, when the Arkadians were besieging the small town of Kromnos, one of the Spartans under siege managed to send a message back to Sparta via a riddle: the woman imprisoned in the temple of Apollo must be liberated within ten days, as she would no longer be capable of liberation after this time. The riddle is explained:

For this "woman" is in the temple of Apollo beside Apollo's throne, being a painted representation of Famine in the likeness of a woman. And so it became clear to all that the men in the besieged town were able to hold out only ten days on account of famine (διὰ τὸν λίμόν).  

For Kallisthenes the masculine gender for limos was clearly the norm, but he makes no comment on the anomaly of Famine's female form.

A more confused case is that of the masculine Eleos, "Mercy". A number of our later Greek sources seem to be unhappy with the masculine, and use Φιλανθρωπία instead, a word obviously associated conceptually, though not exactly a synonym. Eleos' masculinity is even more of a problem for Latin authors: an accurate translation of ἐλεος is, of course, the feminine misericordia, with clementia as a possible alternative; there is no suitable equivalent which would keep the masculine. Statius' description of the altar of Clementia in the Athenian Agora raises a potential problem in describing Mercy's cult statue, but, fortunately for Statius,

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158 Used e.g. by the Megarian in Aristoph. Acharn. 743.
159 Kallisthenes, ap. Athen. 10.452b (FGrH 124 F13): αὕτη γὰρ ἐστιν ἐν τῷ Ἀπολλωνίῳ παρὰ τὸν τὸῦ Ἀπολλωνὸς βρόντον διὰ γραφῆς ἀπομεμημένος Λιμός ἔχων γυναικὸς μορφὴν. φανερὸν οὖν ἐγένετο πᾶσιν δι' ἑκάτην ἡμέρας ἦταν καρπορηδος δύναται οἱ πολιορκοῦμενοι διὰ τὸν λίμον. See West 1966, 231 (ad Theog. 227) for further references to Limos personified: "the gender of the word and the sex of the god are variable".
160 See Apsines and Sopatros (below pp.210 and 227).
161 See e.g. Quintilian and Seneca (below pp.210 and 231). Cf. καρδία/occasio for Greek/Latin gender-crossing.
there is no such thing: "There is no image, the goddess' form is entrusted to no metal".  

Problems of representation obviously also arise with personifications of nouns which are neuter in gender. Geras, Old Age, appears only on five vases from the first half of the fifth century, all depicting Herakles' confrontation with him, a story for which no literary account survives. Geras is represented as an old man in every case, being particularly wizened and deformed, leaning on a walking-stick, on pelikai in the Louvre and Villa Giulia. Penthos, Grief, has human form implied by the fable, attributed by Plutarch to Aisop, which makes it/him ask Zeus for a share in the honours being handed out to the gods. The Greek is equivocal, Grief being designated only once by a personal pronoun in the dative, ἀ ντὸ, which could of course be masculine or neuter, but English translations are obliged to designate Grief as "he" in order to maintain the personification. It would be interesting to know how Kratos was represented in the original production of the Prometheus Bound. Its/his companion Bia was presumably female, though masculinity might be expected of "Force" acting as guard of the captive Prometheus; the character is silent, however, in contrast to Kratos, who has a lengthy exchange with Hephaistos in the opening scene of the play. The pair were apparently depicted in the context of the punishment of Ixion on a fragmentary late fifth-century skyphos in a private collection in Basel, but unfortunately all that survives is Bia's hand and the two inscriptions.

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162 Theb. 12.492-3; see below pp.215-16. Wycherley (1954, 148) comments that the lack of a statue is lucky for Statius "otherwise the slight difficulty of the gender of the deity (...) might have become acute".
163 Louvre G234, ARV² 286,16; Villa Giulia 48238, ARV² 284,1; see Shapiro 1993, 89-94, nos. 34-8.
164 Consolation to his Wife §6, e.g. tr. Russell 1993, 299-300; the fable does not appear in Haurstråth's edition of the Corpus Fabularum Aesopicarum (Leipzig 1956-9). At Consolation to Apollonius, 112a, Plutarch attributes the story to "a philosopher", comforting Queen Arsinoe; see F.C. Babbitt's translation of Penthos here as "she" (Loeb, 1928). See above p.43 on Plutarch and allegory.
165 P.V. 1-87; on the disputed date and authorship of the play see Griffith 1977 and Bees 1993. A production for the London Festival of Greek Drama 1998 by Chloë Productions played both Kratos and Bia as male; some practical problems of the chaining sequence are discussed by Dyson 1994.
166 Collection of Herbert Cahn, HC 541; Shapiro 1993, no.110. Shapiro comments that kratos could "easily be taken for masculine" with its -os ending and "this was clearly not a problem that worried the Greeks" (167).
In *Monuments and Maidens*, Marina Warner discusses the "allegory of the female form" in the Classical Tradition. She argues that while at first female form of personified virtues was an accident of grammatical gender, iconography took hold, perpetuating the tradition. In addition to this, a further rationale for depicting concepts in female form is provided by the female figures of Greek myth, especially Athena; this affixing of meaning to the female form, she suggests, can be seen today in advertising. Her account is persuasive, but the argument needs to be taken further back. Literary and artistic tradition did indeed perpetuate a female iconography for personified abstractions, but this iconography has its roots in attitudes towards the feminine. In a male-dominated society extremes of both good and evil tend to be represented in female form, as "the other"; further, it is noticeable that all the personified "good things" we have seen are either handsome youths or beautiful young women of marriageable age. Is it too fanciful to suggest that they are so represented because both abstract and image are indeed objects of men's desire? In Prodikos' "Choice of Herakles" the superficially desirable Vice is described in explicitly sexual terms, appealing to the hero to take the option of a life of decadence and indulgence. Aristophanes makes play with just this connection with the silent female characters in several plays who are leered at by the men on stage: the "Peace-treaties" (Spondai) of the *Knights*, "Reconciliation" (Diallage) in the *Lysistrata*, "Vintage" and "Festival-going" (Opora and Theoria) in the *Peace*. While the very fact that women have a low profile makes the female form a practically suitable vehicle for abstract ideas in search of an incarnation, psychologically their desirable form conveys the desirability of the abstract values they embody.

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167 Warner 1985, especially 63-87, "Engendered Images".
168 Warner 1985, 85-6: "Divorced from the religion that gave her worship, disinfected of pagan cult and ritual, Athena provided the mould in which the language of virtue was cast...". Warner 1985, 85-6.
169 Homer's Litai are the only female personifications to be characterised as elderly, their age in relation to Ate dictated by the logic of the allegory (ll. 9.502-12).
170 Prodikos fr.2 DK (Xen. Mem. II 1, 21-34); on Herakles' encounter, see Fox 1998, 13-19. Cf. Lucian's parody, which presents the young Lucian with the choice between Education (Paideia) and the Art of Statuary (Hermoglyphike), *Dream* 6-9.
IV. DEIFIED ABSTRACTIONS AS A CLASS

ANCIENT ANALYSIS

Although allegorical interpretations and general criticisms of the Olympian gods are plentiful in Greek speculative writing, explicit discussion of deified abstractions is scarcely to be found before the Roman period, when it is extremely difficult to disentangle the Greek and Roman religious contexts of the phenomenon, obscuring possible differences between the two. The absence of such discussion from Plato is perhaps particularly surprising, given the obvious parallelism between deified abstractions and the Platonic Forms: as Dover puts it, “Plato’s ‘ideas’ are, historically speaking, the progeny of the personified abstractions who thronged the suburbs of Olympus”. In Plato’s account of his last days in prison, Sokrates himself employs just the kind of trope discussed in later rhetorical treatises when explaining to his friends why he will not even try to escape from Athens. He conjures up a dialogue between himself and the city’s Laws (Nomoi), who convince him that he should abide by the state’s judgements and face the prescribed death penalty; Sokrates concludes that he should follow the course indicated by ὁ θεός, but it is by no means clear how “the god” relates to the rhetorical personifications who have been its mouthpiece.

Even in the Symposium, with its extensive discussion of the nature of love, and such questions as whether Love is oldest or youngest of the gods, Erōs’ status as a personification is not addressed; Diotima’s account of his birth from a union between Contrivance (Poros), son of Invention (Metis), and Poverty (Penia) implicitly suggests his allegorical nature, but his divinity as such is never disputed.

Cicero, however, has plenty to say on the subject of deified abstractions in the Laws. The religious laws of his ideal state include an injunction to worship not only “those who have always lived in heaven”, but also “those qualities through which an ascent to heaven is granted to man: Intellect, Virtue, Piety, Faith”. It is a good thing

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173 See Muir 1985 for a succinct general account of Greek religious scepticism.
174 Dover 1980, 7.
175 Crito 50a-54e. On the trope, see above pp.24-5.
176 Sym. 203b-204a; cf. Plut. On Isis and Osiris 57 (574d). Poros also appears in the cosmogonic fragments associated with Alkman: PMG 5 (P.Oxy. 2390) fr.2 col.iii; see above n.51.
177 De Leg. 2.19.9: Diuos et eos qui caelestes semper habiti sunt colunto et ollos quos endo caelo merita <<!>ocaauerint, Herculm, Liberum, Aesculapium, Castorem, Pollucem, Quirinum, ast olla propter quae datur homini<bus> ascensus in caelum, Mentem, Virtutem, Pietatem, Fudem, earumque laudum delubra sunto nec ulla utiorum sacra sollemnia obeunto.
for such virtues to be “arbitrarily deified”, as they have been in Rome, because then the good men who possess them “may believe that the gods themselves are established within their own souls”; on the same ethical note, we should give our gods names of “things which we should desire, such as Health, Honour, Wealth and Victory”.

Vices, however, should not be worshipped, and the existing altars in Rome to Fever, Bad Fortune and “all abominations of that kind” must be removed. In the De Natura Deorum, Cicero puts both sides of the argument. Stoic doctrine, which is basically in favour of the deification of abstractions, is outlined by Balbus, who describes two complementary processes. Either the gift of a god may be given the god’s name, as Ceres’ gift of corn can be called “cereal”, or

    in other cases some thing in which particularly great power resides may itself be designated by the title “god”, like Faith and Intellect, whom we see recently dedicated on the Capitol by Marcus Aemilius Scaurus, and indeed Faith had previously been deified by Aulus Attilius Calatinus. You see the temple of Virtue, you see that of Honour, restored by Marcus Marcellus, which was dedicated many years before by Quintus Maximus in the time of the Ligurian war. And what of Wealth, of Health, of Concord, Liberty, Victory? Because the power of all these things was so great that it could not be governed without godhead, the things themselves acquired the title of gods. In the same class the names of Desire, Pleasure and Venus Lubentina have been deified, vicious and unnatural things (even if Velleius thinks otherwise), but nonetheless these vices often strike more powerfully than nature.

The argument that some abstract “things” just seem too powerful not to be gods is compelling in its simplicity, and I shall have cause to return to it below. The Academic Cotta, however, is not impressed, and demolishes the Stoic position by a reductio ad absurdum, representing the crowd of ridiculous deities that are let in by allowing any gods to exist. He concludes that abstract forces are powerful and may even be

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178 Ibid. 2.28.13: ... rerumque expetendarum nomina, Salutis, Honoris, Opis, Victoriae, quoniamque exspectatione rerum bonarum erigitur animus...

179 Ibid. 2.28.11: Virtutes enim, non uita consecrar<> decet. Araque uetusta in Palatio Febris et altera Esquiffis Malae Fortunae detestataque omnia eiusmodi repudianda sunt.

180 De Natura Deorum 2.23.61: tum autem res ipsa in qua vis inest maior aliqua sic appellatur ut ea ipsa nominetur deus, ut Fides, ut Mens, quas in Capitolio dedicatas videmus proxime a M. Aemilio Scauro, ante autem ab A. Atilio Calatino erat Fides consecrata. vides Virtutis templum, vides Honoris a M. Marcelllo renovatum quod multis annis erat bello Ligustico a Q. Maximo dedicatum. quid Opis, quid Salutis, quid Concordiae Libertatis Victoriae? quorum omnium rerum quia vis erat tanta ut sine deo regi non posses, ipsa res deorum nomen obtinuit. quo ex genere Cupidinis et Voluptatis et Lubentinae Veneris vocabula consecrata sunt, vitiosarum rerum neque naturalium (quamquam Velleius aliter existimavit), sed tamen ea ipsa vitia natura vehementius saepe pulsant.
desirable, but they are either human qualities within our own characters or objects of our desire — a view which provides the starting point for this chapter. 181

A hundred years later, Pliny the Elder is even more cynical, his tone becoming decidedly satirical as he includes personifications in a general dismissal of traditional religion. For him it is “a mark of human weakness” to attribute any form to God, and to believe in countless deified abstractions, especially personified vices, “reaches even greater heights of stupidity”. 182 Not only is the entire traditional pantheon a human fantasy, but even if a supreme being existed it would hardly be interested in men’s affairs. Belief in any kind of god(s) is merely the result of wishful thinking. 183The idea is echoed by Juvenal’s comment on Fortuna: “You would have no divinity, Fortune, if we had any sense; it is we, we ourselves who make you into a goddess and set you in heaven”. 184 Lucian’s satirical council of gods particularly blames the philosophers for this arbitrary invention of abstract deities. They receive a great deal of the worship that should be being paid to the proper gods, despite being absent from heaven and indeed “unable to exist at all as realities”: “Where is that much talked about Virtue, and Nature and Destiny and Fortune, insubstantial and empty names of things dreamed up by those bleating philosophers...?” 185

Not surprisingly, St Augustine’s Christian assessment of the phenomenon is particularly scathing about “that crowd of minute gods”, the deified abstractions who represent “all that ought to done” and “all that ought to be desired”. 186 Having ridiculed the temple of Concordia as being built on a site of notorious discord, he proceeds to debunk the host of deities apparently necessary for the preservation and

181 Ibid. 3.17.43-7, 3.24.61.
182 NH 2.14: Quapropter effigiem dei formamque quaerere inbecillitatis humanae reor. quisquis est deus, si modo est alius, et quacumque in parte, totus est sensus, totus visus, totus auditus, totus animae, totus animi, totus sui. innumerous quidem credere atque etiam ex vitiiis hominum, ut Pudicitiam, Concordiam, Mentem, Spern, Honorem, Clementiam, Fidem, aut, ut Democrito placuit, duos omnino, Poenam et Beneficium, maiorem ad socordiam accedit.
183 NH 2.26.
184 Satire 10.365-6: nullum numen habes, si sit prudentia: nos te, / nos facimus, Fortuna, deam caeloque locamus.
185 Conc. Deo. 13: ἢ ποῦ γὰρ ἔστιν ἡ πολυθρύλητος ἁρετῆ καὶ φύσις καὶ εἰμαρμένη καὶ τύχη, ἀνυπόστατα καὶ κενά πραγμάτων ὀνόματα ὑπὸ βλακών ἀνθρώπων τῶν φιλοσόφων ἐπινοηθέντα...
186 City of God 4.9 and 21.
extension of the Roman Empire. He then poses a very good question: if such qualities as Virtus and Fides have been deified, why not other important virtues? Perhaps, he suggests, particular virtues like temperantia, fortitudo, prudentia and sapientia are all included under the general heading of Virtus; but in that case they might as well be regarded as aspects of the one God. Pursuing the logic of his argument he concludes: “Not truth, but stupidity has created these goddesses; they are in fact the gifts of the true God, not gods themselves.” A little later he admits that the existence of personification cults could even help to convert some people, if they were only intelligent enough to realise that the names they worshipped really belonged to the gift desired rather than to any possible giver.

MODERN THEORIES

Modern commentators echo some of these ideas and add further theories. The question of the origins of deified abstractions is closely related to the whole problem of the development of personal gods and their names: were the gods originally concepts which have become deified, or are abstract ideas “de-personalised” gods? Usener’s extreme thesis that language originally possessed no abstracts at all but an array of “Augenblicksgötter” and “Sondergötter” has long been discarded, but the origins of particular personifications have still been sought in the “Abstraktifizierung von Dämonen”, as we shall see in the case of Themis. Since personifications appear alongside their abstract noun in Homer, however, and we have no real evidence for thought patterns before Homer, the “chicken and egg” question seems likely to remain vexed. Burkert more practically sees the relationship between abstract and deity as a two-way process, emphasising the importance of epic in “fixing” the gods: “Insofar as divine names are meaningful, the boundary between name and concept is fluid; it is only the process of Homerization that set up a clear delimitation here.”

187 Ibid. 3.25-6, 4.8-19. Instances of discord at various levels are of course frequently the occasion for worshipping Concordia/Homonoia: see Thériault 1996 passim.
188 Ibid. 4.20.
189 Ibid. 4.21: has deas non veritas, sed vanitas facit; haec enim veri Dei munera sunt, non ipsae sunt deae.
190 Usener 1996, 364 ff.; see Farnell 1907 for summary and criticism; on Usener, see Bremmer 1990. Cf. Deubner 1902-9, 2068-9.
191 Dietrich 1988, 26: “It is impossible to determine whether the personal evolved from the impersonal concept”, or vice versa.
192 Burkert 1985a,185,
Aside from the more general question, then, the first strand of interpretation seeks to explain a cult personification in terms of her close relationship with a more personal deity. Deubner espouses the most straightforward version of this, what we might call the "epithet theory", which understands a personification as an aspect of a personal deity, which has developed into an independent figure via a stage as a cult title. He suggests that the majority of Greek deified abstractions developed in this way, claiming that Dike and Nemesis, for example, are only understandable if taken in an adjectival sense, "the directing" and "the apportioning" goddesses; he reverses the progression for Roman personifications, which he sees as "lifeless" attempts to animate abstract ideas, never really leaving the conceptual sphere. Writing around the same time, Axtell is rather wary of the epithet theory in respect of Roman personification cults, seeing it as only a partial explanation, and not universally applicable: "It is, however, so sure and convincing a cause in a few instances that it has been seized upon as a satisfactory explanation for them all, and nearly all writers on the subject apparently go on the principle: Given a deified appellative, find its original personal or concrete parent." Farnell is likewise cautious in applying the epithet theory to all Greek personification cults, proposing the variation that abstract names might become attached to older cults; he expands on this by suggesting that Hebe at Phlius and Erôs at Thespiai might have begun as local fertility gods, but without offering any hypothesis as to how such a superposition might have come about. More recently Mark has seen evidence for such an annexation of an older cult by a younger in the name Athena Nike: "such fused titles are usually thought to arise from the annexation or assimilation of a preexisting local cult by a major god". In the case of Athena Nike it would have to be the personification who came first; Mark cannot definitely demonstrate such preexistence for Nike, but he favours the idea to the "text-based hypothesis" that personifications originated as epithets. Clearly this approach leaves the question of the personification's origins unanswered, but it is a possible model for

193 Deubner 1902-9, 2069-70, 2078.
194 Axtell 1987/07, 64; see 59-67 for a full review of earlier discussions of Roman deification of abstract ideas.
195 Farnell 1896-1909, V, 444.
explaining the striking noun-noun combination of such cult appellations as Ge Themis, Aphrodite Peitho and Athena Hygieia, all of whom I shall be considering below.¹⁹⁷

An alternative scenario picks up on Balbus' idea that even "vicious and unnatural things" may be so powerful that they become deified, a theory which helps to explain the presence of a number of "negative" values in the realm of cult. In such figures as Aidōs, Eleos, Gelōs and Phobos Farnell recognises "a different religious phenomenon" from that which applies to Hebe and Erōs, one that come from the sphere of magic and polydaimonism; he derives these deities from the primitive psychological process which externalises a strong emotion and identifies it with some divine causative power.¹⁹⁸ A more deliberate process of externalisation can be seen in the approach which suggests that cults of personified ideas were a response to the need for an ethical element otherwise lacking in Greek and Roman religion. Farnell, again, notes that many personification cults represent such moral ideas, and that they are mostly "of late emergence", but draws no conclusions.¹⁹⁹ Commenting on Roman religion, Litchfield sees deified abstractions very much in this light, their cults introduced as part of an attempt to remedy the lack of morality in the traditional religious system:

The ancient divinities were made to denounce the moral vices, and themselves endowed, more or less successfully, with moral attributes. The creation of supplementary deities, purely moral, Fides, Concordia, Pudicitia, and the like — a phenomenon too familiar to need more than a passing mention — is perhaps testimony at once to the original incompetency in this respect of the elder divinities, and to the inadequate success of the Roman state in their reformation.²⁰⁰

Lind also adopts the need-for-morality model, following Deubner in positing that Roman personification cults developed in the opposite way to Greek ones, the abstract concept coming first and being deliberately deified.²⁰¹ In a later piece he speaks of a "Roman inclination toward the formation of abstract conceptions" as an inheritance "from the Indo-European past", and hints that the personification of such abstractions

¹⁹⁹ Farnell 1896-1909, V, 446.
²⁰⁰ Litchfield 1914, 19.
is also a "primitive survival", though he adduces little evidence. For Greek cults a similar hypothesis, expounded by Reinhardt and Hamdorf, sees personification cults developing to fill gaps in the effective sphere of the old gods, responding to the changing political and ethical needs of society.

This approach is developed, sometimes in combination with variations on the epithet theory, by a well-represented school of thought which sees deified abstractions as representing a rationalising compromise between religion and philosophy, allowing the idea of one God to coexist with many gods, part of the same trend as the allegorical interpretation of the traditional Olympian gods and mythological tales. Thus Nilsson argues that personifications gained importance from the second half of the fifth century as compatible with, but more accessible than, an indeterminate θεός or τὸ θετήριον. Burkert places the beginnings of the process earlier, adducing the Indo-Iranian parallel of Mithras ("Contract") for the antiquity of the worship of gods designated by abstract concepts. Thanks to Homerisation, archaic Greek personifications "come to assume their distinctive character in that they mediate between the individual gods and their spheres of reality". He sees a progression from the appearance of personifications in poetry to their representation in the visual arts, whence they "finally find their way into the realm of cult" towards the end of the archaic period, reflecting an increasing scepticism about the gods of poetry: "Of the existence and actuality of the Homeric gods there can be no proof, but no man of intelligence can dispute the importance of the phenomena and situations designated by

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202 Lind 1976, 258 and 245. He is drawing generally on Dumézil 1949, though the latter makes no specific mention of personification. Cf. Axtell (1987/1907, 64): "the habit of personifying and deifying a quality or condition independently of other gods was inherent in the Roman character". Cf. Fergason (1970, 72-3) on the use of personifications as propaganda in the imperial period.


204 Nilsson 1950, 39: "Der Durbruch des Kultes des Personifikationen im 4. Jahrhundert v. Chr. ist ein Zeichen der Zeit, der Aushöhlung der alten Religion... Man wendet sich an die göttliche Macht, von der die Personifikation einen Ausschnitt darstellt." He applies the "epithet theory" to pre-fourth century cults (e.g. Philia develops from Zeus Philios), though he grants the single fifth-century exception of Pheme.

205 Burkert 1985a, 185. Cf. the personifications of Sumerian dispute poems, which include inanimate objects (Hoe vs. Plough, Copper vs. Silver, Upper vs. Lower Millstone) as well as natural phenomena; see van Dijk 1953 (French translation of texts) and Vanstiphout 1991. See Gaster (1950, 115-222) on the personifications of the Canaanite Poem of Baal, such as Cunning and Death.
abstract terms." Humphreys gives a similar account of the place of personification cults in a more general process of rationalisation and secularisation beginning around 550 BC. On the one hand "more abstract conceptions of deity were developed: if gods have no bodies, their existence cannot be empirically disproved." On the other, prominence was given to the more rational elements of existing gods, by giving Zeus the cult title "Saviour", for example, and by the introduction of personifications of philosophically defensible concepts: "There is a gradual shift of emphasis in cult... from archaic aspects of the gods which had come to seem incomprehensible to personifications of the blessings which men hoped for."

The most recent commentators on personification in Greek art seem not to find the figures particularly problematic as a class. Shapiro reviews various opinions on the development of personification cults, but is basically content to state that "the Greeks and Romans, who felt themselves surrounded by countless divine and supernatural powers, naturally made things and ideas into gods, durable and individualized divinities who might take their place in the great pantheon." Similarly, Aellen sees the ambivalent status of personifications as symptomatic of a more general Greek mindset: "Ce va-et-vient constant de l'élément (ou de l'abstraction) à la divinité constitue la base même de la pensée mythologique." Amy Smith, discussing Athenian document reliefs, concludes that the local personifications represented thereon are really no different in kind from figures attested in cult:

The Greeks regarded every entity or concept as possessing a spirit, which was frequently made more intelligible by its translation into a human form, through the process of personification. All of these personifications thus represent spirits, most of which fell short of receiving worship or a cult. The point at which the Athenians

206 Burkert 1985a, 185-6; see 246-50, on the gods and morality. Parker (1996, 234-6) suggests that independence from the Olympian sphere may plausibly be a new feature of personification cults in the fourth century, though he notes the problematic fifth-century cases of Pheme and Eukleia.
207 Humphreys 1986, 96.
208 Ibid. 102. Cf. Kershaw (1986, ch.5, 81) on the place of personification cults in the Hellenistic period: "Religion has not declined; religious consciousness has been reorganised in order to fulfil the needs of the people living in the changed world". Lewis (1936, 52) similarly sees personifications as occupying a position capable of philosophical interpretation, ensuring their survival of the transition from paganism to Christianity: "the twilight of the gods is the mid-morning of the personifications".
210 Aellen 1994, 13. Aellen is much concerned with the "status question" (see especially 82-90 and 173-8) but his complex categorisations would be difficult to apply beyond the realms of South Italian ceramics; he concludes elegantly, if unhelpfully, that personifications are "concrètes abstraites, divines profanes, réelles irréelles" (193).
decided that a particular spirit or force was divine, and deserved worship or cult, is
difficult, or impossible, for us to determine.\textsuperscript{211}

There is much sense in these views in general terms, which certainly suffice as a
background for the iconographical studies which are their authors' focus, but they do
not address the more chronologically and geographically particular questions likely to
be asked by social historians.

A recent investigation which is concerned with such questions, however, is
Thériault's study of the cult of Homonoia, in conclusion to which he discusses
political personification cults more generally.\textsuperscript{212} He sees such cults as reflecting "les
thèmes de l'heure" (e.g. concord, democracy, peace), political ideals "que l'on crut
sans doute consolider... en les sacralisant. Mais cette divinisation de notions abstraites
répondait à un besoin pressant, celui de faire face aux nouvelles réalités, alors que l'on
recherchait désespérément paix, concorde et démocratie."\textsuperscript{213} Thériault is critical of
those, such as Nilsson and Burkert, who have denied religious seriousness to fourth-
century and later personification cults: "Je crois que ces cultes, avec leurs temples,
leurs autels, leurs sacrifices, leur prêtres et, dans certaines cités, leur inscription aux
calendriers sacrificiels — au moins pour Homonoia — eurent certainement, malgré
leur nature essentiellement politique, un caractère religieux."\textsuperscript{214} He explicitly poses the
question of the place of political personifications in the pantheon, suggesting that they
should be seen as occupying a lower position in the hierarchy than the great Olympian
gods, but essentially only differentiated by their relatively restricted sphere of influence;
they belong in the category of minor divinities, daimones, "qui agissent dans une
sphère déterminée et que l'on caractérise par une activité particulière".\textsuperscript{215} Their
relative insignificance in myth does not necessarily reflect their position in cult, where
they may often have played an important part in the religious life of the community,
being "plus près de la réalité quotidienne" than the Olympian gods. Thériault has

\textsuperscript{211} Smith 1997, 187.
\textsuperscript{212} Thériault 1996, 182-8. The case of Homonoia is unusual in having a chronological
\textit{terminus post quem} provided by the fact that the word homonoia is not attested before
Thucydides (8.75.2).
\textsuperscript{213} Thériault 1996, 183.
\textsuperscript{214} Thériault 1996, 184.
\textsuperscript{215} Thériault 1996, 186-7.
certainly demonstrated the truth of this proposition in the case of Homonoia; whether it can be more generally applied is part of the current investigation.

In the following chapters these theories will be tried out on six individual personifications. Themis and Nemesis are both fully developed characters with a mythological role to complement their place in cult. Themis in particular has attracted interpretation by various forms of the epithet theory, while the fact that she appears in Homer makes her a good test-case for the development of personification cults in the archaic period. Nemesis provides an example of a cult which in its early stages appears to be restricted to a specific locality, allowing interpretation in the light of particular historical circumstances; she is also the only personification for whom we have a firmly identified sanctuary and cult statue, as well as occupying a particularly grey area between myth and more "rational" modes of thought. Peitho and Hygieia, though having only minor mythological roles, are both brought within the Olympian sphere by their close associations with major gods, Peitho with Aphrodite, Hygieia with both Athena and Asklepios, once again raising the possibility of applying the epithet theory. For Peitho we have a substantial body of representation in Attic vase-painting to complement more direct evidence for her cult in Athens, in addition to attestations of cult elsewhere in the Greek world. Hygieia's cult is even more widely attested, while the fact that the concept she embodies is so very much a "good thing" might seem to invite the question of how seriously she could be taken in human form. Similarly, the overtly political figure of Eirene has often been seen as empty propaganda or, with Ploutos in her arms, as allegory rather than as a seriously worshipped deity. Finally, the elusive Eleos raises in acute form the methodological problems involved in matching literary personifications with the archaeological record, as well as being firmly tied to a specific location. In my conclusion I shall return to the general questions raised in this chapter, on the origins and chronological development of personification cults as a class, the place of deified abstractions in the Greek pantheon and their "reality" for the worshipper, their implications for our understanding of such figures in art and literature, and their significance for the myth/logos debate.
Chapter 2
THEMIS: ARCHAIC PERSONIFICATION AND THE EPITHET THEORY

In the archaic period the few personifications reliably attested in cult are mostly at the "less abstract" end of the scale, having some mythological role to make them seem thoroughly anthropomorphic. As a character already established on Olympos in Homer, Themis is a good example of such an early figure, as well as embodying an important archaic concept. Studies of the abstract noun in Homer and later literature suggests θεμις particularly signified the right that every leader has to speak freely in the assembly, more generally indicating the established customs upon which a political community is based; ὀθεμίστας is used of a man who does not recognise this moral principle (Il. 9.63), while the construction θεμίς ἐστι indicates the norm, the law which naturally rules a determined social group. If Themis is the personification of such "right", "established custom", "social order", her cult has obvious potential ethical and political implications. The case of Themis also provides a good illustration of the methodological problems surrounding the question of the origins and early development of personification cults. She seems in one or two locations to be closely associated with Ge/Gaia, at first sight an unlikely combination, and the association has given rise to the hypothesis that she may have originated as an epithet of Ge, representing a particular aspect of Earth's influence. Farnell favours the idea because

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1 This chapter started life as a paper at The Development of the Archaic Polis, Durham, September 1995, and a much abbreviated version appears in the proceedings (Stafford 1997a); many of those present at the conference made helpful suggestions, especially George Robertson and Lin Foxhall. In addition to the usual lexica entries, Themis has attracted a number of monographs, from as early as Stephanus Pighius' Themis Dea of 1568, a study of both the goddess and the concept in Greek literature, inspired by a representation of Themis as a herm he had seen at Rome (drawing p.23). Themis is considered alongside Dike "und Verwandtes" in Hirzel 1907 and Ehrenberg 1921, both concerned with "Rechtsidee" in Greek thought. Vos 1956 gives equal attention to idea and goddess, providing a useful survey of literary usage. Corsano 1988 develops an interesting argument linking Titthemis with the fortunes of the gene, taking the P.V. as her point of departure. The most recent discussion of Themis' iconography is Karanastassi 1997, who catalogues 33 representations, though the identity of many of these is speculative.

2 Wees (1992, 322 n.1) defines Homeric themis as both "(divine) law" and "the place where/meeting at which matters of law are discussed" (e.g. Od. 9.112). See Vos 1956, 1-38 for full discussion, with useful reviews by Defradas (1958) and Valk (1959). Vos tries to distinguish Homeric θεμίς from δικη, arguing that θεμίς defines fundamental rights, δικη applies to a right valid within the community, in opposition to θεμίς (30-31). For an account of the operation of Homeric δικη and θεμίσταις, see Murray 1993, 58-60.

3 Corsano (1988, 6) sees Themis as representing the orally transmitted norms of an aristocratic society: "La divinità femminile che con il termine Themis è designata, esprime, nella dimensione mitica e cultuale, l'elaborazione della realtà giuridica e dell'ordinamento politico che le thémistes rappresentano."
he deems improbable “the only other conceivable theory, that Themis began her religious career as the mere personification of the abstract idea of righteousness”. 4 Latte adopts a variation on the epithet theory with the hypothesis that Themis was originally an earth divinity identical with Ge, who later became an abstraction, circumventing the obvious linguistic problem that θέμις is not an adjective. 5 Reinhardt discusses the question of the direction of Themis’ development — earth divinity to abstract or vice versa — at greater length, but comes to the same conclusion. 6 If Themis did indeed start life as an aspect of Ge, her gaining of autonomy could be understood as a reflection of a shift in emphasis, from an agrarian concern with fertility and natural justice to an increasingly urban concern with law and political order, alongside the rise of the archaic polis. 7 Whether such a development can be traced, however, remains to be seen.

THEMIS IN ARCHAIC LITERATURE AND ART

The goddess Themis appears in literature long before we have more direct evidence for her cult. In Homer she is very much a personalised deity, described as “fair-cheeked” (καλλιπαρής, II. 15.87) like any other female character, and shown sympathising with Hera when she has fallen out with Zeus (II.90-1). That Themis here is a fully-realised goddess is emphasised by Hera addressing her as θεία θέμις (I.93), although her injunction to “rule over the gods in their house at the fairly divided feast” (I.95) does suggest that Themis represents the imposition of order in a social context. 8 This is further apparent in her function as summoner of assemblies, both divine (II. 20.4-6) and mortal, as when Telemachos appeals to the assembled Ithacans “in the name of Olympian Zeus and Themis, who both convenes and dismisses the assemblies

4 Farnell 1896-1909, III 13. Deubner (1902-9, 2069-70) leaves such figures as Themis and Hebe, “die eine volle persönliche Geltung erlangt haben”, out of his discussion of personifications, on the grounds that they need separate analysis.
5 Latte 1934, 1626-7.
7 Bremmer (1994, 11), on the divine sense of justice in Homer: “Although gods did uphold the rules of justice, their obligations to kin and friends had priority. This attitude reflects the absence in Homeric society of a developed legal system, and it is only natural that in a more regulated period such a lack of a divine sense of justice came to be questioned.”
8 See Janko 1992, 238-9, ad 15.87-8. He notes Themis’ role in assemblies, and “An assembly is in fact called a themis (11.807). Her presence may also show that Right will now prevail on Olumpos.”
of men" (Od. 2.68-9). Both feasts and assemblies are of course highly structured and formal gatherings of men, where order and the observance of precedence are vital, any failure in such observance leading to quarrels and fighting. Hesiod places Themis in the generation of Rhea and Kronos, as one of the daughters of Earth and Heaven (Theog. 132-8), but he links her even more firmly to Zeus: "Next (after Metis) he married bright Themis, who bore the Seasons, Lawfulness, Justice and luxuriant Peace, who watch over the works of mortal men, and the Fates..." This makes explicit Themis' association with law and order and reflects the very "morally correct" Zeus of the Works and Days, where he is again father of Dike (Op. 256) — in the absence of a developed political vocabulary, Hesiod articulates his concern with social justice through the medium of myth and personification. Themis' position as the genealogical link between Gaia and the Seasons also suggests that she has a role in assuring the order of the natural world. Themis makes a brief appearance in the Homeric Hymn to Apollo (92-5), where she is one of the group of goddesses in attendance throughout Leto's labour, and feeds the new-born Apollo nectar and ambrosia (124). The role of kourotrophos again suggests a connection with fertility, and the company Themis keeps here — Dione, Rhea, Ichnaia and Amphitrite — has also been described as a "groupe de déesses telluriques", though Gaia herself is not mentioned. In the Homeric Hymn to Zeus, Themis returns to a position as paredros and advisor to the king of the gods, who "conspires in close conversation with Themis, sitting inclined towards him" (23.2-3). Both this advisory capacity and Themis' association with a just Zeus can be seen in the plot of the Kypria, as summarised by Proklos (EGF p.31, ll.5-6), where it is Themis who suggests the Trojan War to the

9 See Vos 1956, 42-7 on the Homeric goddess.
10 Theog. 901-4: δεύτερον ἤγαγετο λιπαρὴν Θέμιν, ἥ τέκεν Ὄμας/ Εὔνομην τε Δίκην τε καὶ Ἐλένην τε καὶ Δήλην/ ἄτα τε ἔργα ἀφρόνισον κατατηρῶν κρατατείται βρωτῶι/ Μοῖρας θ'. See West 1966 ad loc. (pp.406-8); see below pp.194-201 on Eiren in literature.
11 Murray paraphrases the Themis genealogy: "the relationship between divine order and human order produces the norms which establish good rule, justice and peace" (1993, 62). On Themis and a just Zeus, see Lloyd-Jones 1971.
12 On this passage and its connection with ancient Delos, see Gallet de Santerre (1958, 149-51). For Ge Kourotophos, see below on Athens.
13 Both the Kypria story and Themis' "leaning" pose are nicely illustrated on a late-fifth century krater by the Kadmos Painter which conflates several episodes from the epic: the main scene is the Judgement of Paris, with Zeus, Eris and Themis watching the progress of their plans from above (c.410 BC, St. Petersburg 0.28/St. 1807; ARV² 1185, 7; Shapiro 1993, no.15, figs. 14 and 184). Cf. the Berlin amphoriskos discussed below (pp.107-8) for suitable personifications watching from the sidelines. See Vos 1956, 53-6 on Themis as Zeus' advisor.
king of the gods as a means of punishing the corruption of mankind and reducing the earth’s over-population.¹⁴

In later literature the abstract θέμις tends to be replaced by δίκη,¹⁵ and the same trend can be seen with the goddesses — it is usually Dike rather than Themis who features in extant archaic lyric poetry¹⁶ — but Hesiod’s allegorical linking of the two is taken up in the first half of the fifth century by Bakchylides and Pindar. In the dithyramb entitled “The request for the return of Helen”, Bakchylides’ Menelaos appeals to the Trojans’ sense of fairness: “but it is established amongst all men to meet with straight-forward Justice, attendant of sacred Lawfulness and wise Themis; the children of the blessed choose her to share their home.”¹⁷ In Olympian 13, Pindar attributes Corinth’s prosperity to the city’s law and order: “in her dwell Lawfulness and her sisters, firm foundation of cities, Justice and Peace, who is reared with her, guardians of wealth for men, golden children of wise-counselling Themis...”¹⁸ Elsewhere Pindar completes the Hesiodic genealogy by referring to Themis as wife of Zeus and mother of the Seasons (fr. 30 SM), although she resumes her Homeric place as adviser to the Olympians in Isthmian 8 (30-45), where she warns Zeus and Poseidon against pursuing Thetis, who is fated to bear a son stronger than his father.¹⁹

In the visual arts of the archaic period Themis appears only rarely. We hear of a chryselephantine statue of Themis by the mid-sixth century sculptor Dorykleidas in the temple of Hera at Olympia; Pausanias picks up the Hesiodic genealogy in his account, describing Dorykleidas’ Themis as “mother of the Seasons”, since she is

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¹⁴ See further below (pp.96-9) on the Kypria and Rhamnous.
¹⁵ Vos 1956, 32-5.
¹⁶ E.g. Solon fr. 4 West, 12-16.
¹⁷ Fr. 15 Maehler, 53-6: ἄλλ’ ἐν [μέσοι θείαι κιχείν/ πᾶσιν ἀνθρώποις Δίκαιοι θείαιν, ἄγνα/ Ἑυνομίας ἀκόλουθον καὶ πινυτὰς θέμιτος/ ἀδίκων ποιάδες τιναίρεται σύνοικον. The speech goes on to contrast Dike with Hybris, the latter bringing her adherents to ruin, in the same way as she destroyed the arrogant Giants. The opposition set up in the passage places Themis with Dike against the Giants, “arrogant sons of Ge” (62-3); Themis is explicitly opposed to the Giants on the Siphnian Treasury frieze (see below). Presumably such a rational polarisation has no room for Themis as an aspect of Ge. Defradas comments on the genealogy in Prometheus Bound, which makes Ge/Themis mother of Prometheus, that “Right” seems to have changed sides (1958, 204). Cf. Bakchylides fr. 13 Maehler, 182-9, for Eukleia and Eunomia welcoming the victor Pytheas home to peaceful Aigina (485/3 BC).
¹⁸ O. 13. 6-8: ἐν τῇ γὰρ Ἑυνομία ναείς καταγίνητα τε, βάθρον πολίων ἀσφαλές/ Δίκα καὶ ὀμότροφος Εἰρήνα, ταμία ἀνδράσι πλοῦσου/ χρύσει παίδες εἰδοῦλου θέμιτος...
¹⁹ On this passage, see Slatkin 1991, 70-3. On Themis and the Trojan War, see further below pp.98-9. An association with Zeus can perhaps also be seen in a brief reference to a Themis Hikesia, Aisch. Suppl. 360 (see below p.219, n.52).
standing beside a group of seated Horai. She is among the many deities who attend the wedding of Peleus and Thetis on the well-known Sophilos dinos of around 580 BC (FIG. 1), where the sceptre she carries may be a reference to her Homeric connection with the assembly. Such a collectivity of Olympian gods is also the context for Themis’ appearance on the north frieze of the Siphnian Treasury at Delphi, where she takes part in the Gigantomachy, c.530-25 BC (FIG. 2). Before the discovery of the inscription naming her as Themis, the figure in the lion-drawn chariot had usually been assumed to be Kybele, in her aspect as Mistress of Animals, because of the lions and the animal skin she is wearing over her chiton. But the inscriptions suggest that the lions belong to Dionysos, who has dismounted to fight, to the left, while Themis is acting as his charioteer.

CULTS OF Themis

The literary and iconographic record, then, presents the archaic Themis as a subsidiary character but with a firmly established position amongst the Olympian gods. More direct evidence for specific local cults of Themis is widely scattered, from Macedonia to the Argolid, but most of our information comes from inscriptions dating no earlier than the fourth century, or from Pausanias. This has not, however, prevented a number of scholars from arguing for an archaic cult in several locations. Vos, for example, sees Themis’ cult as originating in Thessaly, where it is “alt und ursprünglich”, moving south through Boiotia to reach Attica by the early fifth

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20 Paus. 5.17.1-3. For Dorykleidas’ birth-date in about the 50th Olympiad (580-76 BC), see Pliny NH 36.9.
21 London BM 1971.11-1.1; Para. 19,16 bis, Add. 2 10-11; Shapiro 1993, no.141 fig.179.
22 E.g. Achilles swears on the sceptre which "the sons of the Achaians/ carry in their hands when, administering justice (δικαστος παντοτι), they honour the ordinances (θεοι παντοτις) of Zeus" (Il. 1.237-9). See van Wees 1992, 276-80 on the functions of the Homeric sceptre. Some sort of related ritual role in politics seems to be being played by Themis on a red-figure kalyxkrater signed by Syrskos, c.470 BC, where she stands between two sceptre-holding kings, Balos and Epaphos. Themis holds out a phiale in her right hand, a lekythos in her left, which Shapiro tentatively interprets as "preparing to pour a libation". Shapiro 1993, 219, no.145 fig.181, Malibu 92.AE.6 (unpublished).
23 Identified by Brinkmann 1985: Dionysos inscription = N 16, figs. 63-4; Themis inscription = N 17 figs. 65-6; see fig. 93 for reconstruction of whole west and north friezes complete with inscriptions, and 121-30 on their interpretation. Shapiro 1993 no. 143 fig. 180; Schefold 1992, fig. 67. Themis is again included in the Gigantomachy on the south frieze of the altar of Zeus at Pergamon (Pollitt 1986, 97-110, fig.98).
century; Hamdorf is more cautious, though he would allow a sixth century date for the cult in Thessaly and perhaps Olympia, Shapiro takes only the cult at Troizen to be archaic. It is perhaps worth briefly reviewing the evidence upon which these hypotheses are based before turning to the more substantial cases of Delphi, Rhamnous and Athens.

The case for an early Themis cult in Thessaly rests largely on the appearance of Θημιστίως as a month-name in a number of towns, mostly attested by inscriptions recording manumissions. One such list from Metropolis provides us with four local month-names, Θυός, Ηρμαίως, Ιτώνιος and Θεμιστίως, while the more recently discovered manumission list from Skotussa gives further names and some indication of their order. That the name is peculiarly Thessalian is suggested by an arbitration record from Kerkyra, dated to 182 BC, which refers to "the month Themistios, as the Thessalians (call it)". None of these is dated before the second century BC, but such month-names are generally held to be of some antiquity, and related to festivals celebrated therein. Given the difficulties of interpretation presented by even the Attic calendar, about which we are relatively well informed, the Thessalian Themistios can only cautiously be taken as evidence for the early worship of Themis, but the possibility is there. Further evidence of Themis' important position in the Thessalian pantheon is, however, provided by the unusual altar from Pherai dedicated to six goddesses. Block A has five pointed half-stelai in relief, each with three inscribed names, the upper two partly erased (the names of line 2 written retrograde):

25 Vos 1956, 68-78. He is writing before the current programme of excavations at Rhamnous began, on which see below.
26 Hamdorf 1964, 50-1, 57. Olympia: below n.62.
27 Shapiro (1993, 217 and n.503). Corsano's chapter on Themis' cult (1988, 97-108) sensibly concentrates on data relating to the fifth century and later; she points out the paradox that all our data concerning the goddess date from a period when the system of oral justice, which she takes Themis to represent, had lost its influence (6-7).
28 IG IX.2, 277; see Monceaux 1883, 52-6. Hamdorf 1964, 109 T 411 refers to SGD 386 for an archaic (?) dedicatory inscription from Metropolis, but this seems to be an error.
29 SEG XV (1958) 370. Eg b.11-12: θημιστίων δευτέραι Δημήτριος ἀπὸ Ὄνισσον τοῦ/Πόσειδίσου... and 52-3: Ἀρέθουσα ἀπὸ Ἀρχεόλεως τοῦ Πολυεύνου θημιστίου ἐθνίμη.
30 IG IX.1, 669, 3-4: μηνος/ ἱδος θεσαλοί ἠγοντι θημιστίου. Cf. IG IX.2, 256b.1 from nearby Pharsalos (Roman imperial period): στρατηγοῦντος Φ<λα>βίου Πολυκρίτου τὸ β' μηνος θημιστίου...
31 Burkert (1985, 227) argues that in general month names must go back to at least the Proto-Geometric period, but points out that later changes "must always be reckoned with".
32 On problems with the Athenian calendar, and scholarly blindness thereto, see Pritchett 1979, 163-8.
33 Discussed in detail by Miller 1974.
This may have been part of a larger construction, or half of a pair of monuments, honouring the Twelve Gods, with images of the goddesses resting above the inscribed block. A mid fourth-century date is suggested by the type of hook clamps and letter forms used, with subsequent damage and repair no later than the early third century. While Hestia, Demeter, Aphrodite and Athena are quite regular members of the set of six major Olympian goddesses, Enodia and Themis seem to be peculiar to Thessaly. Miller sees Enodia as fairly straightforwardly taking the place of Artemis, since both are associated with Hekate, and there is plenty of archaeological and iconographic evidence for Enodia’s cult in Thessaly, which seems to have been observed at Pherai from at least the eighth century before becoming more widespread. The case for Themis as replacement for Hera is perhaps less obvious, but, as Miller points out, both are consorts of Zeus, and such a substitution would go some way towards explaining the lack of evidence for Hera’s cult in Thessaly before the Roman period. In addition to the month-name Themistios, a number of personal names derived from Themis may also suggest that the goddess was important in the region: Pasithemis, Themiston, Themison, Themistokles and Themistogenes are all attested in Thessalian inscriptions, though most are Hellenistic in date. Actual dedications to Themis in Thessaly are in short supply, and only one has any claim to be archaic. This is from Phalanna, recording a dedication by Orestaia to Themissta, its tentative dating resting on the archaic forms of the letters α and θ, though this need not make it any earlier than the first quarter of the fifth century. That at least one Thessalian sanctuary of Themis

34 See Miller 1974 fig.4 for a reconstruction. Cf. Long 1987 on representations of the Twelve Gods in general, and s.v. Pherai 1 (p.30 and 205-6) for this altar, illustrated at fig. 75.
35 Cf. below p.223-4 and 228-9 on the Athenian Twelve Gods.
37 Miller 1974, 252-5. Various Themis-related names are also attested on Cyprus (cf. SEG 30.1608 for a Cypriot dedication to Themis from the Cave of the Nymph) and several Aegean islands (LGPN I, pp.211-12), and future volumes of LGPN will doubtless provide more material for pursuing this line of enquiry. See below on Athenian names, and Parker 1998 on theophoric names and their relation to cult practice in general.
38 IG IX.2, 1236, 99: Ορεσταία ἐν Θεμίστοικα. No date is volunteered in IG IX, or in the original publication (Lolling, AM 7, 1882, 223 no.1), but see Jeffery 1990, 96-9 on archaic Thessalian script, and cf. pl.11 nos.4 and 7 for examples of the same forms of θ and α dating to 475-50 BC.
had sufficient funds to require public management in the second century BC, however, is attested by a lead tablet from Dodona recording an enquiry of the oracle of Zeus by the people of Mondaia:

Of Zeus Naios and Dione the state of the Mondaiatai enquires concerning the money of Themis if it is permissible and better to lend it out for Themis.\(^{39}\)

Also in Thessaly, according to Strabo, in the region of Thessaliotis, is “Ichnai, where Ichnaian Themis is honoured” (9.5.14), though other sources locate the town in Macedonia. Herodotos places it near Pella, Hesychios speaks of an oracle of Apollo at Macedonian Ichnai, where “Ichnaian Themis is honoured”, and Stephanus Byzantius explains the topographical epithet as acquired when Themis was pursued by Zeus, since she was overtaken at Ichnai.\(^{40}\) Farnell’s comment “We must suppose that the people imagined him pursuing a real corporeal goddess, and not the abstract idea of righteousness” is pithy, but it seems quite possible that the grammarian is conflating Themis here with Nemesis, the story of whose pursuit and rape is rather better known.\(^{41}\) Our only possible material evidence for Themis in Macedonia is a black-glaze skyphos of the mid-fifth century with the inscription Themidos under the foot, though a cup “of/belonging to O/order” need not necessarily relate to a cult of the personification.\(^{42}\)

For Boiotia our only datable testimonium is a fourth century inscription from Thespiai naming Alexis, daughter of Xenophilos, as a priestess of Themis.\(^{43}\) Pausanias mentions a temple of Themis at Tanagra, near the theatre and sanctuary of Dionysos.

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39 SGDl 1557: Δι' Λάωι και Διόνυα/ ἐπικοινώνα το Μονδαίαται το κοινόν πέρ το(τ) ἱερ' γύρρεον τάς Θεμίστος(ς), αἱ ἄνθισκότι ἑστε/ τα τῆς Θεμίτισι(σι) καὶ ἑλέττον ἐκ(σι)κιχρέμεν. Cf. IG IX.2, 276a, 5 for the month-name Themistios at Mondaia. Themis appears again in Epiros in the Suda’s interesting etymology for the town of Boucheta (s.v. βουχέτα): πόλις ἐστι τῆς Ἡπείρου, ἦν φησί Φυλόχορος ἀνομάσθαι διὰ τὸ τὴν Θεμίν ἐπὶ βοῶς ὁχομένην ἐθέειν ἐκεῖ κατά τὸν Δευκαλίωνος κατακλυσμόν. 40 Hdt 7.123. Hesych. s. v. Ιχναίην χώραν- τήν Μακεδονίαν, ἔνθα τό μαντεῖον ὁ 'Ἀπόλλων κατέστη, καὶ τιμᾶτα Ιχναίην Θεμίς. Farnell (1902-9, III 14) makes the rather baseless suggestion that Themis Ichnaia was perhaps the original occupier of this oracle, presumably by analogy with Delphi (see below). Steph. Byz. s. v. Ιχναίη: 'Ιχναίη, πόλις Μακεδονίας... το έθνικόν καὶ 'Iχναίης καὶ 'Ιχναίη ἡ Θεμίς. διακοιμηθή γὰρ ὑπὸ τὸν Διὸς, κατελειπθή ἐν τοῖς τάν Ιχναίων τόποις, καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ διακρίθηκα κατ' ξῆνος ἀνομάσθθη. Alternative explanations of the title point to its literal meaning “Tracker” (Gantz 1993, 52), though this may be a late rationalisation.

(9.22.1), and a sanctuary of Themis with "a white stone statue" at Thebes, near sanctuaries of the Moirai and Zeus Agoraios (9.25.4). Themis' proximity to Zeus Agoraios may be fortuitous here, but on Rhodes an association with the market-place can be seen in a fourth century inscription on a statue base from Lindos, dedicated by Erasmios after being in office as agoranomos "to Zeus Agoraios, the Themides and Hermes". Such an association, recalling Themis' Homeric role, is assumed by Hesychios' entry for "Themis Agoraia: of the Assembly". Plural Themides are also attested by Pausanias at Troizen in the Argolid, where an altar "they say" was dedicated by the mythical king Pittheus (2.31.8). Shapiro asserts that the plurality indicates the cult's antiquity, as it "is a frequent feature of Archaic religion", rejecting Hamdorf's suggestion that it reflects "die Vielseitigkeit des Begriffs". I would argue that an ability to multiply is rather a feature of personifications, facilitated by their relative lack of individual characterisation, and not confined to the archaic period; I shall return to the question in connection with Nemesis.

So far, then, a case for an early cult of Themis can only really be made for Thessaly, and even here we have no firm evidence before the fifth century; Themis' supposed association with Ge has yet to be seen. Three locations remain to be investigated: an archaic Themis is often posited for the Panhellenic sanctuary of Delphi, where, with Gaia, she is one of the mythical "previous owners" of the oracle; Themis seems to have shared Nemesis' sanctuary at Rhamnous, where there are traces of cult activity from the early sixth century; Athens is the only place where Themis is actually attested as an epithet of Ge.

44 ASAtene n.s. 17-18 (1955-6), 170 no.21, fig. 21: Ἐράσμιος Ἐρασμίον/ τοὸ Ἐράσμιοο/ ἀγορανομησας/ Διὶ Ἀγορασιω καὶ Θέμισυ/ καὶ Ἐρμαν. Some idea of fair trading may also inform two references in Pindar which associate Themis closely with Zeus Xenios: in the context of religious celebrations on Tenedos "Themis is honoured at the never-ending feasts of Zeus, god of hospitality" (Ν. 11.8-9), and again on Aigina "saviour Themis, enthroned beside Zeus Xenios, is honoured more than among all other men" (Ο. 8.21-3). The context of the Aigina quote indicates that Themis here represents straight dealing in commerce, and Pindar praises the just dealings of the Aiginetans elsewhere (Ν. 4.12, Ρ. 8.22, etc.), but I would not take this as positive proof of an Aiginetan cult of Themis (contra Shapiro 219, n.507).

45 Hesych. s.v. Ἀγορασιω Θέμις: ἡ ἐκκλησιαστική.
47 See below pp.116-18 on the two Nemeseis of Smyrna.
The myth which associates both Themis and Gaia with Delphi as “previous owners” of the oracle, before the arrival of Apollo, is first attested by the prologue to Aischyllos’ *Eumenides*, produced in 458 BC, which opens at Delphi, with the Pythia praying: “First of the gods I honour in my prayer is Earth, the first prophet; after her, Themis, who was second to hold her mother’s oracular seat, as the story goes...” Themis willingly handed the oracle on to the Titan Phoibe, who in turn gave it to Phoibos Apollo as a present on his birth.50 Christiane Sourvinou-Inwood has convincingly demonstrated that this myth cannot be taken to reflect any real cultic history of the oracle, but rather expresses certain perceptions about it, of the fifth century and later, especially its civilising, order-creating function.51 Examining the case for any historical predecessors of Apollo at Delphi, she points out that even were there to have been a Mycenaean cult of Gaia there, as has sometimes been posited, but which is far from certain, the absence of any evidence of continuity in cult activity between the Mycenaean period and the late ninth century argues against connecting the hypothetical Mycenaean shrine with the previous owners myth.52 Since the Apolline oracle is referred to in Homer (e.g. *Od*. 8.79-81), it must have been well established by

48 Pighius 1568, 82.

49 *Eum*. 1-4: πρώτον μὲν εὐχῆ τίθεν προσβεύον θεῶν/ τὴν πρωτόμαντιν Γαίαν ἐκ δὲ τῆς Θήμιν, ἦ δὴ τὸ μητρὸς δευτέρα τόδ’ ἐξετο/ μαντεῖον, ὡς λόγος τις...

50 Elsewhere the transfer of the oracle is violent, e.g. Pindar fr. 55, Eur. *IT* 1242-82. Commenting on the *Eumenides* passage, Shapiro (1993, 221) says: “Later in the play, however, Aeschylus takes liberties with this same genealogy, when he speaks of Themis and Gaia as two names for same goddess (211-12).” Presumably he is confusing the *Eumenides* with the *Prometheus*, on which see below. Gantz (1993, 88) points out that peaceful transfer of power from female to male is a very appropriate prologue for the story of the *Eumenides*, so "we should probably suspect Aischylean invention here".

51 Sourvinou-Inwood 1987; see 235 n.1 for sources for the myth, n.2 for modern believers in Gaia and/or Themis as oracular divinities at Delphi. For a reading of the previous owners myth as a way of “neutralising the feminine”, see Loraux 1995, 183-93. On a more practical level, the myth reflects the competitive nature of sanctuaries (Marinatos 1993), helping “to establish the oracle’s antiquity, and therefore superiority, in relation to its rivals” (Morgan 1993, 38). On early Delphi and divination see Morgan 1990, 148-90.

52 The Mycenaean female figurines found in the archaic sanctuary of Athena Pronaia do not show the identity of the deity worshipped, and Gaia is not attested in the Mycenaean pantheon. On the early history of the sanctuary at Delphi and lack of material evidence before c.800 BC, see Morgan 1990, 126-47.

DELPHI, THEMIS AND ORACLES

Cur Themis oraculis praesit: ... Themida nostram nihil aliud quam legem esse divinam ab ipso summo promanantem bono, naturaeque universitatis ita praescriptam, ut sine hac consistere nequeat. Igitur et oraculorum divinationisque fontem purum continere arbitrantur Platonici...
the eighth century, i.e. soon after the beginning of cultic activity in the sanctuary, which leaves little room for a previous cult of Gaia or Themis.53

Leaving aside the myth, then, what positive evidence is there for the presence of Gaia/Themis at Delphi? Themis’ unusual inclusion on the frieze of the Siphnian Treasury at Delphi (above) could be explained as a reference to a local cult, but is certainly not evidence of such by itself, at a symbolic level her presence can perhaps be explained as an indication of the scene’s message, the victory of order over chaos.54 If anything, the frieze counts against an archaic association of Themis and Gaia, since they should be fighting on opposite sides, Earth supporting her sons the Giants.55 The earliest literary evidence for worship of Themis at Delphi comes in an ode of Pindar, of 474 BC, where the victor’s compatriots are exhorted to come “... where when night falls you shall hymn sacred Themis and Pytho and the right-judging navel of the earth...”56 Also from the first half of the fifth century are a pair of statue bases found near the Kastalian Spring, inscribed with the names Themis and Ga respectively, by the same hand;57 cuttings on the bases suggest that they stood next to one another, with a bronze laurel tree between them.58 We have little further information on Themis, but from a fourth century inscription and Plutarch’s description we know that Gaia had a shrine south of the temple of Apollo.59

Our earliest evidence for the Previous Owners myth and for the historical worship of Themis and Gaia at Delphi, then, dates from the first half of the fifth

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53 No link can be made between Delphi and the Themis of the Homeric Hymn to Apollo, as the passage occurs in the Delian part of the hymn. Indeed, the Pythian part contradicts the previous owners myth, presenting Apollo as founder of the oracle, as does Alkaios’ Hymn to Apollo (Sourvinou-Inwood 1987, 216-7 and nn.7-8).

54 So e.g. Shapiro (1993, 219) explains the link between Dionysos and Themis on the frieze as “Delphi itself”. See Burkert 1985a, 224 on the tradition of Dionysos’ presence at Delphi. Such use of a personification as an explanatory “label” could be paralleled by the personified rivers and places who indicate geographical setting, though not at such an early date. The Gigantomachy myth also appears on the west pediment of the temple of Apollo at Delphi.

55 See above, n.17.

56 P. 11.9-10: δερεθέμιν ερέαν Πυθώνα τι και ὀρθοδικεῖτεν/ γάς ὀμολόγω κελαδήσετε ἄκρα πυν ἐγκέρταν. Hieros is not usually used of deities in Greek literature, so Vos (1956, 62-3) follows Wilamowitz in making Themis here impersonal, “holy righteousness”; but given the idea of praise, the abstract is very difficult to justify. Defradas (1958, 205) compromises by understanding Themis as an “allegorical goddess”, the epithet hieros indeed signifying that Right is deified here, only as a poetic conceit.

57 Delphi inv. 4286; Courby 1927, 163-4 fig. 126; Shapiro 1993 no.144. Shapiro (1993, 221) rather simplistically takes these as ensuring “that the Aeschylean genealogy of the Delphic oracle is not a poetic fabrication”.

58 According to Coste-Messelière and Flacelière 1930, 289 and 294. Sourvinou-Inwood (1987, 221) suggests that these can be seen as a response to the myth.

If there was no historical tradition for the myth to be based upon, how did it arise and gain currency? The answer surely lies in the conceptual links which both Gaia and Themis have with the oracle, vague associations which the myth systematises. The omphalos in Apollo’s adyton symbolised Delphi’s position as the centre of the earth, the meeting point of the mythical eagles of Zeus sent from furthest east and west (Pindar fr.54 SM), but the term “navel” inevitably suggests Earth in anthropomorphic form. According to Pausanias, Earth also had an oracle at Olympia, possibly again linked with a cult of Themis, and oracular powers are often associated with chthonic cults, so the idea of an Earth oracle at Delphi would be in keeping with Gaia’s cult in general. Themis’ association with the oracle is most straightforwardly explained by the usage of the plural θεμιστές for “oracles” and θεμιστέων “to give an oracle”, from Homer onwards. The oracle’s role as adviser to individuals and states is paralleled by Themis’ role as adviser to Zeus, and the goddess is explicitly represented as Delphic adviser in the tondo of the Codrus Painter’s cup in Berlin, 440-30 BC (FIG. 3). The Athenian king Aigeus stands in a temple, indicated by the

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60 Sourvinou-Inwood (1987, 228) suggests that Themis “was a symbolically mediating figure between Apollo and Gaia”, providing a “halfway house” between the primordial, chthonic goddess Gaia and the Olympian Apollo, since she is associated with Zeus’ order and justice, but is nevertheless female.

61 The stone may be considerably older than this interpretation of it. See Sourvinou-Inwood (1987, 225 and n.47) on a type of oval stone in Minoan iconography associated with young male gods, and 233-5.

62 Pausanias records an altar of Ge, where “they say” there had “in even more ancient times” been an oracle of Earth; immediately after this he tells us that “the altar of Themis is built at what they call the Mouth (Στόμιον)” (5.14.10). Whether the two were located together is unfortunately not clear, as this falls in his section on “all the altars at Olympia” (5.14.4ff), where Pausanias has departed from his usual practice of describing things in the order he found them: “my description has wandered around in the order in which the Eleians sacrifice” (5.14.10). Valk (1959, 147) cites this as of especial interest in support of the Themis as earth-goddess idea: Vos 68ff. “has not proved beyond doubt that this theory is incorrect”, although he has shown that cults of Themis are often not of great antiquity. On the case for early cults of Gaia and Themis at Olympia and Delphi, see Morgan 1990, 42-3 and nn.51-2.

63 Cf. the Oracle of the Dead at Ephyra and that of Trophonios at Lebadeia. Teutonic mythology also has a prophetic earth-goddess, Erda, who appears in Wagner’s Ring as adviser to Wotan: “Wie alles war, weiss ich;/ wie alles wird, wie alles sein wird,/ seh’ ich auch...” (Das Rheingold, scene 4).

64 Vos suggests that θεμίστες should be translated as “decisions” of the gods, manifestations of the authority which is their privilege, rather than “oracles” (1957, 17-22). Valk (1959, 145) elaborates this to “the instituted and unalterable order of existing things”.

65 Berlin F2538; ARV² 1269,5 and 1689; Shapiro 1993, no.146 fig.182. See LIMC I, 359, s.v. Aigeus, for myth and sources. The version of the Aigeus myth in Euripides’ Medea, more or less contemporary with the vase, makes use of the word θεμίσις in the context of the oracle: Medea asks “Is it themis for me to hear what the oracle said?” 676-8. In Eur. Or. 163-5 Elektra refers to the Delphic tripod as that of Themis, making an ironic oxymoron with the, in her view, adikos Apollo. Shapiro suggests that perhaps “the frequent use of themis with
column and entablature, opposite a female figure, in the guise of a priestess, sitting on a tripod and holding a laurel branch and a phiale in her hands. Iconographically, she is clearly the Pythia, but an inscription identifies her as Themis, the personification of the Pythia’s utterances. 66 Such a Delphic Themis is perhaps also evident in the Tübingen red-figure skyphos of 430-25 BC, on which Themis is shown carrying a torch and a *kanoun*, apparently welcoming the newly arrived huntress-goddess Bendis to Athens; a plausible interpretation is that Themis is here fulfilling Delphi’s traditional role of sanctioning the establishment of a new cult (FIG. 4). 67 An explicit association between Delphi and the “wise-counselling” Themis of archaic poetry is made in the scene depicted on a fourth-century pelike by the Eleusinian Painter from Kertsch, where Themis is advising Zeus (perhaps suggesting the Trojan War plan to him?) seated on the omphalos (FIG. 5). 68

**THEMIS AT RHAMNOUS**

At Delphi, then, both Themis and Gaia are associated with the oracle, the common link strengthening their Hesiodic connection with each other, but not before the fifth century. At Rhamnous a rather different history can be traced, with Themis apparently developing as an associate of Nemesis rather than of Gaia. As it stands today, the sanctuary is dominated by the remains of two buildings standing close together: a Doric peripteral temple of around 430 BC, identified as that of Nemesis, and a smaller structure consisting of simply a *cella* and porch (FIGS. 6-7a). The site was first excavated by the Society of Dilettanti in the early nineteenth century, and further investigations were carried out in the late nineteenth century by Stais, but the site was then left undisturbed until the current excavation programme was begun twenty years ago, which continues under the direction of Vasileos Petrakos. The fortress of Rhamnous was studied in detail in 1947-50 by Pouilloux, and Petrakos’ investigations have added more information about the fortress and the tomb-lined

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66 On the role of the Pythia in divinatory procedure at Delphi, see most recently Maurizio 1995.

67 Tübingen F2; ARV² 1023; CVA Tübingen 5 (1986), 49-52 (including a summary of previous discussions); Shapiro 1993, 223-6, no.147 fig. 185. Roller includes this in her brief survey of the depiction of foreign cults in Attic vase-painting (1988, 511-12, fig. 3). See Parker 1985, 305 on the legitimising role of oracles in relation to cult practice.

68 St. Petersburg, c.340 BC; ARV² 1476, 2; Shapiro 1993, 223 fig.183.
Sacred Way which links it to the sanctuary, as well as the sanctuary buildings themselves.\textsuperscript{69} The extended fortifications were not completed until the second half of the fourth century or even the early third; the earlier citadel must have been in existence by 412, but how much was in place before the mid-fifth century is a matter of some debate.\textsuperscript{70} The fullest literary account we have of Rhamnous is Pausanias' description, which locates the village "seven and a half miles from Marathon... by the sea", but thereafter concentrates almost exclusively on Agorakritos' famous cult statue of Nemesis. The village was just south-east of the fortress, beside the eastern harbour, though little remains to be seen; the Sacred Way continues to the south of the sanctuary, linking it to the neighbouring deme of Trikorynthos.\textsuperscript{71}

The smaller structure (FIG. 7b) seems to have been built on a virgin site, but the date of its foundation has not been established more exactly than "early fifth century", or "the beginning of the fifth century".\textsuperscript{72} Two inscriptions found inside the building name priestesses of Themis, the earlier being one of a pair of thrones dedicated by one Sostratos in the second half of the fourth century:

a) In the priestesshood of Philostratē. 
Sostratos dedicated this to Themis. 

b) In the priestesshood of Kallistō. 
Sostratos dedicated this to Nemesis.\textsuperscript{73}

The second inscription, of the end of the fourth or early third century, is from the base of the much-discussed statue of Themis (FIG. 8), naming the dedicator and sculptor as well as two priestesses:

\begin{center}
\textsuperscript{69} Pouilloux 1954. For a brief history of the excavations, see Miles 1989, 137-40 (the Society of Dilettanti had intended to travel to Asia Minor, but were put off by rumours of piracy, so they had to find something to do in Attika!). For general accounts of the site see Petrakos 1987 and 1991; also Travlos 1988, 388-400. Miles 1989 discusses the temple of Nemesis in detail (see below p.100-1 and 106-7).
\textsuperscript{70} Pouilloux (1954, 43-66) discusses problems of dating the ramparts at length, concluding that any sixth-century occupation seems unlikely; he notes (56-7) the absence of any mention of Rhamnous as a point of defence in Herodotos' account of the combined Spartan-Boiotian attack of 507/6 (5.74). Recent excavations in the fortress, however, have uncovered some inscriptions of the sixth century: AR 1990-1 and 1991-2.
\textsuperscript{71} Paus. 1.33.2 ff.; Pouilloux 1954, 16; on the bias of visitors ancient and modern, see ibid. 9-13.
\textsuperscript{73} IG II\textsuperscript{2} 4638 (Pouilloux 1954, no.40): (a) ἐπὶ ἱερείας Φιλοστράτης Θεμίδι / Σώστρατος / ἄνεθηκεν. (b) ἐπὶ ἱερείας Καλλιστο[ῦ] Νεμέσει / Σώστρατος / ἄνεθηκεν.
Megakles son of Megakles the Rhamnousian dedicated me to Themis, having being
crowned by the people because of his justice, in the priestesshood of Kallistò, and of
Pheidostrate, priestess of Nemesis, having been victorious in both the boys' and the
men's [athletic competitions], while gymasiarch and choregos for the comedies.
Chairestratos, son of Chairedemos, the Rhamnousian made this. 74

These inscriptions give clear evidence of two separate offices for priestesses of
Nemesis and of Themis, and the phrase ἐπὶ ἱερείας [woman's name], which appears
in both, sounds like a dating formula, suggesting that great importance was attached
to the position. 75 The statue cannot of course have been the cult image, since it is a
private dedication, but the inscription certainly implies that it should be identified as
Themis. 76 Two goddesses were certainly worshipped at the sanctuary, then, although
straightforward interpretation of the smaller building as Themis' temple is obfuscated
by its apparent use as a storehouse, at least in later stages. 77 How early the cults of
each of the two goddesses were established, however, remains open to question. The
Nemesis temple of c.430 was preceded by two successive structures of the sixth
century, material from which was used to fill the artificial terrace upon which the
extant temples stand. All that survives from the early sixth-century building are some
Lakonian rooftiles and a terracotta sphinx head, but the construction dating from the
end of the century was a Doric temple, with a distyle in antis façade, which Petrakos
suggests was probably destroyed by the Persians in 480-79 BC and left in ruins until
the current temple was built. 78 The extreme proximity and lack of alignment of the
Themis structure with the Classical temple of Nemesis is presumably to be explained
by the fact that the former would have been built in relation to this archaic temple,

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75 See Wilhelm 1940 for an analysis of the two inscriptions, alongside that on the base of a
statue of Aristonoe, priestess of Nemesis at the end of the third century (/G II² 3462; Pouilloux 1954, no.44).
76 Palagia's argument against the identification seems unnecessarily complicated (1994,
118-19). The inscription makes the statue one of the relatively few fixed points in the
chronology of Hellenistic sculpture; see Pollitt 1986, 265-8. See Harrison 1977 on the
relationship of this to other representations of Themis.
77 Petrakos 1991, 23; he is perhaps over-cautious in commenting that, although Themis was
worshipped in the sanctuary, "her presence there cannot be clearly traced" (1991, 7). Cf.
Arafat 1995 on the temple of Hera at Olympia.
which was somewhat smaller than the later version. In addition to these structures there are plentiful finds of pottery to indicate some sort of cult activity on the site from the early sixth century, but nothing positively to identify the deity or deities worshipped in the archaic period. The earliest votive which can unequivocally be connected with either of our abstract goddesses is a fragment of a Corinthian helmet inscribed: “The Rhamnousians in Lemnos dedicated me to Nemesis”. This was previously dated to the beginning of the fifth century, in associated with a party of Rhamnousians who served under Miltiades in the Lemnos campaign of 499 BC (Hdt 6.137-40), but Lewis and Jeffery point out that, although the helmet is undoubtedly a spoil of battle, no victory is mentioned, and the letter forms suggest a slightly later date, c.475-50 BC; it was presumably dedicated by Rhamnousian soldiers garrisoned on Lemnos. The earliest dedication to Themis is Sōstratos’ throne of the fourth century.

Was the archaic sanctuary sacred to Nemesis, and the worship of Themis a later development, given a proper place with the building of the smaller temple at the beginning of the fifth century? Burkert takes this line, explaining the addition in conceptual terms, “since taking offence [sc. nemesis] plays an immensely important role in preserving social order”. Such a conceptual link between Nemesis and Themis can certainly be argued for generally, but does not help with a relative dating of their cults. Themis has just as good a claim to an archaic cult as Nemesis, given her early establishment as a deity in epic. Alternatively, we could think of the sixth century buildings as sacred to Thernis, her cult moved to the small temple to make way for Nemesis, newly important in the wake of the battle of Marathon as defender of

79 Cf. Miles, who suggests that "the wish for continuity at the sacred place" influenced the placing of the Classical temple of Nemesis (1989, 150-3, n.34). The earliest excavators mistakenly assigned the design of the late sixth-century temple to the Themis temple (Petrakos 1991, 20).
80 The latest pottery from the terrace fill is from the first half of the fifth century, but most is of sixth century date, including fragments of loutrophoroi “appropriate to a chthonic cult” (AR 1983-4). A series of small rectangular herms of rustic style date from the late sixth century, as does a pair of stone sandals (AR 1984-5).
81 IG I3 522 bis: Ρωμύστοι οἱ ἐν Λέμνοις ἄγαθεσσαν Νεμέσι. 499 BC date: SEG XXXVI 43. Petrakos 1988, no.706 pl.122b. Ib. no.701 pl.122a is a votive bronze wheel inscribed Ἐρόδωρος ἄνέθεκεν; the author of AR remarks that this “is a reminder that the wheel was a later symbol of Nemesis” (AR 1985-6, 18 fig.17). For votive bronze wheels, cf. Osborne (1987, 185 fig. 61) on a late archaic dedication to Apollo from Rhodes: “Onesos the bronzesmith dedicated me to Apollo — the wheel of a cart”.
82 Burkert 1985a, 85.
83 And see Vos 1956, 70 for the linguistic case for θέμις being an older concept than νέμεσις.
civilisation against the barbarians, though such a move would go against a general religious tendency to conservatism. In either case, the dedication of a whole sanctuary to a deified abstraction is quite exceptional before the Hellenistic period, and even then the personification usually plays a subsidiary role to a more major deity. Troubled by the idea of a cult attached to "a mere personification of the moral idea of retribution", Farnell posits a development of Nemesis at Rhamnous from an Artemis-Aphrodite Nemesis; his argument is based largely on a few testimonia which seem to link Artemis and Nemesis, which could equally be read as later syncretisms, but his doubts are understandable. Petrakos betrays a similar unease in his rather purple description of Nemesis as "the agrarian goddess who looked after the allocation of grazing grounds and concerned herself with the stability and preservation of rural order. These functions were in keeping with the situation of her sanctuary, the gentleness and softness of the forms, the peaceful sunlit shore and calm isolation of the locality..." One important question which may have some bearing on the sanctuary's pre-fifth century history has scarcely been raised by any commentator, however. Who worshipped there — just the people of the local demes of Rhamnous and (given the Sacred Way) Trikorynthos, or a wider clientele? I shall consider Rhamnous' links with Athens in the fifth century further below, but there is nothing to suggest that the sanctuary was of more than local significance in the archaic period, though this might extend to two other demes of the Marathonian Tetrapolis by the late sixth century. If this is the case, a purely local deity would be unsurprising as dedicatee, and at least a hypothetical case can be made for Nemesis being worshipped in Attika in the sixth century.

84 See the proverb μὴ κτεῖν Ἐπικυριανά (e.g. AP 9.685, Or. Sib. 3.736). But cf. de Polignac on the conscious "recycling" of sacred space for a different deity, as with the sanctuary of Apollo Maleatas at Epidauros (Alcock and Osborne, eds., 1994, 9). The small sanctuary just south-west of the entrance to the fortress of Rhamnous underwent a change of dedicatee towards the end of the fourth century, when the local hero Aristomachos seems to have given way to the better-known healing hero Amphiaras, due probably to the demands of a more cosmopolitan garrison; see Pouilloux 1954, 93-102, inscriptions nos. 30-5. Parker (1996, 176) comments on a general trend for older healing heroes "to be intruded upon by the younger heroes of broader fame".

85 Farnell 1896-1909, II 488-96.

86 Petrakos 1991, 7; he explicitly rejects the association of the founding of Nemesis' cult with the Persian Wars, because of his pre-fifth century finds.

87 Three out of the four demes of the Tetrapolis (Marathon, Oinoe and Trikorynthos) are grouped together with Rhamnous (along with Aphidna and Phaleron) in the smallest of the Kleisthenic tribes, IX Aiantis. Whitehead (1986, 23-30) argues that Kleisthenes' system was fundamentally organic, based on existing links.
century, before she was known elsewhere, as we shall see in the next chapter. The addition of the temple to Themis at the beginning of the fifth century might reflect an aspect of Nemesis, indicating that her role as defender of justice and social order had gained in importance as the surrounding demes grew during the sixth century. After the Persian Wars, however, Nemesis' rapid rise to prominence as avenger of Attic pride kept Themis in a secondary position, and it is as Nemesis' primary place of worship that the sanctuary is best known.

ATHENS AND GE THEMIS

At Rhamnous, then, although Themis seems to have become established by the very end of the archaic period, no link with Gaia is apparent. The connection between the two seen at Delphi, however, is first made explicit by an Athenian poet, and it is at Athens that we finally come to epigraphic evidence for a Ge Themis. In the Theatre of Dionysos seats are reserved for a number of religious officials who have the goddess' name in their titles. There is possibly a "priest of Themis", although most of the name is missing (ἱερέως Θέμιδως, IG II² 5109), an "Olephoros of Athena Themis" (Ὀληφόρος Ἀθηνᾶς Θέμιδως, IG II² 5103), a "priestess of Ge Themis" (ἱερίας Γῆς Θέμιδως, IG II² 5130), and "two Hersephoroi of Chloe Themis" (ἔρσηφόροις β' Χλόης Θέμιδως, IG II² 5098). None of these is in the front row of thrones, but three are in the same kerkis, first on the right from the center; 5098 is in the fifth row back, 5103 in the tenth, and 5109 in the twentieth. The priestess of Ge Themis has her seat a little further round in the third kerkis on the right from the centre, in the second row back. Given the clearly honorific status of the front row, it seems not unreasonable to suppose that a rough hierarchy might have attached to reserved places further back in the auditorium, implying higher status for the priestess of Ge Themis than the others, though this point cannot be pushed. Nor can an exact date for the inscriptions be easily established. Maaß discusses the front row of thrones in detail, some of which can be individually dated, and which range from the theatre's refurbishment under Lykourgos in 338-22 BC to the second century AD. The rows behind the thrones,

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88 See below pp.96-9 on Nemesis and the Kypria. Cf. the obscure names attested in the Tetrapolis' sacred calendar (IG II² 1358; Whitehead 1986, 190-4; Rosivach 1994, 29-46).
however, have unfortunately not received such in-depth treatment; the editors of *IG II* assign 5083-164 all to the Roman imperial period, but these inscriptions are of much inferior workmanship, and many, carved on the upper surface of the step rather than below the seat, have been badly worn away, making detailed study difficult. Even if the inscriptions were more accurately dated, however, there is no way of determining, without external evidence, whether the offices mentioned are of long establishment or recent innovation. 90

Putting aside the question of date, then, let us look more closely at the four inscriptions in question. I am inclined to be sceptical about the reconstruction which gives us a "priest of Themis"; the rule that female deities have female attendants does have exceptions, but, as we have seen, Themis has a priestess at Rhamnous in the late fourth/early third century, and we will shortly encounter an Athenian priestess of Themis. 91 The "Olephoros" inscription is our only evidence for an Athena Themis. The title of the office gives us little further information about the cult, since an ὀληφόρος is simply the bearer of the ὀφλική, the barley-corns to be sprinkled on the sacrificial victim and altar prior to the slaughter, part of the standard procedure for blood sacrifice. 92 That this particular barley-bearer should have a theatre-seat of her own, though, would indicate unusually high status for such an attendant, suggesting that she belonged to a major sanctuary. As we have no other information on Athena Themis, we can but speculate that the title had become attached to one of the many cult statues of Athena on the Akropolis. 93 The "two Hersephoroi of Chloe Themis" are more revealing. According to LSJ, ἔρησθερόροι is an alternative spelling for ἄφρησθεροι, the best known being the two young girls who lived on the Akropolis for a year, then carried the secret symbols of Athena in procession from and back to the temple of Athena Polias. It is not clear what the Arrhephoroi of Athena actually carried, but the literal meaning "dew-bearers" seems appropriate for Chloe Themis, an

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90 See Maaß (1972, 99-101) on the problems of using the inscriptions as evidence for the history of cult.
92 Burkert 1985a, 56.
93 On which see Ridgway 1996.
otherwise unattested "Verdant Order".\textsuperscript{94} There was an Attic spring festival called the Chloaia, "the shooting of the stalks", in honour of Demeter, and it is Demeter who usually bears the epithet Chloe.\textsuperscript{95}

A further general problem with the priest-seat inscriptions is raised by the cases of both Chloe Themis and Ge Themis. It is generally assumed that the theatre seats were each designated for \textit{one} priest or priestess, although he or she might officiate for a cult which worshipped more than one deity. If only one deity is mentioned the case is clear, as the priest of Heavenly Nemesis certainly had a seat to himself (\textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 5070), or, if two deities are mentioned, supplementary evidence may indicate that they were worshipped together, as in the case of the priest of Eukleia and Eunomia.\textsuperscript{96} The lack of punctuation, however, means that some cases are not so clear. Just behind the seat of the priestess of Ge Themis, for example, is a place for όμυνητριώς [ἱερής Κοι[ροτρόφου Αήμηντρος] Πειθοῦς (\textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 5131). Are we to understand three separate goddesses here — Kourotophos, Demeter, Peitho — all served by the one "singer-priestess"? Or should we envisage two or three priestesses sharing the rights to one seat?\textsuperscript{97} Even if we take Kourotophos as an epithet of Demeter, we still have two deities — not only is a "Child-nurturing Demeter Peitho" rather implausible, but a wider space before Πειθοῦς in the inscription would suggest that the word is to be taken separately. Since Peitho is nowhere else associated with Demeter, this apparent conflation of their cults is surprising. An ingenious explanation is offered by Price, who relates the theatre-seat inscriptions to Pausanias' description of the south slope of the Akropolis. After leaving the sanctuary of Asklepios, walking towards the Beulé Gate, Pausanias records a temple of Themis and a memorial to Hippolytus, then, after

\textsuperscript{94} Paus. 1.27.4. The Arrhephoria ritual is mirrored by the myth of the daughters of Kekrops, and Burkert suggests that the literal meaning of "dew-bearers" may be connected with Pandrosos, whose shrine is in front of the Erectheion, facing the sacred olive tree: "moist with dew, it embodies the continuity of the order of the polis" (Burkert 1985\textsc{a}, 228-9). Cf. \textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 5099 for a theatre seat "for two Hesperochoi of Eliythia εν "Αργαοιζ".\textsuperscript{95} Parker 1987, 141-2; Whitehead 1986, 192 n.86.

\textsuperscript{96} Ον Nemesis Ourania, see below pp.111-12. Theatre seat: ιερεὺς Εὐκλείας καὶ Εὐνομίας (\textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 5059); two other inscriptions mention a ιερεὺς of Eukleia and Eunomia (\textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 3738, 4193). See Hamdorf 1964 for further references. Other "multi-deity" seat inscriptions include one for the priest of Demos and the Charites and Roma (\textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 5047), and one for the priest of Zeus Soter and Athena Soteira. Conversely, two seats are designated simply "Ἡπτης (\textit{IG} \textsc{ii} \textsuperscript{2} 5150, 5154); are these for two officiants of the same cult, or for priest(esses) of two different cults of Hebe, or is the multiplicity due to the place having been moved?\textsuperscript{97} Apart from the front-row thrones, individual places are not obviously marked off, perhaps allowing more than one person to occupy the space covered by a longer inscription.
a digression on the story of Hippolytos and Phaidra, statues of Aphrodite Pandemos
and Peitho, and a sanctuary of Ge Kourotrophos and Demeter Chloe; he concludes
rather tantalizingly with the advice that “you can find out all about these names by
discussing them with the priests” (1.22.1-3). Price, following Beschi, argues that 5131
is shorthand for “the singer-priestess of (Ge) Kourotrophos, Demeter (Chloe), and
Peitho”, envisaging one priestess as serving two closely neighbouring small shrines,
which Beschi locates on the rocky terrace immediately below the Athena Nike bastion
(FIG. 10). It should perhaps be pointed out that there is a seat “for the priestess of
Demeter Chloe (and) of Diophantos” (IG II² 5059) more or less in front of the
priestess of Ge Themis’ place, which slightly undercuts Price’s argument in this case,
but the principle seems reasonable, and a similar hypothesis could perhaps explain our
two Hersephoroi of Chloe Themis. In a discussion of some of the topographical
problems of the south slope of the Akropolis, Walker identifies a fourth-century
structure at the west end of the Asklepieion terrace as Pausanias’ temple of Themis
(FIG. 9). If this is to be associated with our priestess of Ge Themis, we might posit
that our two Hersephoroi in fact served both this and the sanctuary higher up the slope
to the west of Ge Kourotrophos and Demeter Chloe, “of Chloe Themis” being
shorthand for the three “double-barrelled” deities involved.

The evidence of the theatre-seat inscriptions, then, is far from clear, although it
does seem to associate Themis with deities of agricultural fertility. Our earliest
epigraphic testimony for Themis’ cult at Athens, however, makes no mention of Ge. A
line from Nikomachos’ revision of “Solon’s” sacrificial calendar, set up in the Royal
Stoa c.401 BC, stipulates expenditure in the month Metageiton of 12 drachmas on “a
ewe for Themis”. Whether this sacrifice to Themis was already established in the

98 See Price 1978, 8 and 101-32, on Ge as the primary Athenian Kourotrophos (esp. 106-7
on the location of Pausanias’ shrine and 113 on IG II² 5131). Beschi 1967-8, 517-26; see
further below pp.136-46 on Aphrodite Pandemos and Peitho.
99 Walker 1979, 244-8. See also Aleshire 1989, 21-3.
100 A connection with Gaia/Demeter could explain the otherwise obscure reference in
Clement of Alexandria to “the forbidden symbols of Themis, marjoram, the lamp, the sword,
the women’s comb, which is to say, euphemistically and in the manner of the Mysteries, ‘the
female genitals’.” (τῆς Θημίδος τὰ ἀπόρρητα σύμβολα ὀργάνον, λύχνος, ἕφος, κτές
γυναικεῖος, δ ἐστὶν εὐφήμος καὶ μυστικὸς εἰσεῖν μόριον γυναῖκεις. Προτρηπτικά 2.22.5).
Such “forbidden symbols” suggest a mystery cult, more likely to be attached to a fertility
goddess than to a personified abstraction; Clement is, incidentally, a source for the story that
Aischylos was charged with impiety for revealing details of the Eleusinian Mysteries. See
Roberts 1975 on the passage.
early sixth century, or whether it was one of the many more recently instituted rites which had made the revision of the calendar necessary is impossible to establish, given the fragmentary state of the inscription. A date no later than the last third of the sixth century can be argued for, however, if, as with the Thessalian cult, we take into account the evidence of theophoric names. The earliest securely attested Athenian bearer of a Themis-related name is the famous Themistokles, especially well represented amongst the ostraka found in the Agora and eponymous archon in 493/2 BC, who must have been born, and named, c. 525 BC. The Lexicon of Greek Personal Names records no fewer than 52 later Attic individuals called Themistokles, as well as several Classical and Hellenistic bearers of a number of variations on the theme. An independent fifth-century Themis is also mentioned by Herodotos (2.50), as one of the few deities whose name he considers to be Pelasgian rather than Egyptian in origin. That Themis continued to have an independent cult at least until the mid-third century BC is suggested by two small dedications from the Athenian Asklepieion, recorded in the sanctuary inventory lists: “a tetradrachm and eyes from the priestess of Themis”. The “eyes” must refer to the votive offering of a representation of the body-part in question, as was standard practice in Asklepieia all over the Greek world, and remains a feature of modern Greek Orthodox ritual. Given the close proximity of the Asklepieion to the proposed location of Pausanias’ sanctuary of Themis (FIG. 9), it is very tempting to associate the dedications with a priestess from this neighbouring shrine.

Such an independent Themis need not be incompatible with the theatre-seat testimonia if we either follow Price in allowing for some sort of conflation of priestessly roles, or more simply posit that Themis became identified with Ge in cult only at a later date. The conceptual link between Themis and deities of agricultural fertility can, however, be traced much further back. Our earliest sources for Gaia’s connection with Themis at Athens are the Eumenides passage already mentioned (458 BC), which follows Hesiod in making Themis Gaia’s daughter, and a passage in the

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102 Agora XXV.664-1049, IG I2 1035; LGPN II s.v. θημιστοκλῆς 39.
103 LGPN II s.v. θημισταγόρας, θημίσθεος, θημιστιας, θημιστια, θημιστιος, θημιστοδίκη, θημιστώ, θημίσων, θημιτέως.
105 Compare e.g. the collection of dedications from the Corinthian Asklepieion with the metal tamata hung up beneath icons of the Virgin Mary in many Greek churches.
Prometheus Bound which explicitly identifies the two. Prometheus tells the chorus, "My mother Themis, and Earth, of many names but one form, had often foretold to me how the future would come to pass..." A reference to Delphi and the previous owners myth might be seen here, given the oracular context, but problems with the authorship and dating of the play make it impossible to establish the exact relationship between this and the Eumenides passage. The identification of the two goddesses in the Prometheus passage certainly need not be taken literally as evidence for a cult of Ge Themis, and may even be an innovation, since it is made so pointedly, descent from Themis putting the protagonist in a stronger position against Zeus. We have seen intimations of Themis’ link with the natural world in the Hesiodic genealogy which makes her mother of the Seasons as well as daughter of Gaia, and a general association with prosperity in the Bakchylides and Pindar passages, prosperity in any pre-modern society being closely tied up with agricultural fertility.

Conversely, Earth can be demonstrated to have her political side. One of the Homeric Hymns is addressed to “Earth Mother of All”, and although it is mostly concerned with agricultural fertility, those who are blessed by Gaia “rule orderly in their cities of fair women”. Burkert comments on the occurrence in philosophical speculation of the worship of Gaia “as a prototype of all piety”, despite the relatively modest place of the Earth in actual religious practice, and notes Gaia’s political aspect: “the earth not only sustains, but also imposes obligations on her native sons.”

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107 See Griffith 1977 and Bees 1993 for extensive, if inconclusive, discussion of the P.V.’s attribution to Aischylos and date. Bees argues for a terminus post quem of c.445 (on the basis of a comparison with Herodotos). Corsano (1988, 66 n.10) accepts Aischylean authorship, but “Non crediamo ci siano dati sufficienti per ipotizzare che Eschilo si riferito a tradizioni mitiche o a culti esistenti al riguardo.”

108 Gantz 1993, 52. Corsano (1988, 61) inverts the usual interpretation that the Titans represent the demos overturning the tyrannical, aristocratic rule of Zeus: "Prometeo rappresenta l’antico ordine, Zeus personifica il nuovo, cioè l’arbitrio tirannico che si sostituisce alla legalità tradizionale..." — hence Prometheus’ association with Themis. In Aischylos’ Suppliants (465-59 BC) Themis is Dios (360), which seems to imply daughter, rather than nurse or wife, of Zeus; Gantz suggests that “she acts in some way as his representative” (1993, 53).

109 Some usages of ἥμις ἔστι suggest that “the law of nature” is meant: e.g. Agamemnon swears he has not slept with Briseis, as is themis for men and women (II. 9.134), whereas it is not themis for men to try to stay young (Bakchylides 3.88-90, Maehler).


can be seen in a specifically Athenian context in Solon’s celebration of his own reforms: “May the mighty mother of the Olympian gods bear witness in the court of Time, noblest black Earth, from whom I once lifted the boundary-stones planted in many places; then enslaved, now she is free”.\textsuperscript{112} The traditional explanation of this passage — that the boundary-stones marked mortgaged land, their removal signifying the cancellation of debts and return of land to its rightful owners — has been questioned, and exactly what Solon’s reforms entailed is much debated.\textsuperscript{113} Whatever the historical accuracy of the poem, however, it certainly demonstrates Earth’s involvement in political propaganda, appealed to as witness to Solon’s establishment of social justice via redistribution of land.\textsuperscript{114}

CONCLUSION

From this brief survey it would seem that an archaic cult of Themis can be demonstrated for Thessaly, where she seems to be of sufficient status to take the place of Hera and to have a month named after her, and possibly at Athens, though the small sacrifice mentioned in Nikomachos’ calendar would not suggest a high position in the state pantheon. Themis’ conceptual association with Gaia, explicit in Athenian literature from the fifth century, becomes enshrined in cult only at a later date, quite possibly not until after the mid-third century BC. About the early history of the sanctuary at Rhamnous we can only really speculate, but the worship of Themis there from at least the beginning of the fifth century suggests an interesting alternative association with Nemesis. At Delphi it is again unclear whether Themis had any archaic presence in cult, but an early conceptual connection between Themis and

\textsuperscript{112} Fr. 36 West, 1-5: συμμαρτυροίη ταῦτα· ἄν ἐν δίκῃ χρόνου/ μήτηρ μεγίστη δαίμόνων  Ὀλυμπίων/ ἀριστα Γῆ μέλαινα, τῆς ἐγὼ ποτε/ δρους ἀνείλον πολλαχῇ πεπηγῶτας· πρόθεν δὲ  δουλεύσοις, νῦν ἔλευθέρα.

\textsuperscript{113} On Solon’s poetry in relation to his reforms, see Murray 1993, 181-200. See Foxhall (1997) for a review of scholarship and re-assessment of agricultural systems in early Greece.

\textsuperscript{114} An association between Themis and Gaia is further attested by one or two odd late references not specific to Athens. Eratothenes records an alternative version of the myth that the infant Zeus was nursed by Gaia (Hes. Theog. 479-84): “Musaios says that when Zeus was born he was entrusted by Rhea to Themis” (Μυσαίος γάρ οὖσα Δία γεννώμενον ἐγχειρισθήναυ ὑπὸ Ρέας Θήμει, Katast. 13). This rather recalls the Homeric Hymn’s account of Apollo’s upbringing (above). The same link between Zeus and Themis may be suggested by the Cretan Hymn of the Kouretes, around which Jane Harrison’s Themis (1927) is structured: a description of the fertility and prosperity brought about by the birth of Zeus ends with injunction “leap for fair Themis” (θόρε κές Θήμει καλάν, l.36). Harrison addresses the question of Themis’ connection with oracles in the last chapter (480-535). See West 1965, and below pp.194-5, on the date of the Hymn.
oracles is apparent in the use of the word \( \text{θέμιστος} \); the concept of \( \text{θέμις} \), at least, is implicated in Delphi’s legitimisation of the laws and cults of developing poleis, but only in the fifth century do we have any evidence for the association being expressed in worship of Themis at Delphi. While Themis does have a place in archaic and classical cult, then, nowhere have we seen evidence to support the theory that Themis originated as an epithet of Gaia. While it is not inherently implausible, it would be difficult to prove, as the process of separation would have to have taken place before Homer. Hesiod’s genealogy attests to an early association of the two in mythological thought, but the complete absence of Ge/Gaia as a cult title of Themis throughout the archaic and classical periods would rather suggest that the reverse process took place. Rather than Themis originating as an aspect of Earth, it was Gaia’s increasingly political aspect which led her to be associated with Themis, the personification of right and social order, because of a perceived communality of interests. Only at Athens, and no earlier than the Hellenistic period, can a final union of Ge-Themis be seen in cult.\(^{115}\)

Everywhere except Thessaly Themis would seem to fit with Burkert’s model of a personification beginning life as a literary figure, mediating between the mythical gods and everyday morality, her cult developing during the course of the sixth century.\(^{116}\) Themis’ extraordinary position in the Thessalian pantheon, however, though not attested before the fourth century, might be indicative of much greater antiquity in this region. Her relatively humble position in Homeric epic could be understood in the context of the poems’ Panhellenic stance, which consistently presents a unified picture of the Olympian gods, ignoring or demoting myriad deities who must have been of great significance in particular localities. Such an approach is thoroughly explored by Laura Slatkin in her thought-provoking study of the Iliad’s paradoxical presentation of Thetis, whose extraordinary position of simultaneous power and weakness, she argues, can only be explained in terms of the suppression of an alternative mythology where Thetis is a much more powerful figure.\(^{117}\) If we applied a similar hypothesis to Themis, we might see indications of such a “suppressed” mythology surfacing in the crucial advisory roles given to Themis by the

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115 Sourvinou-Inwood 1987, 240 n.62: “In my view, Ge-Themis is a later syncretism; Themis was not identified with Gaia in fifth-century religion”.


117 Slatkin 1991; see especially 77-84.
Kypria and Pindar (Isthmian 8). Before coming to a conclusion on Themis' origins, however, we should look at the closely related case of the cult of Nemesis at Rhamnous.
Chapter 3

NEMESIS: “MYTH INTO LOGOS?”

To every mortal is thy influence known,
And men beneath thy righteous bondage groan;
For ev'ry thought within the mind conceal'd
Is to thy sight perspicuously reveal'd...
All to see, hear, and rule, O pow'r divine
Whose nature Equity contains, is thine...
Give aid benignant in the needful hour,
And strength abundant to the reas'ning pow'r;
And far avert the dire, unfriendly race
Of counsels impious, arrogant, and base.

From the *Orphic Hymn to Nemesis*, tr. Thomas Taylor (1792)

Like Themis, Nemesis has some mythology attached to her, and one might almost argue that she has too much “personality” to count as a personification, since, like many other minor goddesses and mortal women, she gets raped by Zeus. This borderline position between deity and personification makes Nemesis a good case study for our definitional problems, and potentially gives her a mediating role between “mythical” and “logical” modes of thought; I would argue that from her earliest appearances in literature Nemesis encompasses both ends of the spectrum, being at the same time a personal figure of mythology and an allegorical representation of an abstract idea. The chronological range Nemesis’ cult spans, from the sixth century until well into the Roman period, is exceptional, as is the relatively high profile of her sanctuary at Rhamnous. This chapter will focus on Nemesis’ cult in Attika, where it is first and most extensively attested, but I shall also examine the case of the two Nemeseis of Smyrna, for whom an archaic cult has often been posited, and conclude with a brief consideration of the development of Nemesis’ iconography, since it has implications for the “myth v. logos” debate.

The word “Nemesis” has long been used in English to denote “retributive justice”, the all-seeing nature of Taylor’s goddess being reflected in the sense of

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1 An early version of this chapter was delivered as a paper to the graduate research seminar at Exeter in June 1995; I owe much to the comments of those present, especially John Wilkins, who subsequently kindly sent me a number of helpful references and suggestions, and David Harvey, who found me a copy of the 1983 edition of the site guide. Keith Armstrong drew my attention to Taylor's delightful translations.

2 See Farnell's comment on the pursuit story attached to Themis, above p.73.
She is also one of the few deities not to have acquired a Latin name when adopted by the Romans, perhaps indicating a difficulty of translation. Our understanding of *nemesis* has been much influenced by its traditional association with *hybris*: *nemesis* is the punishment inevitably meted out by the gods to mortals guilty of forgetting the limitations of their mortality, arousing the jealousy of the gods, boasting over-confidently or enjoying an excess of good fortune. Nick Fisher’s thorough re-evaluation of *hybris* has shown, however, that surprisingly few passages actually make this association explicitly, and *hybris*, rather than being primarily a religious term denoting an attitude particularly offensive to the gods, most often refers to “specific acts or general behaviour directed against others”; *hybris* can be defined essentially as the “serious assault on the honour of another, which is likely to cause shame, and lead to anger and attempts at revenge”. Clearly this has implications for our understanding of *nemesis*, which may require some adjustment; while a complementary study of the usage of *nemesis* is beyond the scope of this chapter, I hope an examination of the goddess will shed some light on the concept she personifies. Some provisional definition is necessary, however, and two basic strands of meaning may be noted in the noun’s derivation from *νέμω*, to “distribute, apportion”: the idea of “first distribution”, the lot with which you are born, associates *ν/νέμεσις* with fate, while the alternative idea of “distribution of what is due” makes the link with justice, an association strengthened by the usage of the linguistically related *νόμος* for “law”. The latter aspect seems to be the most commonly emphasised, so perhaps the most generally applicable translation of *νέμεσις* is “righteous anger” or “indignation” aroused by injustice.

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3 *OED*: Nemesis (1553) 1. The goddess of retribution; hence, one who avenges or punishes. 2. Retributive justice; an instance of this (1597). "Guilt… produces a fear of the divine N." (1733). A ride at Alton Towers is called Nemesis, presumably in the vague sense of "the Thing that is waiting for you" rather than "your just deserts".

4 *Poena*, the nearest Latin equivalent, is not listed in Axtell’s catalogue of Roman deified abstractions, though a literary *Poena* appears in Statius (*Theb.* 8.25), and plural *Poenae* are sometimes identified with the Furies, e.g. Cicero, *in Pis.* 37.91. Cf. below p.198. See Axtell (1907, 44-5) on Nemesis’ Roman cult.

5 Fisher 1992, 1; see 142-8 on specifically “religious” *hybris*. *Contra*, see Cairns 1996a.

6 Two other “fate” words, *μοίρα* and *εἰμορφὴ*, are also derived from a verb of “receiving one’s share”, *μείρομαι*.

7 Fisher advocates “anger” or “indignation” as generally safer translations than “vengeance” (1992, 358 n.81). See Laroche 1949 for a full, if dated, discussion of *νέμω*, *νέμεσις*, *νόμος* and *νομίζει*; he concludes with the definition of *νέμεσις* as “rancune, vengeance, jalousie; répartitrice, destinée" (259); on the personification he comments
HESIOD’S NEMESIS

Nemesis’ earliest appearances are in Hesiod. The Theogony makes her one of the many offspring of Night, along with sundry other personifications:

Night bore hateful Destiny and black Doom and Death, and she bore Sleep, and the tribe of Dreams. And again gloomy Night bore Blame and painful Woe, though she slept with none of the gods, and the Hesperides, who guard the beautiful golden apples and the trees which bear the fruit beyond glorious Okeanos. Also she bore the Destinies and the relentlessly-avenging Fates, Klōtho, Lachesis and Atropos, who give mortals at their birth both good and bad to have, and who pursue the transgressions of both men and gods, nor do the goddesses cease from their terrible anger until they punish whoever has sinned with an evil visitation. Also deadly Night bore Nemesis, a bane for mortal men, and after her Deceit and Affection and destructive Old Age and strong-spirited Strife.⁸

Like most of Hesiod’s genealogies, this can be read in fairly allegorical terms. Most of Night’s children are rather “dark” characters, for one reason or another: Sleep and Dreams literally happen in the night time; Death is associated by analogy; the Hesperides live in the land beyond the sunset; Blame and Woe might be thought to trouble you especially at night.⁹ Though ideas of fate are not necessarily negative, the various facets associated with Night here all emphasise the darker side: Moros, not personified elsewhere, and Kēr are usually used of a man’s allotted death; the Moirai are characterised as relentless, inescapable forces against which we struggle in vain.¹⁰ Nemesis is explicitly a πῆμα, a “woe” for mortals, not an obviously suitable description for “justice”, so the word may well be being used in its more literal sense of “allotment”, especially given the company of the Fates. In their pursuit of “those who overstep”, the Moirai here seem to be carrying out a task elsewhere specifically assigned to Nemesis, as we shall see.¹¹

“chacun des aspects de la Némésis a été et reste l’objet de controverses sans fin” (89). On aidōs and nemesis, see below n.13.


⁹ Cf. AP 16.265-6 for Hellenistic images of Mōmos as an emaciated old man.

¹⁰ Harrison (1903, 166) nicely describes the Keres as “like a sort of personified bacilli”. On Night’s family see West 1966, 35-6 and 227-30, and Duchemin 1980, 8-9.

¹¹ On Night’s family see West 1966, 35-6 and 227-30, and Duchemin 1980, 8-9.
A more positive Nemesis can be seen in the *Works and Days*, where she is linked with Aidōs, both leaving the earth at the end of the Age of Iron:

And then will Aidōs and Nemesis go to Olympos from the wide-pathed earth, their fair forms wrapped in white robes, abandoning mankind for the company of the immortals; bitter sorrows will be left for mortal men, and there will be no defence against evil.  

Although the mythological element is more apparent here, with the two characters explicitly anthropomorphised and on their way to stay with the Olympian gods, the allegorical message is hardly far to seek: in our degraded times shame and righteous indignation are no more to be found. Instead, “men will praise the doer of evil and his hybris; justice will be in physical strength...” (191-2). Nemesis’ association with the idea of aidōs, “shame, modesty, respect”, the observing of proper relationships and limits, is quite consonant with Homeric usage of the abstract noun: feeling nemesis is Telemachos’ reaction to Athene/Mentes’ having been left unattended at the door for some time, and to the Suitors’ arrogant behaviour.  

Aidōs appears personified once or twice elsewhere in archaic poetry and art, and there is some evidence for a cult at Athens, and possibly also at Sparta, but she remains a shadowy figure beside her defender. The context also firmly establishes Nemesis’ connection with justice;
interestingly in a re-working of the passage in Aratos’ *Phainomena* it is Dike herself who leaves the earth in disgust.¹⁵

**NEMESIS MOTHER OF HELEN AND THE CULT AT RHAMNOUS**

Nemesis’ less abstract side comes to the fore in the myth that makes her mother of Helen by Zeus. While personifications are often fitted into genealogies of the “meaningful” Hesiodic variety, and can even, like Métis, occasionally be parent to a goddess, for a personified abstract to give birth to a mortal is otherwise unheard of.¹⁶ For a full account we have to turn to various late sources, of the first or second century AD, but the main elements of the story are all in place by the mid-sixth century in the *Kypria*. Following the advice of Themis, Zeus plans to punish the corruption of mankind and reduce the earth’s over-population by means of a great war. To this end, Zeus begins by raping Nemesis:

> And after these he begat a third child, Helen, a wonder among mortals. Beautiful-haired Nemesis once bore her, after being joined in love by force with Zeus, king of the gods. She fled, and was unwilling to be joined in love with father Zeus, son of Kronos, for shame and indignation distressed her heart. By land and by the dark, barren sea she fled, but Zeus pursued and longed in his heart to catch her. Now over the waves of the loud-roaring sea, she sped across the great deep in the form of a fish, now over the river of Ocean and the boundaries of Earth, now over the much-furrowed land; she kept turning into such terrible beasts as the land nurtures, in order to escape him.¹⁸

Note the rationalising element even in such a mythological story as this: Nemesis is motivated by “shame and indignation”, by herself and by αἰσχος, the quality νέμεσις protects. Nemesis is unable to shake off her pursuer, and as a result Helen is born.¹⁹

A much later telling of the story fills in the details:

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¹⁵ Aratos *Phain.* 96-136. She does so at the birth of the Bronze Age, and becomes the constellation we know as Virgo. Cf. Plato *Laws* 943d for Dike as daughter of Aidōs, both of whom are nemesētos towards lies; see Fisher 1992, 490.

¹⁶ Personified rivers are always fathering children, and local nymphs get raped, but these are a slightly different matter from personified abstractions; see above pp.14 and 19.

¹⁷ The Dioskouri (Fr. 8 PEG).

¹⁸ Fr. 9 PEG = Athen. 8.334b: τοὺς δὲ μετὰ τριτάτην Ἑλένην τέκε, θαλῶν μετοδοτεῖ/ τήν ποτε καλλίκομος Νέμεσις φιλότητι μυγεία/ Ζηνί ὑπὸ μεσίλή τέκε κρατερής ὡς ἀνάγκης/ φεύγε γὰρ, οὐδ' ἐδέλεν μισθήμενοι ἐν φιλότητι/ πατρὶ διὶ Κρονῶν’ ἔτειρετο γάρ ὀρένας αἰδής/ καὶ νεμέσθ’ κατὰ γῆν δὲ καὶ ἀπετύγχεσεν μέλαιν ὕδαρ/ φεύγε, Ζεὺς δ’ ἐδιώκει: λαβότεν δ’ ἐλλιπαίετο θομῷ/ ἄλλοτε μὲν κατὰ κῆμα πολυπολίσθου θαλάσσης/ ἰσχύν εἰσόμενη πάντων/ πολὺν ἐξορόθευεν, ἄλλοτ’ ἀν’ Ἡκατονθού ποταμόν καὶ πείρατα ᾨτίης/ ἄλλοτ’ ἀν’ ἡπείρον πολυβάλλοκα. γένετο δ’ ήμεί’ ὅτι ἡ πουρὸς δία δρόμων, δόρα φύγοι νῦν.

¹⁹ Fr. 10 PEG = Philodemos *De Piet...* In other literature before the *Bibliotheke* only fragments of the story are preserved: Sappho fr. 166 LP for Leda finding an egg;
Some say that Helen was the daughter of Nemesis and Zeus. While fleeing Zeus’
company, Nemesis changed her shape into a wild goose, but Zeus took the likeness of
a swan and had intercourse with her; from this union she bore an egg. A shepherd,
finding this among the trees, rescued it and gave it to Leda; she put it in a chest to
keep it safe, and when the time was right Helen was born, whom she brought up as
her own daughter.  

The attempt to reconcile the conflicting versions of Helen’s parentage is interesting,
and this version shows Leda in a less scandalous light than the better known story of
her dalliance with Zeus in the form of a swan. An early Christian sermon gives a much
abbreviated version: “By turning into a swan or a wild goose Zeus fathered Helen on
Nemesis, though she is believed to have been Leda daughter of Thestios…”

Our earliest evidence for the worship of Nemesis is at Rhamnous, and one first
century BC/AD source locates the rape there, relating the story as part of a collection
of catasterisation myths:

The Swan. This is the one called the Great, which they represent as a swan. It is said
that Zeus took on this form because he was in love with Nemesis, since she changed
into every shape in order to safeguard her virginity, and so he became a swan; thus he
too took on the likeness of this bird and flew down to Rhamnous in Attika, and there
he ruined Nemesis; but she bore an egg, from which Helen was pecked out and born,
as the poet Kratinos says. And he himself did not change shape again, but flew up into
the sky as he was, and he placed the image of the swan among the stars; it is flying
just like he did then.

Bakchylides fr. 52 Maehlcr makes Nemesis mother of the Telchines. Asklepiades FGH
12F11 records only that Zeus took the form of a swan and had intercourse with Nemesis.
See below p.109 on Kratins’ Nemesis. See Gantz 1993 (319-21) on the sources for the
story.

<Apollodoros> Bibliothke 3.10.7: τέθυνσα δέ έννοιο Νεμέσου Έλεγνη είναι και Δίας,
ταύτην γάρ την Δίος σεβασμούς περιέχει εἰς χήνα τὴν μορφήν μεταβαλλεῖν, ομοιοθετεῖ δέ
καὶ Δία κύκνον συνελθεῖν τὴν δέ φοιν ἐκ τῆς συνοπαίας ἀποτεκεῖν, τούτω δέ ἐν τοῖς
άλλης εὑρόντα τινὰ ποιμένα Λήδη κοιμάσαντα δοῦναι, τὴν δέ καταστεμένην εἰς λάρνακα
φιλάσειν, καὶ χρόνον καθήκοντι γεννηθέσαιν Ελέγνην ὡς εἷς αὐτῆς θυγατέρα τρέφειν.

<Clement of Rome> Homil. 5.13 (Rehm p.98): Νημέσει τῇ Θεσσαλίᾳ καὶ Λήδα
νομισθείση κύκνος ἣς γενόμενος Έλεγνην ἐπεκκόσμησα καὶ οὕς ἀστήρ γενόμενος
Κάστορα καὶ Πολύδεκτον ἔζησεν (late first century AD).

<Eratosthenes> Katasterismoi 25 D, s.v. Κύκνον οὗτος ἔστιν ὁ καλούμενος μέγας, δν
κύκνον εἰκάζομεν λέγεται δε τὸν Δία ομοιοθετεῖν τῷ ζῷῳ τούτῳ Νεμέσεως ἔρασθηναι, ἐπεὶ
αὐτὴ πᾶσαν ἤμειβε μορφήν, ἵνα τὴν παρθενίαν φυλάξῃ, καὶ τότε κύκνος γέγονεν οὕτω καὶ
αὐτὸν ομοιοθέτω τόν ὀρέγων τούτοις κατατημάται εἰς Ρημυνούσῃ τῆς Ἀττικῆς, κύκι τὴν
Νέμεσιν θερίζειν τὴν δε τεκεῖν οὖν, εῖ δέ ἐκκολασθῆναι καὶ γενόσα τὴν Έλεγνην, ὡς φησι
Κρατίνος ὁ ποιητής. καὶ διὰ τὸ μὴ μεταμορφοθῆναι αὐτὸν, ἀλλ’ αὐτοῦ ἀναπτύσσει εἰς τὸν
οὐρανὸν, καὶ τὸν τόπον τοῦ κύκνου ἐβήκεν ἐν τοῖς ἄστροις· ἔστι δε ἐπτάμενος σὸς τοτὲ ἦν.

Augustus’ librarian Hyginus gives much the same version, though without specifying a
location. He adds that Venus assisted by taking the form of an eagle and pretending to
pursue Zeus’ swan, to which Nemesis inadvisedly gave shelter; the resulting egg was taken
to Leda in Sparta by Mercury (2.8, s.v. Olor). The constellation Cygnus does indeed bear
quite a passable resemblance to a swan in flight.
Linking Rhamnous with the rape myth is an obvious connection to make, providing a good *aition* for the cult's location, but few of our sources mention it explicitly. An odd reference in Kallimachos calls Helen "Rhamnousian", which would imply that Kallimachos was familiar with the association, and Kratinos' comedy *Nemesis* may have located a version of the "Helen in the egg" story at Rhamnous, as we shall see.\(^{23}\)

It is even possible that the *Kypria*’s inclusion of the rape story was prompted by the author’s knowledge of the cult of Nemesis at Rhamnous. Davies follows Wackernagel’s linguistic arguments that much of the Epic Cycle cannot be earlier than c.550, and fr.1 of the *Kypria* in particular has many Attic features, some not paralleled before the fifth century.\(^{24}\) He suggests that frs.8-9 might fit in the context of the Judgement of Paris, perhaps in a speech by Aphrodite describing the reward she will give Paris for choosing her, and comments on the oddity of the shape-changing Nemesis, the folk-tale detail more usually being associated with Thetis and her pursuit by Peleus. Since a reluctant Thetis would clash with the picture implied by fr.2 of Hera *rewarding* the nymph with Peleus for having refused Zeus’ advances, Davies suggests that the poet of the *Kypria* “transferred the motif, from its original and apposite association with the sea-sprite Thetis, to a rather less obviously appropriate connection with Nemesis, the personification of retribution”.\(^{25}\) But where does the story that Nemesis, rather than Leda, was Helen’s mother come from? Davies points out that the Leda and the swan version, though more familiar to us, is first attested in Euripides’ *Helen*, and could even be a Euripidean invention, implying that the Nemesis story was older.\(^{26}\) We might elaborate on this argument, taking the linguistic evidence into consideration, and suggest that Nemesis’ motherhood of Helen is specifically an Attic myth, first told by the people of Rhamnous about the goddess of their local sanctuary, taken up by the poet of the *Kypria*, who added the shape-changing motif. If we were to accept a sixth-century presence in the sanctuary for Themis, and thus a perceived association of the two goddesses, her role in this telling of the Trojan War myth would be given even more point, too. Themis suggests the War to Zeus as a cure for the earth’s overpopulation, and the War is brought about

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\(^{23}\) Kallimachos *Hymn* 3, to Artemis: the Greeks were on their way to Troy, angry about ἐπέλενι Ραμνοῦσιδι (232).

\(^{24}\) Davies 1988, 3-5; Wackernagel, J. (1916) *Sprachliche Untersuchungen zu Homer*, 178ff.

\(^{25}\) Davies 1988, 35-9.

\(^{26}\) Davies 1988, 39.
by the woman to whom Nemesis gives birth — the power of Righteous Indignation working to fulfil the requirements of divine Order on the earth.  

When describing the figures on the base of the cult statue of Nemesis at Rhamnous, Pausanias is as concerned as anyone to clear up confusion about Helen’s parentage, explaining: “The Greeks say Nemesis was the mother of Helen, and that Leda only gave Helen the breast and reared her; in the same way they and everyone else believe that Helen’s father was Zeus and not Tyndareos.”  
The text as it stands reads rather awkwardly: who is “everyone else” in opposition to “the Greeks”? Schubart (ed. 1853) deletes ‘Ελληνες and inserts it later after ταύτα instead of the codices’ ‘Ελένης, an emendation adopted by Hitzig and Blümner (eds. 1896). Frazer interprets the spirit of Schubart’s text, rendering the second half of the sentence: “as for Helen’s father, the people of Rhamnus are at one with all the rest of the Greeks in holding that he was Zeus...”.  

Such an interpretation could be facilitated by simply replacing ‘Ελληνες in the first clause with a local reference: “The Rhamnousians say Nemesis was the mother of Helen...; in the same way both they and all the Greeks believe that (her) father was Zeus...”. This would reflect Pausanias’ habitual interest in local variations in myth, and strengthen our case for the “Attic-ness” of Nemesis’ motherhood of Helen. The attribution of two divine parents to Helen makes her a very special case amongst mortals, perhaps only paralleled by one or two cases of heroes resulting from unions between a god and a personified locality.  

As we have seen, the sanctuary at Rhamnous seems to have been in use from at least the early sixth century, although the earliest evidence for the identity of its owner is the early fifth-century helmet dedicated to Nemesis. Given Nemesis’ role in the

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27 This kind of moral dimension is suggested by Apollo’s summary of the story towards the end of Euripides’ Orestes (1638-42), where the earth’s overpopulation is explicitly a hybrisma: ἄλλην δὲ νόησεν ἐς δόμοις κτῆσαι λαβόν, ἐπεὶ θεοὶ τῷ τίθεο καλλιστεύματι ‘Ελληνας εῖς ἐν καὶ Φρύγας συνήγαγον, τιθατοὺς τ’ ἔθηκαν, ὡς ἀπαντολοίχν χθονὸς/ ἔθροσσα τιθατών ἀφθόνου πληράματος.

28 Paus. 1.33.7: Ἐλένη Νέμεσιν μητέρα εἶναι λέγουσιν Ἐλλήνες. Λήδαν δὲ ματέαν ἐπισέχειν αὐτῇ καὶ θρεξίαν: πατέρα δὲ καὶ οὗτοι καὶ πάντες κατὰ τάντα Ἐλένης Δία καὶ οὐ Τυνδάρεαν εἶναι νομίζουσι.

29 Frazer 1896, 151-2.

30 Thanks to Nick Fisher for drawing this problem to my attention, and suggesting the solution.

31 E.g. Zeus + Aigina = Aiakos (Pindar N.8.6-8, Paus. 2.5.1-2), Helios + Rhodes = seven sons (Pindar O.7.71-3). Burkert (1985, 185) suggests that the myths of rape and indignant withdrawal make Nemesis “very clearly a double of the raging Demeter Erinys”.

32 Above p.81.
Kypria, however, a sixth-century Attic cult is perfectly plausible; an even earlier date could be sustained if we followed the arguments for the Epic Cycle containing material just as archaic as that used in the Homeric poems, although any pre-sixth-century cult has left no archaeological record. In the absence of further information, the archaic history of the sanctuary must remain somewhat obscure, but with the fifth century the position improves rapidly, both because of the usual increase in material available for study and because of political circumstances which caused the sanctuary to take on wider significance than it had enjoyed in the archaic period.

RHAMNOS IN THE FIFTH CENTURY

First, the material evidence. From the first quarter of the fifth century we have the putative Themis temple and the inscribed helmet, and a small temenos of an unidentified deity recently uncovered north-east of the temple of Nemesis may be of similar date, although previous excavation has apparently made this difficult to establish. In the middle of the century, accounts of the financial resources, in reserve or on loan, “of Nemesis”, for five years between c.450 and 440 suggest that Nemesis’ cult was already flourishing. At some point before the large temple was built the terrace reached its final form, with its impressive retaining walls to the north and east, and the fountain house and stoa to the north were built (FIGS. 6-7a). Dinsmoor’s ascription of the Nemesis temple to the “Theseion architect” has been convincingly refuted by Miles, though the latter’s case for a date of 430-25, rather than the late 430s, has not found universal acceptance. Various details, such as incomplete fluting on the extant column drums, suggest that building work was interrupted in its finishing stages, which would certainly be consonant with the disruption seen elsewhere in Attic construction work caused by the beginning of the Peloponnesian War, although they

33 On the Epic Cycle and Homer, see Slatkin 1991, 9-14.
34 Petrakos 1990, 1-3, fig. 1 and 1992, 8-9. There are traces of an altar and a small temple, of local stone.
35 IG 13 248; Pouilloux 1954, no.35 (see 147-9 for discussion of the sums involved); ML no.53; Whitehead 1986, 387 no.100 (see 160 for discussion, and 170 on the lack of distinction between cult and deme funds; the Nemesis accounts are dated by demarchs).
37 Dinsmoor 1973, 181; Miles 1989, 221-242. Miles 1989 is the most recent extensive work on the architecture of the temple, but see Mark (1993, 77-8 n.47) for criticism of Miles’ stylistic dating criteria. See further below.
could alternatively be indicative of financial constraints during the War.\textsuperscript{38} The temple is built of local marble, with pale blue veining, from nearby quarries at the southern end of the Rhamnountine plain, near the summit of the low pass leading to the modern seaside village of Ayia Marina, which may have been specially opened for the purpose.\textsuperscript{39}

Nemesis’ new temple was equipped with a magnificent new cult statue. All are in agreement that it was the work of a sculptor of some renown, though exactly who seems to have been a subject of much ancient debate; some, including Pausanias, attributed the work to Pheidias, others to his pupil Agorakritos. Zenobios reports that it is the work of Pheidias, explaining the confusion thus:

Antigonos the Karystian says that a tiny plaque was suspended from this which bore the inscription: ‘Made by Agorakritos of Paros’. This is not surprising; many other people also have written someone else’s name on their own works. So it is likely that Pheidias had yielded to Agorakritos; for Agorakritos was his beloved, and in general Pheidias was driven to distraction over his favourite.\textsuperscript{40}

Photios likewise records the attribution to Pheidias, but suggests that the work was in some way dedicated to Agorakritos: “Pheidias made the statue, and his signature was a favour to Agorakritos of Paros, his beloved.” He compares the case with that of Pheidias’ Zeus at Olympia, the finger of which was apparently inscribed with the kalos name of another of the master’s favourite pupils, one Pantarkes.\textsuperscript{41}

Following Despinis’ reconstruction of the statue, however, most modern art historians are in agreement that the statue was the work of Agorakritos on stylistic grounds, the misattributions easily explicable by the desire to ascribe the masterpiece

\textsuperscript{38} On the “conspicuous gap” in Attic building between 432 and 424, see Mark 1993, 76-9. See also Hodge and Tomlinson 1969 on the unusual stippled panels on the vertical surfaces of the steps, usually regarded as a sign of lack of finish, but perhaps a deliberate feature; see Dinsmoor 1961 on the architrave.

\textsuperscript{39} Hodge and Tomlinson 1969, 192 n.15.

\textsuperscript{40} Zenobios 5.82, s.v. Ραμνουσία Νέμεσις: έξ οὗ φησίν Ἀντίγωνος ὃ Καρύστιος πτύχη τι μικρὸν ἐπιγραφήν ἔχον Ἀγοράκριτος Πάριος ἔποιησεν. οὗ θεομαστών δὲ καὶ ἐλλοι γάρ πολλοὶ ἔπι τῶν οἰκεῖων ἔργων ἔτερον ἐπιγεγράφασιν ὄνομα. εἰκὸς οὖν καὶ τὸν Φείδιον τῷ Ἀγορακρίτῳ συγχειρήσειν ἦν γὰρ αὐτοῦ ἐρώμενος, καὶ ἐλλοι ἐπιτόπιο περὶ τὰ παιδικά.

\textsuperscript{41} Photios Lexicon s.v. Ραμνουσία Νέμεσις: τὸ δ’ ἀγαλμα Φείδιας ἐποίησεν, ὧν τὴν ἐπιγραφήν ἐξαρίστατο Ἀγορακρίτῳ τῷ Παριό ἐρωμένῳ, ὡς καὶ Ὀλυμπίας τὸ δακτύλῳ τοῦ Διὸς ἐπέγραψεν Παντάρκης καλὸς ἦν δὲ οὗτος Ἀργείος, ἐρωμένος αὐτοῦ. The Suda tells the same story, though giving the kalos name as Αὐτάρχης (s.v. Ραμνουσία Νέμεσις).
to the more famous master.\textsuperscript{42} In addition to the question of the identity of the sculptor, though, the statue itself is supposed to have undergone something of an identity crisis:

The two pupils [of Pheidias, Alkamenes and Agorakritos] competed against each other in making a Venus, and Alkamenes won, not because of his work but by the votes of the citizens who favoured one of their own against a foreigner. So, at this decree, Agorakritos is said to have sold his statue so that it might not remain in Athens, and called it Nemesis. It was set up at Rhamnous, a village in Attika, and Marcus Varro preferred it to all other statues.\textsuperscript{43}

That the cult statue of Nemesis should have found its way to Rhamnous as an expression of the sculptor’s resentment is perhaps too appropriate to be true; Karanastassi suggests that the story reflects a late antique view that the statue better accords with Aphrodite’s iconography than with that of Nemesis as it had developed by Pliny’s time.\textsuperscript{44} The statue’s previous incarnation is also mentioned rather confusedly by Photios: Nemesis “in the form of Aphrodite” was set up by Erechtheus “as she was his mother” (a genealogy not otherwise attested), and “she was named Nemesis and reigned at Rhamnous”.\textsuperscript{45} Further obfuscation is added by Solinus’ assertion that Rhamnous had “a Pheidian statue of Diana”, but he may simply have misread his Pliny, the source for most of his work.\textsuperscript{46}

Stories of the statue having been designed as an Aphrodite are obviously relevant to an examination of its iconography: how much does a Nemesis look like an Aphrodite? Our mythological sources have only described Nemesis as “fair of form” (Hes. \textit{Op.} 198) and able to change her shape — not a great deal to go on. We have no artistic representations pre-dating the Rhamnous statue, which may well have had to set a precedent. Although only fragments of the actual statue and its base survive, we have enough information from written descriptions and Roman copies of the statue to

\textsuperscript{42} Karanastassi et al. 1992, 734; Despinis 1971 (see 1-3 on the literary sources, 111-210 on Agorakritos and his circle).
\textsuperscript{43} Pliny the Elder \textit{NH} 36.4.17: \textit{certavere autem inter se ambo discipuli Venere facienda victique Alcamenes non opere, sed civilitis suffragis contra peregrinum suo faventis. quare Agoracritus ea lege signum suum vendidisse traditur, ne Athenis esset, et apellasse Nemesin. id positum est Rhamnunte pago Atticae, quod M. Varro omnibus signis praetulit.}
\textsuperscript{44} Karanastassi, etc, 1992, 734.
\textsuperscript{45} Photios \textit{Lexicon} s.v. Ραμνωνεία Νέμεσις: αὐτῇ πρώτον ἀφίδροστο ἐν Ἀφροδίτῃς σχῆματι διό καὶ κλάδον εἶχε μηλέας, ἰδρύσατο δ’ αὐτὴν Ἐρεχθεὺς, μητέρα ἑαυτοῦ οὖν, ὑμοςἀμοεβένην δὲ Νέμεσιν καὶ βασιλεύσασσαν ἐν τῷ τόπῳ. A link between Nemesis and Aphrodite might be seen in Pausanias’ description of Patrai, Achaia: “Not far from the theatre is a shrine of Nemesis and another of Aphrodite, with cult statues of great size in white stone.” (7.20.9). See above n.22 for Aphrodite’s involvement in the rape of Nemesis.
\textsuperscript{46} \textit{Collectanea Rerum Memorabilium} 7.26. Solinus also mentions the sanctuary of Amphiaraos, which was for a long time thought to be a confused reference to the sanctuary at nearby Oropos (on which see Paus. 1.34.1-2); Pouilloux 1956, 93.
reconstruct the original with some confidence (FIGS. 11-12). From Zenobios we learn that the statue was ten cubits high, monolithic, and held an apple branch in her hand, which attribute Photios explains as a left-over from the statue's time as an Aphrodite. Further details are supplied by Pausanias: "... on her head is a crown with deer and small images of Victory; in her left hand she has an apple branch, in the right a phiale, on which Ethiopians are represented..." The apple branch and deer are often cited as indications that the Rhamnousian Nemesis was originally some sort of "nature deity" but it is difficult to see how the Victories and Ethiopians would fit into such a reading. It seems rather more likely that a message about Athens' power over distant barbarians is being conveyed, but since even Pausanias was at a loss to explain the significance of the Ethiopians, despite a lengthy aside on the subject, arguments about interpretation are likely to remain inconclusive. Pausanias' account continues with a description of the figures depicted on the statue's base: "Helen being brought from Nemesis to Leda's breast", along with various members of the families of Tyndareos and Atreus (1.33.7). This second representation of Nemesis is identifiable amongst the extant fragments of the base, but little more can be said of her than that she is dressed in chiton and himation, like the statue above (FIGS. 13-14).

Essentially, then, the Rhamnousian Nemesis looks much like any other female figure of the mid-late fifth century, marked out as divine by her phiale as well as by her cult context. This makes her comparable with representations of other personifications at this period, who, as already noted, are all standard female figures, not usually

\[47\] Fragmentary head: London BM 460. Roman copies: Copenhagen Glyptothek 2086, Athens NM 3949.
\[48\] Zenobios 5.82: ἐν Ῥαμνοῦντι Νεμέσεως ἱδρυται ἁγάλμα δεκάπηχον, ὀλολθον, ἐργον Φειδίου, ἔχει δὲ ἐν τῇ χειρὶ μηλεάς κλάδον Photios as above, n.45. Despinis' reconstruction of the statue has shown that it was indeed carved from a single block of Parian marble. See below n.63 on the meaning of μήλον.
\[49\] Paus. 1.33.3: τῇ κεφαλῇ δὲ ἐπέστη τῆς θεοῦ στέφανος ἀλάρως ἔχων καὶ Νίκης ἁγάλματα οὐ μεγάλα ταῖς δὲ χερσίν ἔχει τῇ μὲν κλάδον μηλεάς, τῇ δεξιᾷ δὲ φίαλην, Αἰθίπτες δὲ ἐπὶ τῇ φίαλη πεποιντεῖαι.
\[50\] Dietrich (1965, 157-73) is the strongest advocate of Nemesis as "vegetation deity"; cf. Pettrakos' characterisation of Nemesis (above p.82). Laroche (1949, 106) is succinct in his refutation of such hypotheses: "tout le complexe religieux de Némésis est d'origine spéculative. Pas un seule indice ne décèle l'origine 'naturiste' de la divinité." On the application of the "fertility paradigm" to Eirene, see below pp.194-5.
\[51\] Nikai and Ethiopians: Fisher 1992, 503 n.47.
\[52\] See Shapiro Lapatin 1992 for identification of the figures and a discussion of their significance. He makes a good case for the fourth female figure, to the right of Nemesis (no.9), being identified as Klytaimnistra, not only Helen's sister, but surely the most infamous wreaker of vengeance in Greek tradition.
distinguished by attributes or any peculiarity of dress. Nemesis’ one possibly distinctive feature is the apple branch. Photios’ association of the apple branch with Aphrodite has a certain amount to recommend it, as the fruit at least is obviously connected with her by the Judgement of Paris story. But the theory of course depends on acceptance of the story of the statue’s strange history; and if the apple branch had had significance as part of the design for an Aphrodite, surely the obvious thing to do would have been to remove it to mark the statue’s change of identity.

Nemesis’ statue brings us to the political context in which her cult flourished. Several epigrams in the Planudean Appendix purport to belong to the statue, associating Nemesis with the Athenian victory at nearby Marathon, Parmenion’s being entitled “On the Nemesis of the Athenians”:

I, the stone which the Medes hoped would be their trophy-bearer, was opportunely changed in shape into Nemesis, the goddess justly established on the shores of Rhamnous, as a witness to Attika’s victory and skill.

Pausanias tells the same story in more pedestrian style, characterising Nemesis as “the most implacable of the gods towards hybristic men”:

It seems that the wrath of this goddess fell upon the barbarians’ Marathon landing; thinking contemptuously that nothing could stop them from taking Athens, they brought a block of Parian marble for the making of a trophy for their achievements. Pheidias made this block into a statue of Nemesis.

The story is of course far too neat to be true, but entirely consonant with a general perception of Persian arrogance and its inevitable punishment. Aelius Aristides even

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53 Above p.102.
54 A fruit tree of some sort appears in connection with Aphrodite and her retinue of personifications on a London pyxis, being picked by Hygieia (below p.175, FIG. 34). See LIMC II, s.v. Aphrodite 742 for a late Hellenistic bronze of Aphrodite holding an apple (New York Met. Mus. 1972.18.96).
55 Alternatively, could a very tenuous connection be made between Nemesis and the golden apples of the Hesperides, since Hesiod’s genealogy includes the Hesperides among the children of Night, making specific mention of their apple trees (Theog. 215-6)?
57 Paus. 1.33.2-3: ...τηθεν μάλιστα άνθρώπους ὕβριστας ἐστιν ἀπαραίτητος. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ τοῖς ἀκοπήδον ἐς Μαραθῶνα τῶν βαρβάρων ἀπαντήσαν μῆνιμα εκ τῆς θεοῦ ταυτῆς καταφθονήσαντες γαρ <μηδέν> σφαιριν ἐμποδόν εἶναι τὰς Ἀθηνᾶς ἔλειν, λίθον Πάριον ὡς ἐπὶ ἐξειργασμένος ἤγαν ἐς τροπαιο ποίησιν. τότην Φειδίας τὸν λίθον εἰργάσατο ὀγκαλμα μέν ἐνία Νεμέσεσως...
58 Cf. the fate of the Spartans who set off on campaign against the Arcadians equipped with fetters to enslave them, only to be enslaved themselves (Hdt. 1.66).
comments on the coincidence that the over-confident Persians should land near the
territory of the very goddess who specialises in punishing the hybrisitic:

And the first force from Asia passed through the islands and landed at Marathon,
rightly drawn by the nature of the place to pay the penalty for what they had plotted
against the Greeks.59

This connection with the battle of Marathon has led many commentators to suggest
that Nemesis’ cult was founded in celebration of the “revenge” wreaked upon the
overweening Persians in 490.60 Since the discovery of earlier material at the site,
however, the theory has had to be modified, as in Petrakos’ idea that Marathon caused
a change in the aspect of Nemesis which was emphasised, or Miles’ more practical
suggestion that Marathon merely elevated the cult’s status.61 The cult at Rhamnous is
one of the few instances of an association between nemesis and hybris which Fisher
allows, though he does not give it as much weight as it perhaps deserves; he sees
Nemesis’ earlier incarnation there as the more personal mother-of-Helen figure, the
Trojan War association providing a nice link with her fifth-century role as symbol of
divine anger and punisher of Persian hybris.62 This last solution comes nearest to
answering the problem of Nemesis’ “abstractness”, and may be supported by further
consideration of the political context for the the creation of Nemesis’ temple and cult
statue. The Marathon connection might, incidentally, explain the cult statue’s apple
branch, since the apple is said to come from Persia,63 or, as the battle took place in late

59 Panathenaikos 13: ἦ τ’ ἀπὸ τῆς Ἀσίας ἐπὶ τοὺς “Ελλήνας πρώτη διαβάσα δύναμις διὰ
tῶν νήσων προσέχειν εἰς Μαραθώνα, καλῶς ὑπὸ τῆς φύσεως ἀρχήςα τοῦ τόπου πρὸς τὸ
δοῦναι δίκην ἄν ἐπεβολέυειν τοῖς “Ελλήνσιν.

60 The delay in erecting a temple and cult statue would fit with the Oath of Plataia,
didactic which the ruins of sanctuaries destroyed by the Persians should be left as
memorials of the barbarians’ asebeia: Diod. Sik. 11.29.2, Lyk. 1.81. On the authenticity of
the oath and its effects, see Mark 1993, 98-104. See Thomas (1989, 223-6) on Marathon
as the epitome of the Persian Wars and Athenian imperial power, from at least the last
quarter of the fifth century.

61 Foundation of cult post-Marathon: Pouilloux (1954, 57-8 and n.7); Vos (1956, 78).
association of Nemesis’ temple with the “programme” which also produced the temples of
Poseidon at Sounion, Ares at Acharnai and Hephaistos in the Athenian agora; the message
of this programme, that Athens “had inflicted on the Persians a bitter nemesis”, would
explain the “unusual honour” bestowed on “a local goddess” at Rhamnous. Cf. John
Wilkins’ arguments on the Herakleidai (430 BC?) and cults of Makaria, Herakles and

62 Fisher 1993, 503 and n.47; cf. 256-63 and 367-85 on the kind of hybris ascribed to the
Persians in Aischylus’ Persians and Herodotos.

63 Athenaios’ diners discuss all kinds of fruit, including apples (3.80e-82e). The word
μήλα is used in combination with various qualifications to designate damsons (2.49d-50a),
quinces (3.81 a, d-o, peaches (“Persian apples”, 3.82f-83a), but on its own generally seems
to mean apple. One of the diners comments on the confusion of apples and lemons,
summer when apple trees would be fruiting, the apple might perhaps have been associated with the victory in the way that the poppy was with Flanders. 64

The theme of Aelius’ speech, probably delivered at the Panathenaia of AD 155, is the Athenians’ generosity and self-sacrifice, of which Marathon is the obvious classic example, and this may provide a clue to the question of why Rhamnous/Nemesis received so much interest in the late 430s-20s. There is nothing in the sanctuary’s earlier history to indicate that it was of more than local importance, but the amount of money spent on the refurbishments would suggest more than local deme resources. 65 Arguing for a date for the temple in the mid-420s, Miles adduces the general religious fervour evident from the archaeological record of the period, which she suggests was inspired in part by outbreaks of the plague in the early years of the decade. 66 Certainly a general enthusiasm for building and repairing shrines provides a propitious climate, although Nemesis is not an obvious goddess to invoke against the plague. 67 Even if we follow the more traditional dating of the temple to just before the War, there is some agreement that the cult statue and its base were not completed until some time in the 420s, bringing into play the same political context. 68 An important feature of Marathon is that the Spartans were absent, too busy celebrating the Karneia to come to

which has given rise to the myth of the “golden” apples of the Hesperides (3.83.b-84d). Apples come from Euboia (2.27f), are more specifically called “Delphic μῆλα” (3.80e), were discovered by Dionysos (3.82d), come from the Persian king (3.84a-b, quoting Antiphanes’ Boidian Women). Cf. the Persian Melophoroi, a thousand men selected from among the Immortals to serve as the king’s bodyguard, whose spears had golden apples on their butts (12.514b). Thanks to John Wilkins for this point.

64 Alan Griffiths’ idea.

65 Though the evidence is not conclusive: see Miles (1989, 234 and n.192) on the financial independence or otherwise of the Rhamnous cult from Athens. Whitehead (1986, 160) comments on the 450-40 accounts (above n.35) that the total resources available are not demonstrably “grossly incommensurate” with a deme of its size; cf. Parker 1996, 25-6 and n.56.


67 Unless she is seen as the gods’ representative, instrument of their punishment, in the form of the plague, for some unidentified offence. Cf. mythical instances of plagues resulting from neglect of proper attentions to, or offences against, the gods; see below pp.131-4 on Pausanias’ aition for the worship of Peitho at Sikyon. Thanks to Gideon Nisbet for this suggestion. On “divine vengeance and disease”, see Parker 1983, 235-56.

68 Despinis (1971) dates the statue to c.430, with work on the base continuing to c.420; the discrepancy of 10 years in date, and the resulting technical difficulties of installing the statue, are addressed by Petrakos 1986. Despinis is apparently convinced by Miles’ reassessment of the date of the temple, and willing to date the installation of both statue and base to a single date within the years 430-20 (Miles 1989, 226-7, n.153).
the allies' assistance: a memorial to Athens' victory over the barbarians famously achieved *without the Spartans* would be a suitable morale-booster in the face of repeated Spartan invasions of Attika in the early 420s. At a more practical level, the fortress of Rhamnous commands a strategically useful position, offering a safe harbour on an otherwise largely inhospitable coast connecting up with a land route to inland Attika. This was to be of crucial importance from 412/11 after the Spartan capture of Dekeleia and Oropos, when Rhamnous offered the only safe route for the importation of corn supplies from Euboia. Although little can be said for certain of Rhamnous' role earlier in the War, it seems too much of a coincidence that the deme's major sanctuary should have received so much attention c.430. The building of the new temple, I would suggest, not only honoured a goddess who had proved so efficacious against invaders in the past, but also provided an earnest of Athens' commitment to Rhamnous at a time when Attic solidarity was particularly needed.

**Rhamnous, Athens and the Nemesis**

If such strong links with Athens are to be supposed, what evidence is there for the worship of Nemesis by the Athenians? The title "On the Nemesis of the Athenians" which heads two of the Hellenistic epigrams already mentioned on the Rhamnous statue suggests a firm link at least in the minds of the epigrammatists, while a Roman copy of the Rhamnous statue and one just of its head have been found in Athens. Other indications of Nemesis' cult in Athens are not necessarily formally linked to Rhamnous, as we shall see, though it would be difficult not to make some sort of association. For the cult's observance before the Hellenistic period, however, we have only a few literary references and just one securely identified appearance in vase-painting.

Our only fifth-century representation of Nemesis other than the statue and base at Rhamnous is on the Berlin amphoriskos, name-vase of the Heimarmene Painter,

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69 On the Karneia and Marathon, see Burkert 1985a, 234; cf. Parker 1989, 155-62 on Spartan religion and approach to warfare.
70 On Rhamnous' geographical advantages, see Pouilloux 1954, 17-22.
71 See Pouilloux 1954, 55-66.
72 Whole statue, Athens NM 3949; head, Agora S 1055 (*LIMC* s.v. "Nemesis" 2d and h).
which depicts the “Persuasion of Helen” (FIG. 16). In the central scene a pensive Helen sits on Aphrodite’s lap, attended by Peitho, while Himeros seems to be giving Paris advice. Inscriptions identify the figure on the far left as Nemesis, the second from the right as Heimarmene, another “fate” character. Nemesis has one arm around her companion, the other pointing to the main scene. Only two letters of inscription by her companion are legible, _Y_E, but Tyche would be an obvious candidate; Heimarmene’s companion is unidentified. Nemesis’ presence could be explained by her role as Helen’s mother, but the composition, with the four personifications framing the central mythological scene, invites an allegorical reading: Heimarmene represents the past, fate already ordained, Tyche would be the present, the fateful meeting now taking place, while Nemesis points to the future and the dire consequences of that meeting. Such a use of personified figures is quite unprecedented, and the vase has been much discussed. A clue can perhaps be found in its date of around 430 BC: although Nemesis had not previously been included in representations of her daughter’s abduction, contemporary interest in her cult at Rhamnous might have prompted her introduction into the scene, and the appropriateness of her abstract meaning could then have suggested the inclusion of the other allegorical figures. By analogy with this scene it has been suggested that two figures on the more or less contemporary 6on from the Stathatos collection in Athens could be Nemesis and Tyche. The whole scene represents a game being played by two seated females, the one on the right presumably being Aphrodite, as she has Eros leaning on her knee; the game is identified as “morra” by Beazley and Ghali-Kahil. Various figures look on, including a youth wearing the cloak and petasos of a newly arrived traveller. The scene fits with the Helen and Paris iconography established by Ghali-Kahil, although the game is unprecedented, and the unusual egg-shape certainly lends credibility to the idea that Nemesis should be involved, but without inscriptions the identification has to remain speculative.

73 Amorphiskos, Heimarmene Painter, c.430, Berlin 30036; ARV² 1173,1; Shapiro 1993 no.129. See Shapiro (1986, 11-14 and 1993, 192-5) for detailed discussions of the vase; he suggests that the fourth figure might be Themis.

74 Heimarmene is not otherwise personified in extant art or literature, and this is our earliest attestation of the noun. See further below pp.150-1 on the Persuasion of Helen.

75 ARV² 1257,2. Attributed to the Eretria Painter by Metzger 1944, though Beazley disagrees. Reputedly found in the same grave as another 6on, showing a youth carrying off a woman in a chariot (ARV² 1256, 1). Identification of Nemesis and Tyche: Ghali-Kahil 1955 67, n.1.
Kratinos' *Nemesis* is the one piece of literature on Nemesis more or less contemporary with the temple; as it seems to have parodied Perikles' attempts to have his son by Aspasia made a citizen, it seems likely that it dates from before his death in 429, and Godolphin argues for production in 431.\(^76\) The play fits with the Rhamnous statue base in including Leda, Nemesis and Helen, and with the rape story in making much of the bird element.\(^77\) The egg could apparently be seen on stage, and this may be reflected in a dozen or so Attic vases of the last third of the fifth century which show a large white egg on an altar, while Leda looks on, often accompanied by Tyndareos and the Dioskouroi (FIG. 15),\(^78\) a similar scene appears on some Campanian and Apulian vases of the fourth century, sometimes with Helen actually emerging from the egg.\(^79\) While it is not certain that the vase-paintings are representations of Kratinos' play, and none feature Nemesis herself, they do at least suggest a strong interest in the version of Helen's birth which makes Leda only her foster-mother, so giving Attika a greater stake in the Trojan War.\(^80\) It is very tempting to link the production of Kratinos' play, as well as the vases, with the re-furbishing of the sanctuary at Rhamnous, which would give topicality to the choice of this myth for the entertainment of the demos of Athens. Furthermore, if the play does belong to the first years of the Peloponnesian War, it is easy to see how a story which makes Sparta's most famous heroine actually Attic might appeal to its audience.\(^81\)

Similarly, the practical importance of Rhamnous as a supply-route from c.412 might lie behind Euripides' choice of Nemesis as a suitable deity for Antigone to invoke in the *Phoenician Women*, which was produced in the early years of the

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\(^76\) PCG IV, Cratinus 114-27; see fr.125 and p.179 on the date; Godolphin 1931. See Plut. *Per.*, 24 on Perikles, Aspasia and the comic poets. Thanks to John Wilkins for information on Kratinos.

\(^77\) Zeus has been metamorphosed into a bird (fr.114); someone tells Leda she must sit on the egg so that it will hatch (fr.115).

\(^78\) Leda finds the egg on an altar: e.g. Attic bell-krater by Polion, 420 BC, Bonn, Akademisches Kunstmuseum 78.247; Carpenter 1991, 198-9, fig. 295; Schefold 1981, fig. 342.


\(^80\) Schefold 1981, 242-8. Other comedies based around the egg story: Aristophanes' *Daidalos* and probably Euboulos' *Lakones or Leda* (see Hunter 1983).

Dekeleian war. From the city walls the paidagogos identifies the Argive heroes besieging Thebes, among whom is Kepaneus, "uttering hybristic threats on this city". Antigone’s prayer — "Nemesis and deep-booming thunders of Zeus, and blazing light of thunderbolts, you put to sleep the overbearing big-talk" — could be seen as a reflection of Athenian appeals to the goddess to defend their city against the hard-pressing Spartans. In the only other instance in Attic tragedy where nemesis is unambiguously associated with hybris, Sophokles’ Elektra invokes Nemesis in support of Orestes, supposedly dead because of Klytaimnestra’s hybris: “Hear me, Nemesis of the newly dead man.” Exactly what Nemesis’ relationship is to the dead is unclear, whether she is envisaged as having a specific role as avenger of the dead, or is being appealed to more generally as an upholder of justice. Some such association with justice for the dead is suggested by a fragment of Aischylos, where Hermes (?) tells Achilles that the dead themselves feel neither good nor evil done to them, but “our Nemesis is mightier, and Dike avenges the dead man’s grudge”.

In the fourth century this association between Nemesis and the dead may be attested by a passage in Demosthenes’ Against Spoudias, delivered by an unnamed plaintiff:

Finally, although my wife advanced a hundred drachmai of silver and spent it on her father’s behalf on the Nemeseia, the defendant will not contribute his share even of this...

Plaintiff and defendant are married to two sisters, whose father Polyneuktos has recently died, without a male heir, and the plaintiff is suing for various monies owed him by the estate, apparently being withheld by Spoudias. Amongst other minor infamies, Spoudias and his wife have even failed to pay their share towards the Nemeseia. The

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82 Eur. Phoin. 182-4: Νέμεσι καὶ Δίως βαρύβρομοι βρονταῖ,... See Fisher 1992, 427-8: “The appropriateness of nemesis as a respondent to Capaneus’ threats is probably related to her capacity... to react angrily to dangerously boastful or over-confident utterances (not all of which need be classified as constituting hybris).” An entry in the Suda (S. V. Νέμεσις) would suggest this prayer was parodied by Aristophanes: Ἀριστοφάνης: Ἡ Νέμεσις, βαρύβρομοι τε βρονταῖ.

83 Soph. El. 792: Ἀκούει, Νέμεσι τοῦ θανόντος ἄρτιος.

84 Aisch. fr.244 Mette: καὶ τοὺς θανόντας εἰ θέλεις εὐεργετεῖν εἰς οὖν κακουργεῖν, ἀφιδεῖσα ξένη τῶν μῆτε χαίρειν μήτε λυπεῖσθαι φήτοις,/ ἡμῶν γε μέντοι Νέμεσις ἐσθ’ ὑπερτέρα,/ καὶ τοῦ θανόντος ἢ Δίκη πράσσει κότον. Fisher (1992, 300-01) comments on the difficulties of both passages.

85 Demosth. Or. 41.11: τὸ δὲ τελευταῖον εἰσενεγκώσις τῆς ἔμης γυναικὸς εἰς τὰ νεμέσια τῶν πατρὶ μνημὸν ἀργορίου καὶ προσαναλογίας, οὐδὲ ταύτης ἄξιος συμβαλλόθεναι τὸ μέρος... On the assertion in the Loeb footnote to this passage that the Nemeseia was held on the 5th Boedromion, see Petrakos 1992, 33.
context suggests that this should be understood as some sort of funerary cult, perhaps an annual remembrance of the dead, and this is the interpretation offered by the *Suda*, which cites this passage in its commentary on Nemesis’ festival: “The Nemesia is a certain festival held for the dead, since Nemesis is assigned to the dead”. 86 Parker suggests that the Demosthenes may be a textual corruption for *Genesia*, the various lexicographical notices “simply guesses based on this single passage”, but given our other evidence for Nemesis’ association with the dead at Athens the possibility of a minor festival should perhaps not be entirely ruled out. 87 One of three Roman-period altars that have been found in Athens bearing Nemesis’ name was in the Kerameikos, dedicated to “Nemesis the listening goddess”. 88 Nemesis appears in at least one Hellenistic epitaph, and is explicitly associated with Underworld “avengers” in a rather obscure passage at the end of a late first century BC paraphrase of Plato’s *Timaios*: “In the second cycle Nemesis, together with the avenging and the chthonic daïmones, watchers over human affairs, has determined all of these things, to them the god who is ruler of all entrusted the government of the universe...”89

The one piece of evidence which would seem to undermine the characterisation of Nemesis at Athens as a deity of the dead is a priest-seat inscription from the Theatre of Dionysos reserving a place for “the priest of Heavenly Nemesis”. 90 Not only the epithet Ourania, however, but also the gender of her attendant would suggest that this should be understood as a cult quite distinct from the Nemesis of Rhamnous, who, as we have seen, was served by a priestess. 91 And indeed, further back in the theatre part

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86 *Suda* s.v. Νεμέεσις: Δημοσθένης ἐν τῷ κατά Σπουδίου, μήποτε ἐορτή τις Νεμέεσις, καθ’ ἴνα τοὺς κατοικομένους ἐπέτελουσ τὰ νομίζομενα. Νεμέεσις σοὶ ἐπὶ τοῖς νεκροῖς γινομένη πανήγυρις, ἐπεὶ ἡ νεμέεσις ἐπὶ τῶν νεκρῶν τέκταται. Garland (1994, 59) suggests that the festival "was probably intended to placate the angry dead".

87 Parker 1996, 246-7 n.101.


89 AP. 7.358: μὴ σε λάθοι Νέμεσις. <Timaios of Locri>, De Anima Mundi et Natura 87-8, Tobin: "Ἀποκάλεσε δὲ τοῦτά ἐν δευτέρα περιοδική ἡ Νέμεσις συνδιεκρίνει σὺν δαίμονι παλαιομοιοίς θεοίς τε, τοὺς ἐπόπτας τῶν ἀνθρώπων, οἷς οἱ πάντες θεοί ἐπέτρεψε διοίκησιν κόσμου... Nemesis' only appearance in Plato himself is in the Laws, where she is "overseer" of children's behaviour towards their parents and "messenger of Justice" (717d). For Nemesis as "watcher-over" of affairs on earth, cf. *Suda* s.v. Νεμέεσις, and the Orphic Hymn 61.2: πανδήκτῃς, ἐσφόρσα τοῖς θεοῖς πολυχρόλῳς. Farnell (1896-1909, II 487) derives Artemis' cult title *Oupis* from ἰπικέσσα, which he sees as one of many links between Artemis and Nemesis — hence his hypothesis that Nemesis began life as an epithet.

90 Priest-seat, *IG* II² 5070: ἱερεύς Οὐρανίας Νεμέεσις.

of an inscription can just be made out "... in Rham[nous]", which is may well be the place for the priestess of "the goddess in Rhamnous", as Nemesis seems to have become known in Hellenistic literature.\

Whether or not there was an Athenian Nemesia, we certainly have evidence for a "Great Nemesia" at Rhamnous in the late fourth and third centuries, a period when the strategic position of Rhamnous and the military links with Athens, already noted for the fifth century, come to the fore. Such links may have been growing in strength over the first half of the fourth century, but would have been confirmed with the formalisation of military training for 18-20 year olds in the mid-330s, whereby all epheses were stationed for a year in barracks at Piraeus, followed by a year in one of the other Attic forts.\textsuperscript{93} That the sanctuary at Rhamnous would have hosted a regular festival in honour of its main goddess seems likely \textit{a priori}, but it is with the late fourth-century garrison that we first have evidence for it. A dedication of 333/2 inscribed on the round base of a ephetic herm, found below the east retaining wall of the sanctuary, celebrates a victory in a contest one would assume took place in a festival context:

\begin{quote}
The \textit{sophronistes} Perik[... of Anagyr]ous and the gymnasiarchs of the epheses [of the tribe Erechtheis] dedicated this having been victorious in the torch-race in the archonship of Nikokrates, [...]andros Tim[... ] of Eunymon and Charikles son of Aleximenes from Pergase...\textsuperscript{94}
\end{quote}

The demotics confirm that the gymnasiarchs are of the tribe Erechtheis, and 46 names of the ephetic victors follow. Further evidence for the torch-race is provided by two fragmentary votive reliefs from the sanctuary, also datable to the 330s, the better-preserved of the two clearly showing the procession of the team after the race towards three goddesses (FIG. 17). The first of these must be Victory, as she is winged; the

\textsuperscript{92} Sixteen rows back, in the third \textit{kerkis} from the centre on the right, \textit{IG} II\textsuperscript{2} 5143: ... \textit{ev}
\textsuperscript{93} Eleusis, Rhamnous, Phyle, and perhaps Sounion and Aphidna. Some form of this institution had probably been in place from the first half of the century, but it was now given public support and made compulsory: Humphreys 1985, 206-9; Parker 1996, 253-4; Habicht 1997, 16-17.
\textsuperscript{94} Herm: Athens NM 313. \textit{IG} II\textsuperscript{2} 3105 (Pouilloux 1954, 2 bis) + \textit{SEG} XXXI 162: ... \textit{Pa[v]ov[on]t}i.\n
Parker (1996, 246 and 254 n. 126) suggests that the games might be an innovation of this Lykourgan period. Cf. \textit{IG} II\textsuperscript{2} 1496.93 (below p. 189 n. 29) for the sacrifice to Eirene in Nikokrates' archonship.
remaining pair are likely to be Nemesis and Themis, given the relief's provenance, although there is nothing to confirm the identification.95

Quite explicit testimony of a festival for Nemesis, including games, is provided in the mid-third century by the inscription recently found in a well outside the east gate of the fortress. This is a decree of c.255 BC proposing that the Macedonian king Antigonus (Gonatas) be worshipped by the Rhamnousians, following the example of the people of Athens:

Elpinikos son of Mnesippos, of Rhamnous, proposed: since Antigonos (Gonatas), King and Saviour of the people, continues doing good services to the people of Athens, and because of these the people have paid him godlike honours, for good fortune, the Rhamnousians have decided to sacrifice to him on the 19th Hekatombaios, and to crown him at the athletic contests of the Great Nemesia, and to raise resources for the sacrifice from their fellow-demesmen, their commercial profit; the demarch and the treasurer in office at the time should have responsibility for the sacrifice; and this decree should be inscribed on a stone stele and set up beside the altar of king Antigonus.96

Not only do we have notice here of the Great Nemesia's existence, but also of the festival's date in early July, the inclusion of athletic contests, and details of the financial management of the sacrifice involved. The proposer of this motion is one Elpinikos son of Mnesippos, who also proposes a decree of 236/5 BC, honouring one Dikaiarchos of Thria:

... He also donated victims for the sacrifice of the Nemesia and the king from his own resources, after the sacrifices had been neglected because of the war, so that matters concerning the goddess of the Rhamnousians might go well.97

The king is by now Demetrios II, the war which has been interrupting the sacrifices the "war of Demetrios" of the early 230s; presumably it is the financial exigencies of war

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95 London BM 1953.5-30.1+ Rhamnous 530 (cf. Rhamnous 531). See Palagia and Lewis 1989 on the ephetic dedication and the reliefs, and Ashmole 1962 for an earlier attempt to identify the goddesses. *Contra* Palagia and Lewis' identification of the figure on the far left of the group as Themis, Karanastassi (1997, no.24) points to the central figure's sceptre as making her a better candidate.

which have necessitated the private donation in place of the public finance suggested by the earlier decree. Both inscriptions are fascinating documents for the history of Attica under Macedonian rule, in particular for the combining of ruler cult with more traditional religious practices, but the later decree is also interesting for a formula suggesting a wide-based decision-making body, encompassing not only the Rhamnousians, but also “the other Athenians, all those living in Rhamnous” (ll.30-2), which would suggest a thorough integration of garrison and deme, as well as underlining the strong links between Rhamnous and Athens.98 That the Rhamnousians continued to have a keen eye for political expediency in their religious observance into the Roman period is attested by the odd fact that the temple architave bears a rededication to the newly deified empress Livia in AD 45/6:

The people to the goddess Livia, when Demostratos, son of Dionysios of Pallene, was in command of the hoplites and priest of the goddess Roma and Caesar Augustus, and Aiolion, younger son of Antipater of Phlya, was archon.99

THE NEMESEIS OF SMYRNA

In addition to Rhamnous, the cult of Nemesis had a major centre at Smyrna in Asia Minor, where the most immediately striking feature is that the goddess has been multiplied into a pair of Nemeseis. Pausanias tells the story of the cult’s inception in the course of relating the history of Smyrna. In the early seventh century the old town was sacked and the original Aiolian inhabitants were driven out by Ionian refugees from Kolophon, in turn made homeless by Gyges of Lydia.100 Several centuries later:

Alexander son of Philip founded the modern city after a vision in a dream: he was hunting on mount Pagos, and as he returned from the hunt they say he reached a sanctuary of the Nemeseis, and he came upon a spring in front of the sanctuary and a plane tree, growing over the water. While he was sleeping under the plane tree they say that the Nemeseis appeared to him and ordered him to found a city there and to bring the people of Smyrna to it, turning them out of the earlier city... So they moved willingly and now believe in two Nemeseis instead of one...101

98 See Whitehead 1986, 405-6 for the variety of formulae used in Rhamnousian decrees. On the Attic cult of Antigonos Gonatas, see Habicht 1996. On the third-century political context in general, see Habicht 1997.
100 Cf. Hdt 1.16 for the destruction of Smyrna c.600 BC.
101 Paus. 7.5.1: Ἀλεξανδρὸς δὲ ὁ Φιλίππου τῆς ἤμων πόλεως ἐγένετο οἰκιστής κατ' ὅμιον ὀνείροτος. Ἀλεξανδρόν γὰρ ἤρθοντα ἐν τῷ ὑθρό τοῦ Πάφχα, ὡς ἐγένετο ἀπὸ τῆς θρόσου, ἀφικέσθαι πρὸς Νεμέσεις λέγοντοι ιερον, καὶ πηγῆ τε ἔπετυχεν αὐτοῖς καὶ πλατάνον πρὸ τοῦ ιεροῦ, περιπτείνοντο δὲ ἐπί τοῦ ἱδρύτος, καὶ ὑπὸ τῇ πλατάνῳ καθεδόντοι κελέανεν φαίνον αὐτῷ τὰς Νεμέσεις ἐπιφανείας πολῖν ἐντάθαν αἰκίζειν καὶ ἄγειν ἐς αὐτὴν Σιμωνίαν.
Alexander’s dream is nicely illustrated on a series of Roman coins of the second and third centuries AD (FIG. 18). The story is rather confused, with Alexander sleeping in front of the shrine of the twin Nemeseis at a stage when they are not yet supposed to exist, but it does state explicitly that before his intervention the people of Smyrna only had the one Nemesis.

This point is overlooked by most commentators, who seem almost unanimous in assigning a cult of the two Nemeseis to the archaic period, either in the seventh century or early in the sixth, after the Lydian destruction. In fact, however, the cult’s pre-Hellenistic existence is attested only by Pausanias’ account of Alexander’s dream, and by two brief remarks he makes concerning the cult statues. In the course of a discussion of artistic representations of the Charites Pausanias mentions that “in the temple of the Nemeseis at Smyrna, above the cult statues are set up golden Charites, the work of Boupalos...” As Boupalos was active in the mid sixth century BC, it is usually inferred from this passage that the agalmata of the Nemeseis and the temple which housed them must be of similar date. The exact relationship between Boupalos’ Charites and the agalmata is, however, rather obscure: are we to imagine full-size statues raised up on plinths at a higher level than the Nemesis statues? It is not at all clear from Pausanias that Boupalos was also responsible for the Nemeseis, and I see no reason why a set of Charites should not pre-date the building in which Pausanias saw them. An archaic date also seems at first sight to be suggested by Pausanias’ comment on Agorakritos’ statue at Rhamnous: “Neither this statue of Nemesis nor any other made by the ancients has wings, since not even the most holy
wooden idols (ἀγιώτατα ξώανα) of Smyrna have wings." Pausanias generally uses xoanon of fully figured wooden statues of gods, often with some indication that he considers the work to be "ancient", although this, as Donohue points out, does not necessarily make them archaic; in fact, some works which he designates as xoana are explicitly associated with named sculptors of the Classical period. Although we might expect Pausanias to be better informed about Smyrna, the major city of his home area, it is always possible that he himself was confused on the issue of the cult statues' antiquity, especially if the temple did indeed contain sixth-century Charites by Boupalos.

Neither passage, then, is conclusive in making the statues archaic; if they are understood as so doing, they contradict Pausanias' own story in speaking of plural Nemeseis before Alexander. In any case, we have further evidence for the cult statues with which an archaic date ill accords, in representations on coins and gems from the Roman imperial period (FIGS. 19-20). These show a pair of Nemeseis, both holding a fold of their himatia in a distinctive pose and carrying the attributes of measuring rod and bridle. That these are indeed supposed to represent the cult statues is demonstrated by the Hadrianic coin (FIG. 21) which depicts a temple front with two statues inside. Such figures could hardly be archaic korai, who scarcely manage to raise their arms from their sides, and certainly never have attributes. If the statues were not archaic, we have no evidence at all for a pre-Alexandrian cult, and it is plausible that the cult was in fact an innovation which came with the founding of the new city. Nemesis only becomes relevant at Smyrna when for the first time there is the real possibility of getting vengeance for the mistreatment of a Greek city: Alexander will make the Persians pay for what the Lydians did. This would nicely parallel the situation at Rhamnous, if we accept the argument that the cult was a response to the Greek victory over the eastern barbarians.

The plurality of the Smyrna Nemeseis remains puzzling. Schweitzer adduces the influence of neighbouring cults of dual divinities in Asia Minor that go back to the

106 Paus. 1.33.6: περά δ' ἐχον οὕτε τούτο τὸ ἀγαλμα Νεμέσεως οὕτε ἄλλο πεποίηται τῶν ἄρχατων, ἐπεὶ μηδὲ Σιμωναίως τὰ ἀγιώτατα ξώανα ἔχει περά.
107 Donohue 1988, 140-7.
108 For representations of the two Nemeseis, see Karanastassi, etc. 1992, nos. 3-29. On the Smyrnaian coins, see Klose 1987, 28-30.
second millenium; Laroche sees the doubling as due to syncretism rather than reduplication, a joining together of the Greek Nemesis and a Mysian or Phrygian Adrasteia. Farnell and Ehrenberg emphasise the Alexander story, seeing the two Nemeseis as reflecting the two Smyrnas, old and new. Price puts the Nemeseis in her category of duplications which strengthen the quality a deity represents. Shapiro resurrects a theory rejected even by Farnell, that the duality might have its source in Hesiod’s two versions of Nemesis, one apparently Bad (“an evil for mortal men”), the other definitely Good. The multiplying of personifications can of course also be seen in Hesiod’s two Erises in the Works and Days (11-26), and in artistic representations of Erôs and Nike. It could be argued that such multiplying suggests an allegorical understanding of the characters concerned: certainly Hesiod’s good and bad Strifes show a rationalising approach, and the plurality of Victories or Loves brings the abstract ideas they represent more readily to mind than a single, personal deity. Given the Smyrna statues’ attributes, which invite allegorical reading, Nemesis’ duality might reflect the idea of having to pay double when revenge is extracted. A story which has a number of points in common with the case of Smyrna is the Herodotean account of Alyattes (Gyges’ grandson) and the temple of Athene at Assesos: in the course of Lydian raids on Milesian territory the temple was accidently burnt down; on his return to Sardis, Alyattes fell ill, and did not recover until, on the advice of Delphi,

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109 Schweitzer 1931, 203.
110 Laroche 1949, 105; he rejects the idea of an archaic cult as entirely conjectural. A number of late sources give Nemesis the cult title Adrasteia, “the inescapable”, usually in connection with an altar or temple supposedly founded by the Argive Adrastos, beside the river Aisepos near Kyzikos, in an area called the “Plain of Adrasteia”: Strabo 1.13.1 and Harpokr. s.v. ‘Αδράστεια (both citing Antimachos); Steph. Byz. s.v. ‘Αδράστεια. The etymology is a little contrived, however, and Adrasteia first appears quite independently of Nemesis in the fifth century, her Athenian cult apparently sharing accounts with that of Bendis: Parker 1996, 195, 197. A later syncretism may be suggested by our accounts of Adrasteia’s foundation, but an independent Adrasteia can still be found in Hellenistic and Roman imperial literature, e.g. Kall. Hymn to Zeus 47, Paus. 10.37.8, Plut. Quaest. Conv. 657e. A communality of function for the two goddesses by the second century AD may be suggested by the odd detail that Lucian’s prostitutes all swear by Adrasteia, Alkiphron’s by Nemesis: Laroche 1949, 100-02. See Farnell (1896-1909, II 499-500) for references; Karanastassi (1992, 736) comments on Adrasteia’s absence from the plastic arts.
111 Farnell 1896-1909, II 493-4; Ehrenberg 1921, 35 n.8.
112 Price 1971 catalogues various types of dual and multiple deities; she notes the same phenomenon in modern Greek thought with duplicate St. Theodores (68).
114 Farnell (1896-1909, II 497): “the Nemeseis of Smyrna... appear not so much as divinities of real flesh and blood, but as forms of moral allegory, bearing in their hands the staff and bridle, the symbols of order and control".

117
he concluded peace with Miletos and built not one but two temples for Athene at Assesos. 115

That even the people of Smyrna were less than unanimous on the issue in the Roman imperial period may be indicated by dedications which vary in honouring singular and plural Nemeseis. “Hermes (made) this vow to Nemesis”116 but “Meliton dedicated these Nemeseis to Agathe Tyche and divine Dionysos Brēsis”. 117 Elsewhere in Asia Minor the same variety can be seen: a statue base from Halikarnassos declares “… Nikanoros set up these Nemeseis”,118 whilst at Mylasa, also in Karia, we hear of a priestess and cult statue of Nemesis singular:

Artemisia daughter of Pamphilos, priestess of Nemesis, with her husband Menippos son of Melas, priest of Peitho, dedicated this plinth and the statue and its accessories to Nemesis and to the people.119

The link with Peitho is interesting, but may be incidental, and we have no other evidence for Nemesis at Mylasa.120 Two references to building work at Smyrna mention the decoration of a stoa and some sort of addition to the sanctuary “of the supreme Nemeseis”.121 The former work is recorded as the gift of one Claudius Bassus, “agonothetes of the Nemeseis”, which would suggest that, as at Rhamnous, the Nemeseis of Smyrna were honoured with games.122

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115 Hdt 1.22; Alan Griffiths’ idea. Cf. also story of the death of the Spartan general Pausanias: having taken refuge in the temple of Athene Chalkioikos, he was besieged and starved to death by the Spartan ephors; this sacrilege brought a curse (unspecified) on the Spartans, until they obeyed Delphi’s instructions to “give back two bodies instead of one” to Athene, by dedicating two bronze statues of Pausanias (Thuc. 1.134).

116 Smyrna 131 (= CIG II 3164): Νεμέσει Κρήμας εύχην, no date, against the figure of a woman.

117 Smyrna 121 (= CIG II 3161): ἀγαθὴ τύχη τὰς Νεμέσεις Μελίτον ἀνέθηκε θεῷ Βρῆσει Διονύσῳ, probably imperial.

118 Halikarnassos 77 (= CIG II 2662): Ἰάσων Νικάνορος τὰς Νεμέσεις ἀνέθηκε (Roman).

119 Inscribed on a fragment of architrave; Mylasa 146 (BCH 5, 1881, 39): Ἀρσενείσια Παμφίλου, ἱέρτα Νεμέσεως, μετὰ κυρίου τοῦ ἄνδρος/ Μενίππου τοῦ Μέλανος, ἱερέως Πειτοῦ, ἀνέθηκεν τὸ τε βῆμα/ καὶ τὸ ἁγάλμα καὶ τὰ σύν αὐτῷ Νεμέσει καὶ τὸ δῆμῳ.

120 No indication of date given. A curse in an inscription found near the river Asopos at Phlius in the Argolid specifically describes Nemesis as ἀπειθής: “The avenging justice of inexorable Nemesis hangs over you even though you have fled” (δικαία δὲ ἐπικρέμαται σοί/ τιμωρός ἀπέλθοντι περ/ ἀπειθής Νεμέσεσθεσος, IG IV 444 = SIG3 1176, no date given).

121 Smyrna 59.2-5 (= CIG II 3163): Παπίνιος ὁ φιλόσοφος ἐγκαταστάσας τὸ κυρίον Σαράπιδος/ παρὰ ταῖς Νεμέσεις, εὐδήμονος αὐξήσας τὸ Νεμέσεον, τὸν παρατηθὲντ <α> οἴκον ταῖς Νεμέσεσιν ἀνέτρεφας, ὡς/ εἶναι ἐν ἱερῷ τῶν κυρίων Νεμέσεων τὸ ἄλσος, AD 211/12.

122 Smyrna 54.4-6 (=CIG II 3148): Κλεούδιος Βάσσιος ἀγαπώντης/ Νεμέσεων στρώσας τὴν βάσιν/ Ἀκιθίνην. Φοβοῦσκος ἔργον ποιήσας, AD 124/138. Cf. Halikarnassos 78 (= CIG II 2663), a dedication recording a gladiator’s personal devotion to the two goddesses: Σέφρανος <ζ> ῥητιάρις/ ν(ικῶν) ἡ στε(φάνος) ἡ πρότος/ πάλος εὐχαριστών/ κυρίας Νεμέσες/ εἰς εὐχήν
IC Onography of Nemesis

If we can take the Roman coin representations as more or less faithful reflections of the Smyrna cult statues, Nemesis has undergone a considerable change in iconography since her first appearance at Rhamnous. When and how this occurred is impossible to establish from the artistic record alone: after Agorakritos’ statue and the Berlin amphoriskos we have no depictions of Nemesis until the first century AD. An early third century BC date for the Smyrna statues would accord with Pausanias’ foundation myth, however, and Nemesis makes a number of appearances in Hellenistic literature.123 It is the Smyrna type, rather than the Rhamnousian Nemesis, which seems to have had most influence on the images, both artistic and literary, which proliferate in the Roman period.124 Nemesis appears both singly and as a pair, sometimes with wings, occasionally accompanied by sphinxes or griffons, always carrying at least one of a selection of attributes: bridle, measuring rod, rudder, wheel and scales. The idea of keeping within limits which was implicit as early as the Hesiod Works and Days passage is made explicit with the Smyrna Nemeseis’ symbolic accoutrements. An anonymous epigram “On a statue of Nemesis” explains the cubit-rule and bridle: we must do nothing beyond measure nor be unbridled in our speech.125 The gesture made by the Nemeseis, raising a fold of their cloaks, could be one of modesty, reminiscent of Nemesis’ association with Aidōs,126 but it is more interestingly explained as apotropaic, spitting into the kolpos to avert envy, a gesture apparently still used against the Evil Eye in modern Greece:

What a good goddess is Nemesis, Alexis, because of whom we spit into our cloak, dreading her as she follows behind us. You did not see her pursuing you, but thought you would have your jealous beauty for ever. Now it has perished utterly; the thrice-angry deity has come, and even we your servants now pass you by.127

123 Suggested by Schweitzer 1931, 204. See e.g. Kallimachos’ version of the Erysichthon story: Hymn to Demeter, 6.56. Kershaw 1986, ch.4, provides a useful survey of literary references.
124 Karanastassi, etc., 1992 have 309 catalogue entries for Nemesis, of which all but 4 refer to Roman imperial period representations. See 735-6 on Nemesis’ characteristics and attributes.
126 It is also reminiscent of the anakypteria, unveiling of the bride, which seems to be common to a number of personifications: see below pp.125 on Peitho and Hygieia (p.146).
Further attributes are all borrowed from other personifications, again emphasising associations which have been present from the start. The rudder and wheel properly belong to Tyche/Fortuna — the wheel of fortune, the rudder for steering us through the stormy seas of life — while the scales are those of Justice, Dike/Iustitia. On a third century AD votive relief from Thessaloniki Nemesis carries both a wheel and a pair of scales as she tramples a youth, letting us know that a just fate has overcome him by her agency (FIG. 22). As for her wings, Pausanias has the rather unlikely-sounding explanation that they are borrowed from Erôs: no ancient images of Nemesis have wings, but “later artists, who want the goddess to appear because someone is love, picture Nemesis with wings as they picture Love”. Nemesis does indeed appear in an erotic context in a few poems of the Anthology, but other considerations are probably more likely to have influenced her iconography.

The wings may just generally imply that she will catch up with you however fast you run, or they may be borrowed from Nikê, since, as a sixth-century version of the Persian hybris epigram points out, one side’s Victory is another’s Nemesis: “I am still a Victory for the children of Erechtheus, a Nemesis for the Assyrians”. Such an association with Victory might explain the apparent prevalence of cults of Nemesis in connection with amphitheatres, theatres and games in the imperial period, although the

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128 Is it coincidental that Kallimachos’ Agamemnon dedicated the rudder of his ship to Artemis at Aulis (Hymn 3, 228-32, cf. n.22)?

129 Marble votive relief, 3rd century AD, Vienna, Kunsth. Mus. I 808 (Depot); with dedication to Zeus Hypsistos (Karanastassi, etc., 1992, no.163*). Schweitzer’s identification of the figures on a third-century AD relief from Brindisi, perpetuated by Loeb, as Nemesis standing victorious on the prostrate Hybris is quite unsupported by epigraphic evidence or convincing iconographic argument: Brindisi, Mus. Prov.; Loeb 1990, no.1*.

130 Paus. 1.33.6. Note Pausanias’ concern to point out that no statue “made by the ancients” had wings, i.e. this is a later development.

131 Nemesis can bring down the arrogance of a stubborn beloved (AP 12.33), punish incautious denigration of a boy’s beauty (12.140-229), or even give Erôs himself a dose of his own medicine (16.251).

132 Theaitetos Scholastikos, AP 16.221.10: εἰμὶ δὲ καὶ νῦν Νίκη ἔρεχθειδας, Ἀσσυρίως Νέμεσις. Cf. Mesomedes I.17, below. According to Pausanias' description, the Rhamnous statue’s stepphanos was adorned with figures of Nike. A magnificent picture of Nemesis, and an explanation of her attributes, is given by Nonnos in his Dionysiaka (48.378-88; fifth cent. AD). Infuriated by Aura’s vaunting of her superior physical charms and chastity, Artemis seeks Nemesis’ help, asking that her rival be turned to stone or driven mad (in the event she is made to succumb to Dionysos’ passion): Nemesis’ wheel signifies that “she rolls all the proud from on high to the ground with the avenging wheel of justice”; she is winged and accompanied by a griffon, which indicates that she “traverses the four quarters of the world”; with her bit she bridles “high-crested men”; the haughty she whips like a top.
“fate” aspect might also be appropriate to such competitions, or the idea that the successful athlete should not get above himself.133

CONCLUSION

The Nemesis of our later artistic representations, hung about with attributes and none-too-subtle symbolism, seems a long way from the stately, restrained figure of Rhamnous, who in turn is not obviously related to the shape-changing bit-part player in the Trojan myth. But it would clearly be less than accurate to see a straightforward linear development from personal to abstract, since some of Nemesis' earliest appearances invite an allegorical reading, while the myth of her rape is being related long after she has acquired her armoury of attributes. Essentially, all the elements which inform her later iconography — her associations with fate, justice and modesty — are present from her earliest appearances in Hesiod and the Kypria. The idea that Nemesis was originally some sort of “nature deity” is quite unsupported by the literary and material record; any such existence would have to pre-date the earliest usage of the abstract noun, which takes us back into the murky realms of pre-Homeric religious thought. As for the relationship between nemesis and hybris, even if more has been made of a link between the abstract concepts than is warranted by our ancient texts, the personified Nemesis of Rhamnous is certainly characterised as punisher of the Persians' hybris, whether their crime be defined as arrogance or a more specific aggression against Athens' territory and pride. The Nemeseis of Smyrna and their descendants, with their bridle and measuring rod, seem to be primarily guardians of proper limits and relationships; hybris might well come into the category of transgressive behaviour they keep in check.134

Rather than a “mythical” Nemesis having become a “logical” one, I would submit that her character has remained remarkably constant, the apparent differences being largely a matter of presentation, according to the fashion of the times. The

133 See Papastopolou 1989, 368 and nn. 47-51 for references; see 371-8, figs. 16-17 on an early second century AD votive relief from Patras, in which Nemesis not only has wings and a wheel, but is most unusually wearing a cuirass. A pair of statues of the Smyrna-type Nemeseis turn even up at Olympia in the second century AD, standing either side of the east end of the covered way into the stadium. Both have a measuring rod in their left hand, and in their right hand a rudder resting on a wheel: Olympia Museum, Gallery 8, no. 85.

explicitly allegorical attributes of the Smyrna Nemeseis would have been unthinkable for a fifth-century representation, while no self-respecting personification of the Hellenistic period could do without. Having begun this chapter with one late hymn which emphasises Nemesis' omniscience and justice, I shall conclude with another, written under Hadrian, which goes even further in combining the traditional form with a thoroughly allegorised Nemesis. Mesomedes' *Hymn to Nemesis* manages to include every single one of the goddess' attributes and associations I have touched upon:

Winged Nemesis, balance of life,
dark-eyed goddess, daughter of Justice,
you who hold in check the vain neighing
of mortals with adamantine bit;\(^{135}\)
hating the deadly *hybris* of mortals,
you drive out black envy;
beneath your wheel, ever-moving, leaving no track,
turns the grim fortune of mortals;
stealthily you walk close at hand,
you make the proud neck to bend;
ever you measure life under your cubit-rule,
ever you frown beneath your veil,
holding fast the scales in your hands;
be gracious blessed judge,
winged Nemesis, balance of life.

We sing of goddess Nemesis the immortal,
a long-winged mighty Victory,
and of her coadjutor, infallible Justice;
indignant at the pride of mortals,
you bring them down to Tartaros.\(^{136}\)

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\(^{135}\) Cf. Fisher (1992, 119-21) on the application of the term *hybris* to horses and other animals.

\(^{136}\) Νέμεσι πτερόεσσα, βίου ῥωπά, κυνακότοι θεά, θύγατερ Δίκαιος/ ἀ κούφο φρονάγματα
θνατῶν/ ἐπέχεις ἀδάμαντι χαλίνῳ/ ἐχθοῦσα δ’ ἄφριν ὀλοκλήρων βροτῶν/ μέλανα φθόνον ἐκτὸς
ἐλεόνεις/ ὑπὸ σὸν τροχὸν ἀστατὸν ἀστιβῃ/ χαροπᾶ μερόπων στρέφεται τύχα/ λήθουσα δὲ
πάρ πόδα βαίνεις/ γαυροῦμενοι αὐγέχα κλίνεις/ ὑπὸ πῆχυν ἂεὶ βιοτὸν μετρεῖς/ νευεις δ’
ὑπὸ κόλπον ὄφρον ἂεὶ/ ζυγὸν μετὰ χείρα κρατοῦσα/ ἱλαθὶ μάκαρα δικασπόλε/ Νέμεσι
πτερόεσσα, βίου ῥωπά/ Νέμεσιν θεον ἀδομεν ἀρθίταιν, Νικὴν ταυναύτιπτον ὑμβρίμαν/
νημερέω καὶ πάρεδρον Δίκαιος/ ὃ τὸν μεγαλανόριαν βροτῶν/ νεμεσώσα φέρεις κατὰ
Chapter 4

PEITHO: SEX AND RHETORIC

Peitho has no other temple but reason.

Aristophanes Frogs 1391

The cults of Themis and Nemesis, it would seem then, have early histories confined to particular localities, whence they are disseminated quite possibly via the influence of epic. We come now to our first example of a personification who has a consistent association with a particular Olympian deity, allowing us to examine the epithet theory more fully than proved possible in the case of Themis. Peitho, Persuasion, again has some mythological role, though not as dramatic as that of Nemesis nor as well documented as that of Themis. She is assistant to Aphrodite in Hesiod’s account of the creation of Pandora (see below), and appears in the same capacity in a number of visual narratives, notably at the birth of Aphrodite and in the seduction of Helen. Unlike Themis and Nemesis, Peitho is rarely found independently in cult, being almost always linked with Aphrodite, and the closeness of this association is demonstrated by a number of occurrences of Peitho as a cult title of Aphrodite. Both Peitho the goddess and peitho the concept have, of course, been much studied, but there is more to be said. In particular, a fuller discussion is needed of the cult evidence, and not just the Athenian cult, and of the evidence for Peitho’s role in marriage. Like Aristophanes’ Euripides, modern commentators examining the workings of Peitho often associate both the abstract peitho and its personification with logos, combining the two to give a definition of peitho as the principle of winning over

1 Versions of this chapter have been delivered as papers at the Classical Association AGM in St. Andrews, April 1995, and the University of Wales Classics Colloquium at Gregynog, December 1995. Thanks are due to both audiences, especially to Sue Blundell and Richard Seaford, for their comments. I present a synopsis of the evidence for Peitho’s involvement in the wedding elsewhere, in a discussion of Plutarch and the “tradition of persuasion” (Stafford 1999a).


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others to do what you want by means of rational argument. While Peitho does undeniably have a rhetorical side, however, she is equally active in the erotic sphere, an aspect which is especially apparent in evidence for her cult and in her representations in the visual arts. A closer look at these may balance the emphasis on Peitho’s rhetorical aspect almost inevitably given by studies of literary peitho.

Peitho’s very first appearance in literature establishes her association with Aphrodite, and her special sphere of influence, with its inherent danger. In Hesiod’s *Works and Days* version of the Prometheus story, Zeus instructs Hephaistos to make Pandora as a punishment for man; Athene is to teach her weaving, Hermes to give her “lies and crafty words and a deceitful nature” (77-8), and Aphrodite to endow her with “grace and cruel longing” (65-6). Aphrodite delegates her task to appropriate assistants:

> And the divine Graces and lady Persuasion put golden necklaces around her neck, and the rich-haired Seasons garlanded her with spring flowers.

Persuasion’s “gift” is not one of eloquence, but of sexual attractiveness, expressed in visual terms. Extravagant adornment is always regarded with suspicion in Greek literature, but golden necklaces may particularly convey the threatening aspect of woman’s seductiveness, given the negative connotations attached to such jewellery in stories like the bribing of Eriphyle. The seductive properties of these ὤμοι χρυσείοι are made explicit by the scholiast — “because the adorned woman quickly persuades the man/her husband to intercourse” — who refers to Peitho as one of the Charites, along with Aglaia and Euphrosyne. This identification is also made by the Hellenistic elegiac poet Hermesianax, quoted by Pausanias in the course of a discussion of the Graces prompted by his visit to Orchomenos, their major cult site; the Boiotians themselves, though do not seem to have been concerned to give their three Charites

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4 See e.g. Worthington ed.1994 for a collection of recent essays on rhetorical persuasion.
5 An interesting exception is Gross 1985, a study of the development of rhetorical traditions in amatory literature; see especially 32-68 on “the rhetoric of seduction”. Pirenne-Delforge’s study of the cult evidence likewise leads her to emphasise Peitho’s erotic/political duality and her role in marriage (1991).
6 Peitho also appears at *Theog.* 349, but only as a name in a long list of daughters of Okeanos and Tethys.
7 Ἐσ. Ὡρ. 73-5: ἀμφὶ δὲ οἱ Χάριτες τε θεαι καὶ πότνια Πειθώ/ ὄρμους χρυσείοις ἔθεσαν χροὶ/ ἀμφὶ δὲ τὴν γη/ Ὡραι καλλίκοιοι στέφων ἔθεσιν εἰσινοίσιν.
individual names. The association of Peitho with the Charites and Hermes also appears in evidence for her cult on Paros, Thasos and Lesbos, and Plutarch offers an explanation which I shall consider below, in connection with Peitho’s role in marriage. Peitho’s association with Aphrodite, and her rather ambiguous character, will be a recurrent theme throughout this chapter.

CULTS OF PEITHO: ISLANDS AND ASIA MINOR

Rubensohn states that the cult of Peitho on Paros is the oldest for which we have evidence. The only evidence for Peitho’s presence here is a Hellenistic inscription associating her with the Charites, but inscriptions from the Parian colony Thasos may indicate a cult there from the late fifth century. Rubensohn’s argument is, simply, that the cult must have been exported to Thasos with the Parian settlers, c. 710-680 BC, so must already have been established on Paros by the seventh century. The principle that a cult common to mother-city and colony should predate the colonisation seems reasonable, but far from conclusive. Surely contact between the two continues, allowing for cultural as well as economic exchange. In this case, both islands were active traders: Thasos was made rich by its gold mines, developed a flourishing export of wine under Macedonian control, and under the Roman empire enjoyed an international reputation for its marble and oil; Paros was famous for its fine marble throughout antiquity, and exported sculptors such as Agorakritos. One would expect religious development to be characteristic of such outward-looking communities, and

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8 Paus. 9.35.5 (= Hermesianax fr.11 P): Ἐρμησίσιάνακτι δὲ τῷ τὰ ἐλεγέα γράφοντι τοσόνδε οὐ κατὰ τὴν τῶν πρῶτον δόξαν ἐςτὶν αὐτῷ πεποιημένον, ὡς ἡ Πειθώ Χαρίτων εἴη καὶ αὐτή μία. On the Charites at Orchomenos, see Schachter 1986-94, l.140-44.

9 For literary association of Peitho with the Charites, cf. Ibykos fr. 288 Page. Peitho and a singular Charis appear in Pindar’s poem in praise of Theoxenos of Tenedos: ἐν δ’ ἀρχῃ καὶ Τενέδου/ Πειθώ τ’ ἔναι/ καὶ Χάρις/ οἶδ᾽ Ἁγησίλα (fr. 123.13-15 M). Shapiro (1993, 187) takes this as implying “that Peitho and Charis were divinities on the island of Tenedos”, but surely this is optimistic. If anything about a real cult can be deduced from the literary compliment, the opposite interpretation would make just as much sense: even in Tenedos (that island bereft of the goddesses of attraction) seductive charm and grace can be found in Theoxenos.

10 Rubensohn 1949, col. 1845-6: “Es ist der älteste nachweisbare Kult der Göttin”.

11 Thasian stamped amphoras found e.g. in the Athenian Agora attest the wine trade from the fifth century (Grace 1946). On the evidence for trade provided by amphoras, both local and imported, dating from the fifth to the first centuries BC, from excavations at the port of Thasos, see Grandjean 1992. On pottery production in the late archaic period at the site of Phari on the south-west coast of Thasos, see Blondé et al. 1992.

12 On Paros’ external relations in the sixth century, see Berranger 1992, 283-332, especially 294-306 on the marble, wine and boat-building trades.
special interaction between the colony and its founder would not be surprising. Both Rubensohn’s argument and my own are from probability, admittedly, but against his case for an archaic cult of Peitho is the complete lack of evidence from anywhere else, despite her relative visibility from the fifth century on.

It will perhaps be helpful to look at the two islands separately. For the Parian cult our only information is the first century BC inscription on a white marble table, now in the island’s museum: “Thrasyxenos son of Thrason, to Peitho and the Charites”. Having once established this association between Peitho and the Charites, Rubensohn treats them as a unit.

So for the antiquity of the cult he adduces the Apollodoran Bibliothèque’s aetiology for the Parians’ style of sacrifice to the Charites:

Minos was sacrificing to the Charites on Paros when he heard the news of his son’s death; he ripped the wreath from his head and stopped the music, but none the less completed the sacrifice. Because of this, to this day on Paros they sacrifice to the Charites without pipes and wreaths.

Certainly the attribution of the custom’s inception to Minos would indicate that the ritual was seen as “ancient”, but from the Bibliothèque’s perspective this may only mean fifth century. Rubensohn seems untroubled about the absence of any mention of Peitho.

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13 Pouilloux (1954, 336-9) discusses the problem of the relationship between the cults of the two islands. He asks whether it is legitimate to imagine “une telle diversité de dieux” being imported all at once by the first settlers; he does cite the cult of the Charites and Peitho as a possible example of such a primary export, but with caution. Berranger considers the cults of Paros and Thasos in assessing relations between the two islands (1992, 184-203); he concludes that the Charites came with the Parian colonists to Thasos, but “il n’est pas aussi sûr que Peithô soit venue avec elles” (195-8).

14 IG XII suppl. 206: Θρασύξηνος Θράσωνος/ Πειθοί και Χάρισιν. The same Thrasyxenos appears in a list of people who ἐπέδωκαν τῷ δήμῳ εἰς τὴν συνομπρίαν (IG XII 5.135.5), and also made dedications to Aphrodite Timouche (IG XII 5.222) and Agathe Tyche (IG XII 5.249); Peek 1934, 60.

15 Rubensohn 1949, 184-5-6. Peek likewise fails to note any possible distinction between the two (1934, 60).

16 Bibl. 3.15.7: Μίνως δὲ, ὁγγελθέντος αὐτῷ τοῦ θεανάτου, θύας ἐν Πάρῳ ταῖς Χάρισι, τὸν μὲν στέφανον ἀπὸ τῆς κεφαλῆς ἔρριψε καὶ τὸν αὐλόν κατέσχε, τὴν δὲ θυσίαν οὐδὲν ἦτον ἐπέτέλεσαν ὅθεν ἐτι καὶ δὴδοχι χορὶς αὐλόν καὶ στεφάνων ἐν Πάρῳ θοουσι ταῖς Χάρισι. Cf. Kallimachos Aitia I frs. 3-6 Pf.

17 The last piece of “evidence” Rubensohn adduces for the Parian Peitho is the inscription Prott-Ziehen II 119, with Furtwängler-Reichhold pl. 78.2 as comparandum. The latter is a squat lekythos in the manner of the Meidias Painter, which depicts Aphrodite and her retinue, with Peitho filling a kanoun (below n.147). The former not only has Peitho as an epithet of Aphrodite, rather than as a separate deity, but also comes from Lesbos, not Paros (below p.128). Quite how a late fifth century Athenian vase and a Hellenistic Lesbian law relating to Aphrodite Peitho constitute evidence for “an ancient cult of Peitho” on Paros is not immediately obvious.
For Thasos we have three inscriptions to consider. A relief of c.470 BC, now in the Louvre, depicts Hermes and the Charites, with the inscription: “For the Charites it is not the custom (to sacrifice) either a goat or a pig”. Exactly the same proscription is made for sacrifices to Peitho in a second century BC inscription from the Prytaneion. Lastly, a late fifth century marble stele from Thasos bears the inscription “sanctuary of Peitho”. The two sacrifice regulations are interesting, since goats and pigs are common sacrificial victims, at the more modest end of the economic scale, so their prohibition would have serious practical consequences. Pigs are specifically prohibited for Aphrodite in Pausanias’ account of her cult at Sikyon, although any other victims are allowed, and pigs, along with birds, are proscribed as offerings for Aphrodite Peitho and Hermes on Lesbos (below). The prohibition of birds is especially puzzling, since Aphrodite’s most commonly attested victims are doves. In the absence of further information, however, the significance of the Thasian regulations remains something of a mystery. The repetition between the two inscriptions certainly allows us to argue for strong links between the cults of the Charites and of Peitho at the time of the later inscription, but the assumption of Peitho’s presence before the second century BC is unfounded. If anything, the existence of the later inscription might indicate that Peitho’s cult had only just been assimilated to that of the Charites, the association marked by application of the sacrificial formula established for the older cult to the new arrival.

18 IG XII 8.358 b (= SEG II 506, Prott-Ziehen II 109; Louvre MA 696.9800617): Χάρης αὐτήν αὐτὰρ οὐ θέμες οὔνδε χοίρον. The female figure behind Hermes has sometimes been identified as Peitho (e.g. by Hamdorf 1964, no.479), but with little security (Icard-Gianolio 1994, no.55; Shapiro 1993, 187, with nn.419-21).
19 IG XII suppl. 394: Πειθόι αὐτὰρ οὔνδε χοίρον οὖ θείοις. Pouilloux (1954, 333) thinks it likely that this civic cult of Peitho is earlier than the second century BC, but his argument is hardly compelling: “qui plus qu’elle avait qualité pour concilier les divergences?”
20 IG XII 8.360: Πειθός Ιερὸν. Published Reinach, BCH 6 (1882) 43.
21 See Burkert 1985a, 13, 65, and 55, with nn.1-4 for references, on choice of sacrificial victims for particular deities. Pigs are especially associated with Demeter, e.g. having a purifying “scapegoat role” in the Eleusinian Mysteries. Goats are most often mentioned in connection with Artemis and Apollo, e.g. Spartan sacrifice to Artemis Agrotera before battle (ibid. 60, n.37), and the famous Horn Altar of Artemis on Delos was made of goat horns, presumably collected from sacrifices (ibid. 92).
22 Sikyon: Paus. 2.10.4-6.
23 See Pirenne-Delforge 1994 on offerings to Aphrodite: in general, 375-80; on animal victims (including goats), 384-8; on the prohibition of pigs, 388-93. She links the Thasian regulations with Aphrodite, seeing Peitho and the Charites as the goddess’ “suivantes habituelles” (392).
This leaves us with the succinct Πειθοῦς ιερόν inscription as our only real evidence for a pre-Hellenistic cult on Thasos. Such a stele could plausibly have been a boundary-marker for a “sanctuary of Peitho”, although Themis and Nemesis are the only other personifications who we know to have acquired sufficient stature to warrant an entire sanctuary in the fifth century, and elsewhere, as we shall see, Peitho generally shares a precinct with Aphrodite. Our only other attestation of a Πειθοῦς ιερόν is at Sikyon, and there Pausanias’ description leaves room for doubt as to what exactly is meant (below). Without more information on this inscription’s context, however, little more can be established than that worship of Peitho was not unknown on Thasos in the late fifth century, and by the second century BC her cult was associated with that of the Charites. On Paros Peitho’s cult cannot reliably be dated before the first century BC.

The Lesbos inscription is on a marble stele found at Mytilene, and is one of three attestations we have of Peitho as an epithet of Aphrodite:

The god. Agathe Tyche. Whoever wishes to sacrifice on the altar of Aphrodite Peitho and of Hermes, let him sacrifice...

Here again we have the association of Aphrodite/Peitho with Hermes, recalling the Hesiod passage and the Parian and Thasian cults. The inscription is interesting for its explicit instructions, giving a rare insight into the practical details of a particular cult’s practice. The Thasian Peitho was not to receive goats or pigs; Mytilene’s Aphrodite Peitho may be given any animal except pigs and birds. Although Peitho here is an epithet of Aphrodite, she is an independent deity in a fragment of Lesbos’ most famous poet: “Sappho says that Persuasion is daughter of Aphrodite”. Aischylos follows this genealogy in the Suppliants, where the chorus sing of “Desire and bewitching

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26 If I am right in arguing for an Athenian cult of Peitho being established by the same period (below), this could have been influential. For Athenian presence on Thasos at about the right time we have Thucydides’ account of the relief force he himself led from the island, which arrived too late to break Brasidas’ siege of Amphipolis in 424 BC (Thuc. 4.104-6).
27 Pirenne-Delforge includes the Parian and Thasian inscriptions in her discussion of the association of Aphrodite’s cult with magistrates (1994, 405-6) and with civil harmony in general (446-50). Mention of an Aphrodite Pandemos in a Parian inscription of the third century BC (IG XII 5.221) might again suggest a link with the Athenian cult of Peitho (448 n.253).
Persuasion, to whom nothing is denied" in their mother’s train, but elsewhere a family relationship is not specified. For a straightforward version of the epithet theory to work here, we would expect a sequential development: Persuasion is seen as an aspect of Aphrodite’s influence, so the latter is worshipped as Aphrodite Peitho; the relationship between the goddess and the particular sphere of her influence being invoked receives poetic expression as that between mother and daughter, on the archaic genealogical principle; Persuasion comes to be seen as a separate, anthropomorphic deity in her own right. Unfortunately, we have no evidence for the last step in the sequence on Lesbos, Peitho appearing as a cult epithet of Aphrodite long after Sappho’s “liberation” of her into poetic independence. The linear development model obviously cannot be applied here, the scant evidence pointing rather to a more fluid relationship between goddess and aspect.

We may have an actual representation of Aphrodite Peitho on a fourth or early third century stele from Knidos in Karia, well known for its cult of Aphrodite. The stele, now in a school at Resadiye, has two female figures in high relief, and to the left of the left figure’s head is the dedication: “... to Aphrodite Peitho”; the first line was probably the dedicatory’s name. Unfortunately the figures are damaged, but both are dressed in Ionic chiton, the figure to the left raising her arm, the one to the right drawing her himation over her shoulder. They might be Aphrodite and Peitho, or Aphrodite Peitho and the dedicatory, or simply two worshippers; whatever the interpretation, Peitho is here, as at Mytilene, being worshipped as an aspect of the Olympian goddess. Also in Karia we hear of a priest of Peitho at Mylasa, “Menippos son of Melas”, married to a priestess of Nemesis.

CULTS OF PEITHO: MAINLAND GREECE

Our only epigraphic evidence for an Aphrodite Peitho on mainland Greece is an inscription from Pharsalos in Thessaly: “a torch for Aphrodite Peitho”. The use of the Homeric δάφων, rather than λαμπάς, for torch could indicate an archaic date, but

30 Aisch. Suppl. 1038-40: μετάκοινοι δὲ φίλα ματρὶ πάρεισιν/ Πόθος & τ’ οὐδὲν ἄπαρνον/ τελέθει θελκτορι Πειθοί.
31 SEG 12.423: Ἀφροδίται/ Πειθοί. See Bean and Cook 1952, esp. 185-201, pl. 40c, for description and photograph.
33 IG IX 2.236: δάφων τάξαροβιτται τα τ Πειθοήφι.
the editor of IG IX 2.236 does not commit himself, having been unable to trace the actual inscription; Shapiro refers to this as "fifth century" without comment, as does Icard-Gianolio. Reference to a torch might suggest a wedding context, a context in which Peitho seems to have played a role in Classical Athens; we might imagine a private dedication of a torch used in a wedding to Aphrodite Peitho after the ceremony, in the same way as wedding vases were dedicated to Nymphe after the event in Athens. Alternatively, the torch may have more local significance as an attribute of Enodia/Hekate, perhaps suggesting that the dedication was made on the occasion of the death of an unmarried girl.

A votive statue of Peitho is attested for Olynthian territory in Chalkidike by a second or early first century BC inscription on a statue base:

Dionysios son of Kallistratos, Apollodoros son of Apollodoros, Herakleides son of Seranbylios, as agoranomoi, to Peitho.

The letter forms date this to the second or even early first century BC, long after the destruction of Olynthos by Philip in 328 BC, but the area continued to be called Oynthia and several Hellenistic Olynthians are known. The inscription is of interest in giving the number of agoranomoi as three, compared to Athens' five (plus five for the Peiraeus). The Athenian agoranomoi supervised markets and settled disputes, seeing that proper weights and measures were used, and they sometimes fixed the price of grain and bread. To explain why the Olynthian agoranomoi should set up a dedication to Peitho, Robinson reasonably suggests that they may also have fixed the salaries of hetairai, and this is supported by an entry in the Suda which records just such a function for officials of the same name. Similarly, Aristotle assigns to the astynomoi of Athens and the Peiraeus the task of "overseeing the flute-girls and harp-

35 Oakley and Sinos 1993, 42, 43. See below on Peitho and the wedding, and on Aphrodite and Nymphe.
36 On the iconography of Thessalian Enodia/Hekate, see Chrysostomou 1994; see above p.72. On the torch and conflation of wedding and death imagery, see Jenkins 1983.
37 Robinson 1933 (photo fig. 2): Διονύσιος Καλλιστράτης, Απόλλωνας Απόλλωνας, Ηρακλέης ίππηθιλίου, ἀγορανομοί, μακρῆς Πείτιος.
38 See Demosthenes Phil. 3.117 on the thoroughness of the destruction.
39 Aristotle, Ath. Pol. 51.1
40 Suda s.v. Διάγραμμα: τὸ μήτραμα, διάγραμμα γάρ οἱ ἀγοράνομοι, δόν ἐδεί λαμβάνειν τὴν ἐκάστην ἑκάστην. Cf. BCH 4 (1880) 400 for agoranomoi making a dedication to Aphrodite. See Buxton 1982, 32 with nn.9-12.
girls and lyre-girls so that they might not be paid more than two drachmas". Perhaps the Olynthian agoranomoi were in the habit of taking a cut of the prostitutes' earnings, as an official tax or otherwise, and so felt it appropriate to make a dedication to one of the prostitutes' patron deities in recognition of their profits; that they should choose Peitho rather than the more obvious Aphrodite might reflect local circumstances of the cult, though we have insufficient information to do more than hazard a guess.

In the Peloponnese Peitho's rhetorical side is more apparent than it has been so far, and she seems generally to be associated with Artemis rather than Aphrodite. Pausanias explains the worship of Peitho at Sikyon by a rather obscure story of how Apollo and Artemis were "persuaded" to return to the city:

As you enter the market-place there is a sanctuary of Peitho, which has no statue either. They came to worship Peitho according to the following story. After killing the Python, Apollo and Artemis came to Aigialeia for purification. Terror came upon the people in the place even now called Fear; the deities turned to Karmanor, who was in Crete, but a plague gripped the people in Aigialeia; the seers told them to propitiate Apollo and Artemis. So they sent seven boys and as many girls to the river Sythas as suppliants; they say that the gods were persuaded by these to come into the akropolis of the time, and the place where they first arrived is the sanctuary of Peitho. Something similar is done even to this day: the children go to the Sythas on the feast of Apollo, they say, bring the gods into the sanctuary of Peitho, then bring them back again to the temple of Apollo. The temple is in the modern market-place...

Here again we apparently have a ierón of Peitho, and Pausanias does usually use the word to mean "sanctuary". The "either" refers to the previous stop on Pausanias' itinerary, a sanctuary of Artemis Limnaia, which also lacked a statue, though his informants did not know "whether it was taken somewhere else or how it came to be destroyed" (2.7.6); for Peitho's lack of a statue Pausanias does not hazard an explanation. The "modern" market-place is part of the new town built on the ruins of

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41 Aristotle Ath. Pol. 50.2.
43 Paus. 2.7.7-8: ἐς τὴν ἀγορᾶν ἐσπέλθοσαν Πειθόδος ἠστίν ιερὸν οὐδὲ τούτῳ ἠγάλλιμα ἔχων. Πειθόδο τοῦτον ἐπὶ λόγῳ τοῦτον κατέστησαν κατέστασα. Ἀπόλλων καὶ Αρτέμις ἀποκτείνασαν Πύθαινα παραγόντων ἐς τὴν Αἰγαλλίαν καθαρσίαν ἐνεκα. γενομένου δὲ σφυτί δειμματος ἔνθα καὶ νῦν Φοῖβον ἀνομάζουσι τὸ χωρίον, οἱ μὲν ἐς Κρήτην παρὰ Καρμάνωρα ἀπετράπτοντο, τοὺς δὲ ἀναφάντως ἐν τῇ Αἰγαλλίᾳ νόσος ἔπελαβε καὶ σφυτὶ ἔκέλευσαν οἱ μάντεις Ἀπόλλωνα ἔλασσασαν καὶ Ἀρτέμιν. οἱ δὲ παῖδις ἐπάθαν καὶ ίεσα παρθένως ἐπί τοῦ Σύθαν ποιμανὸν ἀποστέλλουσιν ἰκετεύοντας ὑπὸ τούτων δὲ πεισθέντας τοὺς θεοὺς φασίν ἐς τὴν τότε ἀκρόπολιν ἐλθέντες, καὶ ὁ τότος ἔθνι τὸ ἀρχικὸν Πειθόδος ἠστίν ιερὸν. τοῦτος δὲ ἐκοικάτω καὶ νῦν ἐπὶ ποιεῖται καὶ γὰρ ἐπὶ τὸν Σύθαν ἱεσιν ἐπὶ παῖδες τῇ ἐκρή τοῦ Ἀπόλλωνος καὶ ἀγαγόντες δὴ τοὺς θεοὺς ἐς τῇ τῆς Πειθώδος ιερὸν αὐδίς ἀπάγειν ἐς τὸν ναὸν φασί τοῦ Ἀπόλλωνος. οἱ δὲ ναὸς ἐστὶ μὲν ἐν τῇ νῦν ἁγορᾷ...
the old akropolis, which was razed by Demetrios Poliorketes in 303 BC. Pausanias makes indirect reference to the destruction when he comments that the temple of Apollo he saw was not the original, which had been burnt down (2.7.7); although he does not specify, presumably the sanctuary of Peitho he saw was also a post-303 construction.44

The story, however, is obviously supposed to explain a ritual more ancient than the building, set in the heroic past when gods still walked the earth and Sikyon was still called Aigialeia.45 The main elements of the story are familiar: a journey for purification after a killing; a plague caused by failure to carry out the purification; advice from seers leading to propitiation; the sanctity of the place of first arrival. But many of the details are obscure. Artemis is not usually involved in the slaying of the Python. There is no obvious reason for Sikyon to be chosen as the place of the purification. Although Phobos as a personification appears in archaic literature and art, and there is some evidence of a cult from the mid-fifth century, I know of no analogies for “a place called Fear”.46 Karmanor appears again in Pausanias as father of Chrysothemis of Crete, the legendary first winner of a prize for singing at Delphi; he is “said to have purified Apollo”, but no further information is offered (10.7.2). Frazer suggests the Cretan connection can be explained by the fact that Aigialeia is the name of an island midway between Crete and Kythera, as well as the old name for Sikyon; the island Aigialeia could conceivably be a stopping-off point on the way to Crete from the Peloponnese.47 The plague is presumably visited upon the people of Aigialeia because they were too afraid to carry out the required purification for Artemis and Apollo; the gods’ return, and fulfilling of the postponed ritual, will cause the plague to be lifted. But by whom? Usually it is Apollo who inflicts plagues, in response to some mortal wrongdoing, and who lifts them when propitiated. Nor is it clear why the parents...

44 See Pirenne-Delforge (1994, 129-31) on the incoherence of Pausanias’ account of the old and the new Sikyon, and (129-52) on Aphrodite’s cult at Sikyon; she argues for the cult being associated with the marriage of young girls (141-4), the μθλον held by the cult statue being especially connected to the wedding (411-2).
45 The city appears as Συκών as early as Homer, in the Catalogue of Ships (II. 2.572).
46 Phobos in literature: son of Ares, Il. 13.298-300, yoked to Ares’ chariot with Deimos, Il. 15.119-20. Art: e.g. chest of Kypselos, Paus. 5.19.4-5. Cult: see above p.52 nn.154-5.
Sythas is involved: was the river the place for the gods’ purification, or was its help sought as a local deity, acting as intercessor with the Olympians?48

The ritual itself sounds old, with elements familiar from other cults. The temporary abandonment of a sanctuary by its cult statues suggests a period of purification, as in the annual procession of the Athenian Plynteria, when ephebes carried the Palladion to the sea for purificatory cleansing, or the Argive procession to bathe the image of Athena.49 The visit to the river likewise suggests purification, though it is not clear whether the statues are taken on this part of the procession’s journey. The carrying of a cult statue to reenact a god’s mythical journey is paralleled by the Great Dionysia procession, in which the old wooden image from Dionysos’ Athenian temple was taken to a shrine in the Academy, outside the city walls on the road to Eleutherai, and back again, symbolising the cult’s initial transfer.50 The selection of seven boys and seven girls immediately recalls the legendary Athenian tribute to the Minotaur, and the number recurs in initiatory institutions like the Corinthian practice of sending seven boys and seven girls to live for a year in the sanctuary of Hera Akraia.51

Although the ritual sounds plausible, however, the link with Peitho is rather tenuous. Etymological rationalisations that stretch the limits of credulity are, of course, a feature of the genre of aitia. Are we actually to believe that the Sikyonians worship Persuasion because once upon a time Apollo and Artemis were “persuaded” to come back to the city? It is remarkable that the story does not involve Peitho herself at all, and she is fairly incidental even to the ritual, in which Peitho’s sanctuary merely provides a temporary stop for the cult images of other deities, and which is observed in honour of Apollo. Perhaps this explains why there is no cult statue of Peitho in the sanctuary: it is actually a sanctuary of Apollo and Artemis “the Persuaded”, rather than of Persuasion herself, and is empty to allow for its annual visit from the statues of the main temple of Apollo. The sanctuary’s emptiness would be a

50 Paus. 1.29.2; on Athens’ relationship with Eleutherai, see Parker 1996, 93-5.
reminder of the possibility of being abandoned by Apollo and Artemis, and the festival visit a celebration of the aversion of the threat. If Pausanias' sanctuary really was dedicated to Peitho, though, the unusual lack of any connection with Aphrodite might suggest that her cult was an innovation which arrived with Demetrios Poliorketes' new city, influenced by the rhetorical Peitho of fourth century Athens.  

Whatever the explanation of Sikyon's cult, Pausanias knows of Peitho as an epithet of Artemis at Argos:

The sanctuary of Artemis surnamed Peitho: Hypermestra dedicated this too on defeating her father in the case in which she was put on trial because of Lynkeus.  

This is our only known instance of an Artemis Peitho, though Artemis and Peitho are associated by Plutarch in a wedding context (see below) as well as at Sikyon. Although the aition is explicitly rhetorical, an erotic element is not far to seek, as Hypermestra is defending herself against Danaos for not having murdered her husband on their wedding night. Although spatial proximity may be coincidental, we might also note that Pausanias has just left the city's archaic sanctuary of Aphrodite. Two scholia on Euripides support the idea that the Argive Peitho is associated with social order, appropriate enough if Artemis Peitho here is a marriage deity: according to one, Argos himself married Peitho, according to the other, she married the Argive culture-hero Phoroneus. As at Sikyon we cannot establish a date with any certainty: the story is again set in the heroic age, but the idea of Danaos having recourse to the law-courts sounds like a sophistic innovation; also against an early date is the fact that, apart from the Aphrodite sanctuary, most archaeological remains in the area which Pausanias is discussing, the theatre side of the market-place, are Hellenistic or Roman period.

52 Pirenne-Delforge (1991, 408-10) notes that the Sythas is c.15 km from Sikyon, while Peitho's temple is in the city itself. She suggests that Peitho represents "les valeurs typiques de la cité", to which the boys and girls return after some sort of initiation ritual in the "place called Fear" at the margins of the city's territory.

53 Paus. 2.21.1: τὸ δὲ τῆς Ἀρτέμιδος ἱερὸν ἐπίκλησιν Πειθοῦς, ὑπερμήστρος καὶ τούτῳ ἰνεώθηκε νικήφορα τῇ δίκῃ τὸν πατέρα ἕν τοῦ Δανάεως ἐνεκα ἔφυγε.

54 On which see Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 153-70, and fig. 9 for its location.


Moving towards Athens, we return to a Peitho firmly associated with Aphrodite and the erotic sphere, although not necessarily in receipt of a cult. Pausanias records a statue of Peitho among other personifications in a temple of Aphrodite in the agora at Megara, where Aphrodite has an unusual epithet:

After the sanctuary of Dionysos there is a temple of Aphrodite, and a statue made of ivory of Aphrodite surnamed “Action”. This is the oldest in the temple; Persuasion and another god called Coaxing are the work of Praxiteles; by Skopas are Sex and Desire and Yearning, if the names differ in the same way as their functions.  

Aphrodite Praxis does not appear elsewhere, although πράξεις seems to be a euphemism for sexual intercourse in a number of literary passages; this is also our only attestation of Paregoros.  

The fourth-century Megarians evidently spared no expense in their choice of sculptors, and the impression of extravagance is furthered by the multiplicity of statues of such unambiguously erotic personifications. Pausanias' comment about the attribution of names to Skopas' statues is slightly obscure, but could be indicative of the usual problem of identifying unlabelled statues, as he was presumably faced with three statues of winged youths, which could all have been Erotes.

Even closer to Athens, at Daphne a possible mid-fourth-century statue of Peitho appears among a number of dedications from a sanctuary of Aphrodite mentioned by Pausanias (1.37.7). A blue marble statue base of the mid-fourth century bears the inscription: “Kallimachos of Soloi dedicated this to Peitho”. The τήνδε must refer to the statue of a female figure, but as the inscription is in verse it is quite possible

57 Paus. 1.43.6: μετὰ δὲ τοῦ Διονύσου τὸ ἱερὸν ἔστιν Ἀφροδίτης ναὸς, ἀγαλμα δὲ ἐλεφαντός Ἀφροδίτης πεποίημένον Πράξεις ἑπίκλησιν. τούτῳ ἔστιν ἄρχαιοτατὸν ἐν τῷ ναῷ Πειθῶ δὲ καὶ ἔτερα θεοὶ, ἣν Παρήγορον ὄνομάζουσιν, ἔργα Πραξιτέλους: Σκόπα δὲ Ἔρας καὶ Ἠμερος καὶ Πόθος, εὶ δὴ διάφορά ἔστι κατὰ ταῦτα τοῖς ὀνομάσαι καὶ τὰ ἔργα σφίσι. Pirenne-Delforge (1994, 89) translates the last phrase: "si toutefois leurs champs d'action sont différents comme sont leurs noms".

58 Praxis: e.g. Theok. 2.143, Achilles Tatius, LC 1.10.6; Buxton 1982, 32 and n.7. Pirenne-Delforge (1994, 90) takes the epithet more neutrally — "la domaine d'intervention de la déesse est laissé dans le flou par une telle épiction" — not wishing to limit Aphrodite here to "chooses de l'amour". Paregoros: cf. P.V. 645-7, where Io describes the dreams which παρηγόρον her with smooth words, offering her the delights of himeros and Kypris (649-50). Pirenne-Delforge (1994, 89 and n.40) attributes the Megarians' ability to commission such famous sculptors to the neutrality they maintained in the conflicts of the first half of the fourth century. She cites Xenophon's account (Hell. 5.4.48) of Agesilaos' visit to the Megarian sanctuary of Aphrodite in 378/7 as evidence for the goddess' political significance (1991, 404).
that Peitho is standing in for Aphrodite, *metri gratia*, especially since all the other (prose) dedications from the shrine name Aphrodite herself.

**PEITHO AND APHRODITE PANDEMOS AT ATHENS**

The evidence we have considered so far is too scattered, both geographically and chronologically, to give more than a general view of Peitho's cult. Turning to Athens, the situation improves dramatically, with information about the goddess Peitho from literature and the visual arts to fill out the framework established by more direct evidence for her cult.

As already mentioned, Pausanias locates a temple to Aphrodite Pandemos and Peitho on the S.W. slope of the Akropolis, between the Asklepieion and the Beulé Gate (FIG. 10):

> When Theseus had united the Athenians into one city-state from the demes, he established the worship of Aphrodite Pandemos herself and of Peitho. The ancient statues no longer existed in my time, but those which did were not by the most obscure artists.

The attribution of a cult's founding to a hero such as Theseus or Herakles is of course a standard means of establishing the cult's validity. Theseus' exploits provided aitia for the introduction of many cults, such as that of Aphrodite Epitragia, and festivals, including the Panathenaia and Synoikia, and his status as Athenian hero *par excellence* was affirmed, after his appearance on the field at Marathon, by Kimon's retrieval of "Theseus' bones" from Skyros, c.477 BC. Garland connects the hero's supposed responsibility for the synoecism and the founding of the cult of Aphrodite Pandemos and Peitho by understanding the goddesses as "aspects of the co-operative and democratic ethic upon which the polis was founded". These aspects are indeed apparent in the aitia for Aphrodite's epithet, although they are not the whole story, as

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60 IG 112 4583: Πειθοῖς Καλλίμαχῳ τῇ νήδι ἄνεθηκε Σολεύς. Pirenne-Delforge takes the dedicatory's home town to be the Soloi in north-west Cyprus, and imagines the Cypriot honouring the patron goddess of his island on his way to be initiated at Eleusis (1994, 73-4); there is, however, another candidate for this Soloi in Kilikia.

61 Paus. 1.22.3: Ἀφεθέσθην δὲ τῆν Πάνθημον, ἐπεὶ τῇ Ἀθηναίοις Θησείδι ἐς μίαν ἰγαγεν ἅπα τῶν δήμων πόλιν, αὐτὴν τε σέβεσθαι καὶ Πειθῷ κατέστησε· τὰ μὲν δὲ παλαιά ἀγάλματα οὐκ ἦν ἐπ᾽ ἐμοί, τὰ δὲ ἐπ᾽ ἐμοί τεχνιτῶν ἦν οὐ τῶν ἄρανεστάτων. Cf. above pp.85-6.


we shall see. The link with Theseus' synoecism may suggest a connection with Kleisthenes' reorganisation, which would give us a late sixth century date for the cult's inception or rise to prominence. A late archaic date can be reasonably established for Aphrodite Pandemos' cult from sources other than Pausanias, but unfortunately none of these mentions Peitho. Representations of Peitho appear in Athenian vase-painting from the beginning of the fifth century, however, and she is mentioned in tragedy as early as Aischylos' *Suppliants* (467-56 BC), which would lend credibility to such a dating, which is also consonant with Pausanias' assumption of the cult's antiquity.

Let us first consider the sources for the cult of Aphrodite Pandemos. For some sort of shrine to Aphrodite in the area Pausanias describes, though not always bearing the epithet Pandemos, we have plenty of other evidence. Beschi's more specific location of the sanctuary on the terrace immediately below the Athena Nike bastion is based on epigraphic and architectural finds made when a late wall connecting the bastion with the south tower of the Beulé Gate was demolished in the 1890s, and ceramic finds from excavations of 1960 at the east end of the terrace, including red-figure loutrophoroi and terracotta female figures. Cuttings in the rock surface of the terrace suggest the position of a small rectangular building, oriented north-south (FIG. 10), to which Beschi assigns three fragments of architrave from the late antique wall, which are decorated with a dove and garland relief (FIGS. 23-4). These also bear a metrical inscription dating from c.350-20 BC: "We adorn this (temple) for you, o great

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64 Erika Simon argues that the cult already existed, on the basis of Athenian coins with two janus-headed goddesses, but was of special prominence in Kleisthenes' time (1970, 12-13 and pl.2,4; 1983, 48-51). She adduces Aischylos as witness to Aphrodite and Peitho being "mighty goddesses" in the first half of the fifth century, "where their might is a matter more of political than erotic power" (1983, 50).

65 On the *Suppliants*, see Buxton 1982, 67-90.

66 For a recent study of Aphrodite Pandemos at Athens, see Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 26-40.

67 Shapiro's claim that "its location has not been found" (1993, 186) is somewhat misleading, and odd given that in the same paragraph (187 n.417) he cites Simon 1983 (48-51, pl.15.1) whose brief discussion of Aphrodite Pandemos includes a photograph of the dove-decorated architrave and Beschi's reconstruction of the naikos (*infra* FIGS. 23-4). He is presumably influenced by the scepticism of Judeich (1931, 285 n.1), whom he cites. Commenting on Pausanias 1.22.3, Wycherley (1978, 131) asserts unequivocally: "We do not know what happened to the shrines of Aphrodite Pandemos, and of Ge Kourotrophos and Demeter Chloe...", although he later (179) notes that "inscriptions relating to these cults have been found in the region...". Pirenne Delforge (1994, 26-8) takes the archaeological evidence to confirm Pausanias, indicating at least a naikos.

68 Beschi 1987-8, 517-28, fig. 1. On the inscriptions, see Foucart 1889, 156-166.

69 Beschi 1987-8, figs.3-10.
and holy Aphrodite Pandemos, with the gifts of our own images”, the “we” being named as Archinos of the Skambonidai, his maternal aunt Menekrateia, priestess of Aphrodite, and his mother. 70

A slightly later inscription from the site (287/6 BC) may suggest that the cult was in need of reviving by the early third century. This records a decree concerning the annual ritual “spring cleaning” of the sanctuary, and although Peitho is not mentioned explicitly her presence can perhaps be inferred from the plurality of the statues and altars in question:

May the magistrates successively in office, at the time of the procession in honour of Aphrodite Pandemos, supply a dove for the purification of the temple, have the altars smeared with oil, the (roof timbers) coated with pitch, and the statues washed, and may they also supply a weight of purple... 71

Foucart points out that this is a decree revitalising an old practice rather than introducing a new one, since the ritual is to be performed κατὰ τὰ πάτρια (I.12), in much the same spirit as the religious reforms of Lykourgos a generation or so earlier. 72 The stipulation of a dove for the purification of the temple is appropriate for Aphrodite, as well as recalling the sacrificial regulations of Thasos and Lesbos, since a pig was the usual victim for such a ceremony. 73 Romano assumes that τὰ ἔδη refers to statues of Athena Pandemos and Peitho, carried in procession to a bathing place, and, since such bathing is particularly associated with ancient wooden images, she suggests that perhaps the παλαιὰ ἄγαλματα mentioned by Pausanias were still in existence. 74 The context here, however, seems to suggest that a practical washing rather than ritual cleansing is meant, although the two need not be mutually exclusive. 75 The inscription

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70 IG II2 4596 = CEG II, no.775: τόνδε σοι, ὄ μεγάλη σεμνή Πάνδημη Ἀφροδίτη, κοσμοῦμεν δόροις εἰκόσιν ἡμετέραις/ Ἄρχηνος Ἀλεππητήον Σκαμβανίδης, Μενεκράτεια Δεξικράτους Ἴκαρέως θυγάτηρ ἱέρεια τῆς ἹἈφροδίτης, οὕτω... Δεξικράτους θυγάτηρ Ἀρχηνο δὲ μήτηρ.


72 Foucart 1889, 164; on Lykourgos, see above pp.83-4 n.89.

73 On Aphrodite and doves, see Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 31 with nn.80-4, and 415-7; she suggests that the stipulation of a dove for purification here again implies the interdiction of pigs (391-2).

74 Romano 1988, 128-9; she adduces as a parallel the festival for Aphrodite at Paphos on Cyprus, where the cult image is carried to the sea, bathed and decked with flowers.

75 Beschi (1967-8, 525-6) suggests that the entire structure above the architrave may have been of wood, hence the need for pitch.

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also mentions a priestess called Hegesipyle (l.1), who must be represented by a parent (l.17).

For the sanctuary’s early fifth-century history, we have another metrical dedication from the area, dating from c.480-70 BC, inscribed on a fragment of column which would probably have supported a votive relief:

(...).odoros dedicated me to Aphrodite as a first-fruit gift.
Lady grant him abundance of all good thing,
and those who say unjust and lying words against him,
on them...76

The last clause presumably outlined the redress being sought against the dedicator’s opponents with their false accusations. Pirenne-Delforge suggests that the reference to “unjust and lying words” calls to mind a rhetorical Peitho, who might be expected to concern herself with such matters, but there is little basis for the supposition.77 A temple to Aphrodite on the south slope of the Akropolis is also attested by several literary sources which mention Phaidra as its founder, for love of Hippolytos. In the Hippolytos, Euripides’ Aphrodite relates:

Before she (Phaidra) came to this land of Troizen,
beside the rock of Pallas, in sight of this land,
she founded a temple of Aphrodite,
out of love for her absent love; from that time on
the goddess’ temple was named after Hippolytos.78

Diodoros mentions the story, adding the detail that the temple is sited on a spot “from where one can look across at Troizen”.79 This is almost certainly poetic licence, as Troizen is in the Argolid on the far side of the Saronic Gulf, but the town is indeed south-west of Athens, so the story accords with the location of our temple of Aphrodite Pandemos. That Phaidra was hoping for assistance from Aphrodite in her “persuasive” aspect is suggested by a scholiast’s version of how the story continues:

76 IG I3 832 (DAA no.296, CEG 1, no.288): [...]οδόρος μ’ ἄνέθεκε Ἀφροδίτηι δόρον ἀπαλρχέν | πότνια τ/ν ἁγαθόν τ/λ σύ δός ἀφθονίαν | οἱ τε λέγοσι λόγος ἀδίκησι πολλάς καὶ τ’ ἐξένο | τοῦτο/τε ...]

77 Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 29 and n.71.

78 Eur. Hipp. 29-33: καὶ πρὶν μὲν ἔλθεν τήνδε γῆν Τροιζῆναν, / πέτραν παρ’ αὐτὴν Παλλάδος κατόφιον / γῆς τήνδε ναὸν Κύπριδος ἐγκαθείσατο, / ἔρωτ’ ἔρωτ’ ἐκδημόν Ἰππολύτωρ δ’ ἐπι/ τὸ λαούπον ὀνομαζέν ἱδρύθαι τεῖν. 79 Diod. 4.62.2: ... Φαίδρα διὰ τὸ κάλλος ἐρασθείσα αὐτοῦ τότε μὲν ἀπελθόντος εἰς Τροιζῆνα ἱδρύσατο ιερὸν Ἀφροδίτης παρὰ τὴν ἀκρόπολιν, δὲν ἦν καθοραν τὴν Τροιζῆνα.
“then she went on to Troizen, where she tried to peithein the young man to sleep with her.”

A link with Hippolytos is also apparent in Pausanias’ description of the southwest slope of the Akropolis, as his account of Theseus’ establishment of the cult of Aphrodite Pandemos and Peitho follows on from a brief version of the story of Hippolytos, prompted by description of the hero’s memorial, just after the Asklepieion. If Pausanias is to be believed here, the proximity of the temple to the memorial might account for its association with Phaidra.

For the epithet Pandemos we have two aitia, recorded by Athenaios and Harpokration. Both attribute the founding of the cult to Solon and cite the Hellenistic versifier Nikander of Kolophon for the more colourful explanation. Athenaios also cites the New Comedy poet Philemon (fourth/early third century BC), but only mentions the one story, since it is relevant to his diners’ discussion of prostitution:

Philemon, too, in the Brothers records incidentally that Solon, because of young men’s ‘prime’, purchased girls and set them up in brothels. Likewise Nikander of Kolophon also records this in the third book of his History of Kolophon, saying that Solon was the first to found a temple of Aphrodite Pandemos from the money made by the women in charge of the brothels.

Harpokration gives both aitia for the epithet, citing Apollodoros of Athens (second century BC) for the alternative. It is not clear which version he found in the fourth century orator Hypereides:

Hypereides, in the Against Patrokleas, if it is genuine. Apollodoros in his On the Gods says that she was so called at Athens after being moved near the old agora, because of the fact that in ancient times all the people would gather here in assemblies, which they called agoras. In book six of his History of Kolophon Nikander says that Solon bought good-looking women and set them up in a house, for the sake of young men, and out of the revenue founded a temple of Aphrodite Pandemos. It is the common property of all the demos.

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80 Schol. Od. 11.321: Φαίδρα δὲ ἐρωτικῶς διατεθείσα τὸ Ἰππολύτου, σφοδρῶς ἐπ’ αὐτῷ τηκομένη τὸ μὲν πρῶτον ἵρον Ἀφροδίτης ἐν Ἀθηναῖς ἰδρύσατο τὸ νῦν Ἰππολύτειον καλομένου, εἰς Τροιζήν δὲ ὑστερον παραγενομένη διενεῖτο πείθειν τὸν νεανίσκον ὅπως αὐτῇ μιμεῖτ.

81 See below n.104 for a possible Nymphe-Troizen link. Pirenne-Delforge (1994, 40-6) cites two inscriptions of the 430s BC which further the possible link between Aphrodite and Hippolytos on the south slope of the Akropolis (IG i3 383.234-5 and SEG X 227), and examines the case for the memorial of Hippolytos and the sanctuary of Aphrodite being one and the same sanctuary.

82 Athen. 13.569d: καὶ Φιλήμων δὲ ἐν Ἀδελφοῖς προσιστορῶν ὅτι πρῶτος Σόλον διὰ τὴν τῶν νέαν ἀκήμην ἐστηκέν ἐπὶ οἰκημάτων γύναια προίμαμεν, καθά καὶ Νικανόρος ὁ Κολοφόνιος ἰστορεῖ ἐν τρίτῳ Κολοφωνιακῶν φάσκων αὐτόν καὶ πανθήμον Ἀφροδίτης ἱερὸν πρῶτον ἱδρύσασθαι ἄφθ᾽ ἄν ἠγγυρίσαντο αἱ προστάσει τῶν οἰκημάτων. See Halperin (1990, 100-101) on the Philemon passage.

83 Ἡρπ. s.v. Πάνθεος Ἀφροδίτη ὑπερείπθη εἰς τῷ κατὰ Πατροκλέου, εἰ γνήσιος Ἀπολλόδωρος ἐν τῷ περὶ θεῶν φησιν Ἀθηνᾶς κληθῆναι τὴν ἄφθισεν περὶ τὴν ἄρχας.
The topographical reference to the "old agora" would accord with Pausanias' location of the temple if, as has often been held, early archaic Athens had its meeting place in the area immediately to the south-west of the Akropolis, the fragment of Apollodoros is the only text to mention this ancient agora, however, and more recent archaeological finds tend to support a location for archaic Athens' most important public buildings in the area north-east of the Akropolis. Whether or not Apollodoros' explanation of the epithet is to be trusted, it is not incompatible with the more sensational version: Aphrodite may be Pandemos because of her temple's proximity to gatherings of "all the people", but democratic associations are also to be seen in the story that it was built with the proceeds of the state prostitution which Solon had established, providing good clean sex for all. Indeed, Athenaios goes on to quote Philemon at length, who explicitly calls Solon's deed a "a democratic act of deliverance".

The linking of Aphrodite's epithet Pandemos with prostitution is paralleled by Plato's explanation of the title. In the Symposium, Pausanias differentiates Aphrodite Pandemos from Aphrodite Ourania, the two representing two different sorts of love:

Are there not two goddesses? One is the elder and motherless daughter of Heaven, whom we call by the title "Heavenly". The other is younger, daughter of Zeus and Dione, whom we call "Common".

The speech goes on to expand on the opposition between the physical, pandemos sort of love, felt indiscriminately and fleetingly by baser men for unintelligent women or boys, and the more spiritual, ourania variety, aimed at a lasting, intellectual partnership.
with a young man. In modern terms we might call this the distinction between lust and romantic love, the former very much what Solon’s brothels are supposed to have catered for. The application of such a distinction to two ancient cult titles of Aphrodite is clearly a philosophical conceit, and the use of πάνθημος to mean “common” in a pejorative sense, rather than the more literal “belonging to all the people”, is also an innovation. That Plato’s connection of the epithets with physical and spiritual love respectively did not go unnoticed, however, is attested by Pausanias’ (the traveller’s) account of Aphrodite’s cult at Thebes. Three ancient wooden statues of Aphrodite are supposed to have been dedicated there by Harmonia:

They call one of these “Heavenly”, another “Common” and the third “Turner Away”. Harmonia gave Aphrodite her titles: “Heavenly” for pure love released from bodily desire; “Common” for copulation; thirdly “Turner Away”, so that the human race might turn away from lawless passion and unholy deeds.

None of these explanations can be taken literally as accounting for the origins of the title Pandemos. The idea of state-sponsored prostitution sounds like wishful thinking, and the attribution of the cult’s founding to Solon is much the same as its attribution to Theseus: such a good idea could only have been thought of by Solon the wise. However they do indicate that Aphrodite Pandemos was associated in some way

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88 Pausanias’ ideal of the sustained homosexual relationship is presumably supposed to reflect his own relationship with Agathon (Symp. 193b-c). Later in the speech there is a reference to “attempting in speeches to persuade young men” (λόγῳ πειρώμενοι πειθεῖν τοὺς νέους, 182b), a skill lacked by men in Elis, Boiotia, Sparta and “wherever they are not skilled in speaking”. Clearly the “better”, Athenian, sort of lover gets his way by means of rhetorical peitho.

89 Solon set up his brothels “seeing the city full of young men, and that they were in the grip of nature’s compulsion and erring towards what they should not” (λόγῳ πειρώμενοι πειθεῖν τοὺς νέους, 182b), skill lacked by men in Elis, Boiotia, Sparta and “wherever they are not skilled in speaking”. Clearly the “better”, Athenian, sort of lover gets his way by means of rhetorical peitho.

90 See Burkert (1985, 155) for Aphrodite Ourania as linked with the Phoenician Queen of Heaven; also Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 217-26.

91 Paus. 9.16.3: καλοῦσι δὲ Οὐράνιαν, τὴν δὲ αὐτῶν Πάνθημον καὶ Ἀποστροφίαν τὴν τρίτην ἔθετο δὲ τῇ Ἀροδίτῃ τὰς ἐπανομίας ή Ἀρμονία, τὴν μὲν Οὐρανίαν ἐπὶ ἔρισε καθαρῷ καὶ ἀπιλαγμένῳ πόθου σωμάτων, Πάνθημον δὲ ἐπὶ ταῖς μίξεσι, τρίτα δὲ Ἀποστροφίαν, ἵνα ἐπιθυμίας τε ἀνόητου καὶ ἔργων ἀνοσίαν ἀποστρέφῃ τὸ γένος τῶν ἀνθρώπων. Pausanias also mentions a shrine of Aphrodite Ourania at Argos, but without comment (2.23.8); he is more forthcoming about the sanctuary in the Athenian Agora, which he equips with a statue by Pheidias (1.14.7). On the Argive cult see Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 165-7. On the Athenian cult see Wycherley 1978, 73, Thompson and Wycherley 1957, 49-50, and Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 15-25, 34-5 and 66.
with democracy from the fourth century on, which may fit with a picture of Peitho taking on a more rhetorical aspect at the same period.\(^{92}\)

For Peitho herself as a real goddess of cult, Aristophanes may be our earliest witness, his Lysistrata pouring a libation to Peitho (412/11 BC):

\[
\text{O mistress Peitho and Loving-Cup, accept our blood-sacrifices and be gracious to us women.}^{93}
\]

It is difficult to know whether this can be taken as evidence for an actual cult, as plenty of “joke” deities are invoked in Aristophanes, but we might note that the play is set at the entrance to the Akropolis, just around the corner from the temple of Aphrodite Pandemos; elsewhere in the play Victory is called upon, perhaps an allusion to the temple of Athena Nike above.\(^{94}\) The Frogs quote with which I began this chapter (405 BC) could be taken at face value as suggesting that the idea of Peitho having a literal temple is ridiculous, but could equally well be basing its humour on the audience’s knowledge of a real temple of Peitho and Aphrodite Pandemos not far from the theatre. While the Lysistrata reference seems to be invoking Peitho in her erotic aspect, the Frogs line can perhaps be taken as demonstrating her transition from the erotic to the rhetorical. The context is the “weighing of the lines” scene, and Euripides’ line “Peitho has no other temple but reason” is set against Aischylos’ “For alone of gods Thanatos does not love gifts”.\(^{95}\) Peitho’s connection with sex and marriage (see below), which ensure the continuation of life, puts her in opposition to Thanatos. The sophistic Euripides naturally lauds Peitho in her rhetorical aspect, but

\(^{92}\) See Pirenne-Delforge 1988 for a discussion of both Aphrodite epithets. She argues that the Platonic opposition disappears when the actual cults are studied, and that the \textit{ailia} for Pandemos suggest she is not so much “la jeune déesse dépravée évoquée chez Platon” but rather “la caution religieuse d’un acte politique et la protectrice du corps civique” (151). She also stresses Aphrodite Pandemos’ political side in 1994, 26-34 and 448-9. I am not entirely convinced by her identification of the statue of Aphrodite dedicated by Kallias (Paus. 1.23.2; DAA 152-3 no.136) with Pandemos, which is one of her main pieces of evidence for this characterisation. She does conclude, however, that “Aphrodite Pandémos conservait un lien avec la sexualité, au travers même de son intervention politique” (449).

\(^{93}\) Aristoph. Lys. 203-4: \textit{δέσποινα Πειθώ καὶ κύλις φιλοτησία/ τά σφάγια δέξατ ταῖς γυναιξίν εὐμενῆς.}

\(^{94}\) Lys. 317, on which the Loeb edition makes this point; both temples are included on a plan of the Akropolis printed at the beginning of the text (1963, Aristophanes III, 4). See Buxton 1982, 44-5 on this passage and on Habrotonon’s invocation of Peitho in Menander’s \textit{Epitrepontes} (555-6), both of which, he argues, combine Peitho’s erotic and her rhetorical side.

\(^{95}\) Frogs 1391-2: οὐκ ἔστι Πειθός ιερὸν ἄλλο πλὴν λόγος/ μόνος θεῶν γὰρ Θάνατος οὐ δώρων ἐργ.
the traditionalist judge Dionysos dismisses her in her non-intellectual aspect: Death is a weighty matter, but “Persuasion is a light thing and has no sense” — Peitho is a frivolous “bimbo” of a goddess.96

By the mid-fourth century we have less equivocal evidence for Peitho’s Athenian cult, with Isokrates and Demosthenes both mentioning state sacrifices to Peitho. Isokrates’ reference to Peitho comes in his Antidosis (354/3 BC), in which he is defending himself against the fictitious charge of corrupting youth by teaching them sophistry — a soundly rhetorical context. The Athenians, he says, are hypocritical about eloquence: all covet the ability to think and speak well, but they decry the pursuit of such ability by others; this ambivalence is reflected in their attitude towards Peitho.

But this is a sign not only of their confusion, but also of their neglect of the gods: on the one hand they recognise Peitho as one of the gods, and they see that the city makes a sacrifice to her each year, but on the other they say that men who wish to share in the power which the goddess has are being corrupted, as though they desired an evil thing.97

Interestingly, Isokrates describes the Athenians who are jealous of others’ proficiency in rhetoric as suffering “much in the same way as lovers”, but this is not directly connected with Peitho.98 There is no other hint of Peitho’s erotic side, and no mention of Aphrodite, but given the context this is hardly surprising.99

Aphrodite is also absent from the Demosthenes passage. The reference to Peitho comes in one of his prooimia, exemplary opening paragraphs for speeches

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96 Fros 1396: πειθω δὲ κοὐρόν ἔστι καὶ νοῦν οὐκ ἔχων. Translation into the vernacular courtesy of Gideon Nisbet. Buxton misses the appropriateness of Peitho’s erotic side here: “Dionysos’ verdict evidently only makes sense if Peitho is being employed in the sense of rhetorical persuasion” (1982, 43-4). Aristophanes’ characterisation of Euripides here is apt (Buxton 1982, 153), as the Euripidean peitho, a force constantly at work, does operate primarily through the medium of speech; Peitho the goddess is almost entirely absent, her one, notable, appearance being in Hekabe’s appeal to Agamemnon, as τὴν τύραννον ἀνθρώποις μὸνην (Hek. 816), in a thoroughly rhetorical context (Buxton 1982, 178-9).

97 Ισοκ. 15,249:  ὅ δ’ ὁ μόνον παραρτήσεις σημεῖόν ἔστιν, ἄλλα καὶ τῆς περὶ τοὺς θεοὺς ὀλγηρίας τὴν μὲν γὰρ Πειθῶ μίαν τῶν θεῶν νομίζομεν εἶναι, καὶ τὴν πόλιν ὡστὶ καὶ ἔκαστον τῶν ἐνσώματον θυσίαν συμπισμουμένην, τοὺς δὲ τῆς δυνάμεως ἢ ἡ θεὸς ἔχει μεταχεῖν βουλομένους ὡς κομοῦ πρόγματος ἐπιθυμοῦντας διασθείρεσθαι φασιν.

98 Ισοκ. 15,245: πεπονθέναι παραπλήσια τοῖς ἑρώται. Metaphors of seduction abound in modern discussions of rhetoric, too: e.g. “Rhetoric is about courtship” (Shanks 1996, 108).

99 Parker sees Isokrates as highlighting “the opposite end of the broad spectrum of the goddess’s powers” (1996, 234). Shapiro takes this passage as indicating that Peitho’s cult was “strong” in the fourth century, “for Isokrates condemns it as a sign of the influence of the sophists” (1993, 187).
In a list of deities supposed to gain the audience's goodwill by assuring them of divine favour, Peitho is amongst unexpected company:

Indeed, we have sacrificed to Zeus Soter and Athena and Nike, and these sacrifices have been auspicious and salutary for you. We have also sacrificed to Peitho and the Mother of the gods and Apollo and we obtained good omens from these too.\(^{100}\)

The reference to Nike may be explained by the informal usage of the cult title as an abbreviation for the Athena Nike of the sanctuary on the south bastion of the Akropolis, perhaps distinguished here from Athena in her more general role as city patron.\(^{101}\) Otherwise the list seems to be an unexceptional random selection of deities from the Athenian pantheon. Although we can gather little new information about Peitho from this, it does suggest that her cult was of sufficient stature by this period to be included without comment.

Finally, the cults of both Peitho and Aphrodite Pandemos are attested by priest-seats in the Theatre of Dionysos. I have already raised some general problems with these inscriptions as evidence for Athenian cult practice, and discussed the case of "the singer-priestess of Child-nurturing Demeter (and) of Peitho".\(^{102}\) Even if the theory that this is a priestess officiating in two neighbouring shrines, rather than indicating a conflation of cults, is correct there is still the problem of Peitho's separation from Aphrodite Pandemos. The latter appears on another seat, "for the priestess of Aphrodite Pandemos (and) of Nymphe ...".\(^{103}\) As Nymphe is "the Bride", to whom wedding vases are dedicated after the ceremony at her sanctuary just south of the Akropolis, her association with Aphrodite is obvious, although why she should be connected with Aphrodite Pandemos is not so clear.\(^{104}\) Nymphe's sanctuary was

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\(^{100}\) Demosth. Prooimia/Exordia 54, 1460: καὶ γὰρ ἔθοσαμεν τῷ Δίῳ τῷ σωτήρι καὶ τῇ Ἀθηνᾷ καὶ τῇ Νίκῃ καὶ γέγονεν καλὰ καὶ σωτηρία ταῦτα ύμῖν τὰ τερά. ἔθοσαμεν δὲ καὶ τῇ Πειθώ καὶ τῇ Μητρὶ τῶν θεῶν καὶ τῷ Ἀπόλλωνι καὶ ἐκαλλιεροῦμεν καὶ ταῦτα.

\(^{101}\) Mark 1993, 94 and n.6.

\(^{102}\) Above pp. 85-6.

\(^{103}\) IG II\(^{2}\) 5149: [ἱερεῖ]ας Ἄφροδιτῆς Παιδήμου Νόμης [........]

\(^{104}\) For various vases found at the shrine, see Oakley and Sinos 1993, 15, 42, 43, 131 n.6 and 137 n.63. See Pirenne-Delforge (1994, 421-6) for a summary of the evidence for Aphrodite's association with marriage. A very tenuous link may be discernible in Pausanias' mention of a cult of Aphrodite Nympe near "Theseus' Rock" outside Troizen, "which Theseus made when he married Helen" (τῆς δὲ πέτρας πλησίον Ἀφροδίτης ἔστιν ιερόν Νυμφίας, ποιήσαντος Ἐθέας ἡνίκα ἐσχέ γυναίκαι Ἐλένην, 2.32.7). We have seen that Pausanias' reference to Aphrodite and Pandemos (1.22.3) follows on immediately from his mention of Hippolytos' Athenian memorial (1.22.1), the story of Hippolytos and Phaidra, and a digression about Troizen's myrtle trees (1.22.2). Could there possibly be some connection...
probably destroyed in the First Mithridatic War, and Pirenne-Delforge suggests that
the goddess may have taken refuge in the nearby sanctuary of Aphrodite Pandemos,
although our theatre-seat inscription is the only evidence for this. As we have no
other information on the Athenian cults of either Peitho or Aphrodite Pandemos in the
Hellenistic period after 287/6 BC, the question will have to remain open to
conjecture.

PEITHO, APHRODITE AND SEDUCTION

A systematic treatment of Peitho's representation in the literature and visual
arts of fifth century Athens has already been well supplied by Buxton and Shapiro.
However, a few points raised by our discussion of Peitho's cult so far can be usefully
amplified by such evidence, in particular the connection between Peitho, seduction and
marriage.

In our visual representations Peitho is almost invariably in Aphrodite's retinue.
On a white-ground pyxis by the Splanchnopt Painter, of c.450 BC, Peitho is among the
welcoming party at the birth of Aphrodite, holding out a phiale ready to pour a libation
to the goddess. This scene was most famously rendered, twenty years or so later, on
the base of Pheidias' statue of Zeus at Olympia; according to Pausanias (5.11.8) the
central figures of the composition were Erôs receiving Aphrodite as she rose from the
sea, and Peitho crowning her with a wreath. The only possible appearance of Peitho in
extant fifth-century sculpture, however, is on the East Frieze of the temple of Athena
Nike, finished in the mid-420s (FIG. 25). This side of the frieze seems to represent a
council of the gods, twenty-two figures being just about distinguishable despite fairly
bad erosion, with Erôs standing, at the left hand end, between two female figures. One
would expect one of these to be Aphrodite, but in the absence of inscriptions Blümel's
identification of the figure to the left as Peitho has to remain speculative, although her

between Troizen and the Athenian cult of Aphrodite Pandemos? See Pirenne-Delforge 1994,
178-85 on Troizen and Aphrodite Nymphia, and 410-2 for possible identification of Nymphia's
cult statue with the Aphrodite "de Fréjus".

Pirenne-Delforge 1991, 410 n.65 and 1994, 23-4; she also argues for the association of

Cf. Apollodoros ap. Harpokration (above) for an implied change of location for Aphrodite
Pandemos' cult.

Ancona 3130; ARV² 899, 144 and 1674; Shapiro 1993 no.125 fig.160.
inclusion could perhaps be explained by the temple's proximity to the sanctuary of Aphrodite Pandemos and Peitho on the slope below.\textsuperscript{108}

Returning to vase-painting, at this period Peitho appears in a number of scenes with no apparent mythological narrative, or at least none known to us. A white-ground squat lekythos in Kansas City has Peitho apparently holding out a stick or toy for the baby toddling nearby.\textsuperscript{109} It is not entirely clear who the seated woman is (she may be Aphrodite), but three other female figures on the vase are labelled Antheia, Paidia and Eunomia, while Aphrodite and Erôs occupy the upper frieze. Shapiro has gathered together a number of such scenes, especially from the Meidias Painter's circle, where female figures occupied in ordinary "womanly" tasks are identified by inscriptions as personifications, such as Eukleia, Eunomia, Eudaimonia and Paidia; Peitho features in several of these but it is difficult to know what significance should be attached to the various names, if any, when have no story to explain the scene.\textsuperscript{110} A pelike associated with the Meidias Painter suggests a possible link between Peitho and the persuasive power of music.\textsuperscript{111} Musaios is seated playing his lyre to an audience of several Muses and Aphrodite and her companions; Peitho sits in the bottom right hand corner, separated from Aphrodite by Terpsichore, muse of dance.

Apart from these non-narrative scenes, Peitho appears most frequently in various stages of the story of Helen. The earliest inscriptionally secure appearance of Peitho that we have is on a fragmentary oinochoe in New York, from the end of the sixth century, potted by Euthymides, depicting the Judgement of Paris.\textsuperscript{112} Peitho brings up the rear of the procession of contestants, presumably there to help Aphrodite persuade Paris of her right to the prize. This early association of Peitho with Paris continues throughout the fifth century in a number of vase-paintings depicting his seduction of Helen. The "persuasion of Helen" raises the question of Peitho's \textit{modus operandi}: do mortals have any choice when up against her power? Just how forceful can Persuasion be, and when does seduction become rape? In the speech \textit{Against

\textsuperscript{108} Blümel 1950/51.
\textsuperscript{109} Kansas City 31.80, c.420 BC; \textit{ARV$^2$} 1248,8; Shapiro 1993 no. 30 fig.164.
\textsuperscript{110} Shapiro 1993, 203-5.
\textsuperscript{111} New York 37.11.23, 420-10 BC; \textit{ARV$^2$} 1313, 7; Shapiro 1993 no. 48 fig. 165.
\textsuperscript{112} New York 1981.11.9 + Private collection, c.510-500 BC; \textit{Add.$^2$} 404-5; Shapiro 1993 no.122.
Eratosthenes Lysias makes a good male-chauvinist case for seduction being a more heinous crime than rape:

Thus, gentlemen of the jury, he (the lawgiver) considered that those who use force deserve a lesser penalty than those who use persuasion; for the latter he condemned to death, but for the former he doubled the damages, because he considered that those who achieve their ends by force are hated by the persons forced, while those who use persuasion so corrupt their victims’ souls that the wives of others are made more attached to themselves than to their husbands... ¹¹³

Peitho’s relationship to force is raised by the Meidias Painter’s name vase in the British Museum (FIG. 26).¹¹⁴ The principal scene is one of abduction, usually known as the Rape of the Daughters of Leukippos, by the Dioskouroi. In the upper part, Kastor is dragging a reluctant Eriphyle towards his waiting chariot, while Polydeukes, who already has Elera in his chariot, prepares to depart; below, Zeus and Aphrodite look on, apparently unconcerned, while a girl labelled Agave runs off to the left, leaving another picking flowers unperturbed; Peitho starting away to the right, looks back at the scene. Most commentators take this as an example of Peitho representing non-violent methods of persuasion, horrified at the forcible abduction going on, and contrast her righteous indignation to the complacency of Aphrodite, who apparently has no qualms about rape as a means of getting your girl.¹¹⁵ Burn has a point, however, in suggesting that Peitho’s alarm “can scarcely be taken seriously”.¹¹⁶ In a number of earlier depictions she seems not to be so squeamish, and several literary references suggest that she is not averse to the application of a little force. Pindar talks of “Peitho’s whip”, and the Peitho of Aischylos’ Agamemnon is decidedly coercive: “Baneful Persuasion, irresistible child of forward-planning Ruin, forces him...”.¹¹⁷ In Herodotos Themistokles threatens the recalcitrant Andrians with the two “great gods” the Athenians have on their side, Peitho and Ananke; Plutarch’s version of the story


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pairs Peitho with Bia herself. The Meidias Painter’s Peitho need not, in fact, be interpreted as abandoning the scene altogether: she balances the figure of Agave, the outward motion of both paralleling that of the chariots in the upper register, and her backward gaze links her with Eriphyle, as if to add her sanction to Kastor’s efforts to overcome the last vestiges of resistance. Far from representing an opposition to force, Persuasion’s inclusion may rather be part of the scene’s romanticisation of the rape into an elopement, introducing the same element of ambiguity as seen in Helen’s abduction/elopement with Paris.

The question of Helen’s innocence or guilt was, of course, a popular topos in the late fifth century — Euripides absolves her completely in the Helen, but in the agon scene of the Trojan Women his Hekabe makes out a fairly damning case against her. Gorgias’ Encomium of Helen neatly summarises the case for her innocence, adducing four possible exonerating circumstances in Helen’s defence:

So how should one consider the blame of Helen just? Whether she did what she did because she was enamoured <by sight> or persuaded by speech or seized by force or compelled by divine necessity, in every way she escapes the charge.

Although Gorgias does not explicitly personify Peitho, he does earlier on speak of the persuasive word as “a great ruler” (Enc. 8), and of divine necessity personified as Tyche and Ananke (Enc. 6). There are obvious technical difficulties with representing such abstract forces in visual terms, difficulties tackled in vase-painting by the inclusion of personifications. I think we can take the presence of Peitho and other deities in the scene of Helen’s abduction as illustrating, in the mythological terms conventional to art, the various inescapable forces which Gorgias suggests were at work on Helen, from both without and within.

118 Hdt 8.111; Plutarch Them. 21. On peitho and bia as polarities, see Buxton 1982, 58-63.
119 Sutton (1992, 30-1) follows Burn’s interpretation, and sees the scene as part of an artistic trend idealising the wedding: “The trauma of a woman’s compulsory removal to a new home through arranged marriage is artistically transformed into an agreeable abduction by handsome young heroes set in an idyllic fairyland”; cf. Stewart 1997, 174. On two fourth-century Athenian vases Peitho accompanies Aphrodite among the on-lookers watching another ambiguous rape/marriage, Peleus’ struggle with Thetis: fragmentary aryballos now lost, previously Athens, private collection; pelike from Kamiros, 340-30 BC, London E424, ARV² 1475.4 (Icard-Gianolio 1994, nos.10-11*). Icard-Gianolio (1994, 248) follows the usual interpretation of the Meidias Painter’s Peitho, as fleeing in horror from violence, but notes that this is exceptional, contrasting her complacency in the two rape-of-Thetis scenes.
120 Gorg. Enc. 20: Πῶς οὖν δίκαιον ἡγεσάθη τὸν Ἐλένης μὴν ήτις, εἶτε <ὅνει> ἐξασθεῖσα εἶτε λόγῳ πειθεῖσα εἶτε μία ἀρετῇ εἶτε ὑπὸ θείας ἀνάγκης ἀναγκασθεῖσα ἐπραξεν & ἐπραξεν, πάντως διαφεύγει τὴν αἰτίαν.
An early fifth century skyphos in Boston by Makron depicts two stages in the story, Helen’s abduction and her recovery by Menelaos (FIG. 27). Peitho is involved in the first stage, standing behind Aphrodite, holding a flower in her right hand; compositionally she balances Paris’ companion Aineas, but thematically her presence underlines and explains the gestures of Paris, Erōs and Aphrodite. This looks like a case of fairly insistent “persuasion”, with Helen standing little chance of resisting an almost forcible abduction — note especially Paris’ grip on her wrist, and the general feeling of forward motion created by the outstretched arms of Aphrodite and Peitho, and the men’s striding posture. A similar scene was probably the subject of a large skyphos by a follower of Douris, thirty years later; a fragment of this, now in New York, preserves the inscribed figures of Peitho, Aphrodite and Erōs, but unfortunately the rest of the scene is lost, so we cannot tell how forceful or otherwise the abduction is, although the figures we do have look rather more still than on the Makron skyphos, their arms by their sides rather than propelling Helen forward.

The Persuasion of Helen is depicted later on the Berlin amphoriskos already discussed in connection with Nemesis (FIGS. 16 and 28). Although the framing pairs of allegorical figures are exceptional, the central scene is a popular motif in red-figure vase-painting of the last third of the fifth century. Over the fifty or so years which divide this from the Makron skyphos a great change of mood has affected the scene: here Helen is not being bundled off to Troy, but is sitting thinking about it. We have at least the illusion that Helen has some choice in the matter, though the odds are stacked against her. She sits on Aphrodite’s lap, with Peitho waiting patiently behind holding a jewellery box, while to the right Paris is being urged on by Himeros. A seated Helen with Aphrodite calls to mind the episode in Iliad 3 where the goddess, having led Helen to Paris’ bedroom, draws up a chair for her; Helen’s contempt for Paris, beaten in combat by Menelaos, is quickly overcome by concern for his life, and the scene ends in love-making. That the Persuasion may well have been the subject of a monumental painting or relief of the fifth century is suggested by the existence of

121 Boston 13.186, 490-80 BC; ARV² 458, 1; Shapiro 1993, no.123 fig.148.
122 New York 07.286.51; ARV² 806, 1; Shapiro 1993, no. 124 fig. 149.
123 Above pp.107-8.
124 ll. 3.421-47; this is a reminiscence of Paris’ original seduction of Helen. On the elements of wedding imagery in the scene, see Constantinidou, 1990, 57: “the details... present the couple's sexual union as an actual wedding".
three Neoattic reliefs of the first century BC depicting the central scene. The best preserved of these is in Naples, showing Paris and Erôs standing to the right, Aphrodite and Helen seated, and a small Peitho perched on a column to the left. Iconographically the Persuasion of Helen is related to the generic bridal adornment scene, and Ghali-Kahil comments on the conflation of the two types on a number of vases of the last third of the fifth and the early fourth century.

A later stage in Helen's story, her recovery by Menelaos, is represented on an oinochoe in the Vatican related in style to the Heimarmene Painter, again from about 430 BC (FIG. 29). Menelaos is charging towards Helen, who is fleeing towards a statue of Athena for asylum, but even as he runs he is being overcome by the combined efforts of Aphrodite, Erôs and Peitho, and has let go of his sword. Apparently Peitho's work is already done, so she is looking away, again holding a flower in her hand. We might compare this with the agon scene of the Trojan Women again; of course Euripides' version of this seduction of Menelaos is accompanied by plenty of rhetorical argument, but there are many references to Helen's visual appeal, and it is clear that he will in the end be "persuaded" by her, despite the superiority of Hekabe's logical arguments. Hekabe's derision of Helen's excuses — "You will not persuade the wise" — is ironic.

125 Naples inv. 6628; Vatican Cortile del Belvedere 58d; New York MM 10.210.27. Icard-Gianolio 1994, nos.16-18; for detailed analysis see Froning 1981, 63-71. For a number of other Roman-period works also related to the scene, see Ghali-Kahil 1955, 225-33, nos.170-9, pls. 34-5.

126 Adornment scene: Oakley and Sinos 1993, 16-21. Ghali-Kahil 1955, 176. For an example of such a conflation, see my article (Stafford 1997b) on the acorn lekythos attributed to Aison, Akropolis 6471, ARV$^2$ 1175, 11 with Beazley Addenda$^2$ 339. On the general tendency of vase-painting to "interfuse the ordinary and the mythical", see Buxton 1994, 54-6.

127 Vatican H 525, ARV$^2$ 1173, Ghali-Kahil 1955 no.72 pl.66, c.430-425 BC. Cf. a lekythos by the Painter of Leningrad 702 in the Hermitage (ex-Botkin) for a similar scene, where Erôs hovers with a phiale, instead of a necklace, from which he is pouring the contents on to Menelaos (ARV$^2$ 1194, 7, Kahil no.70 pl. 62, 3).

128 Simon 1964 discusses this vase at length, arguing that its design is based on one of the metopes from the north side of the Parthenon. She explains Peitho's looking away on the grounds that her gift of eloquence is unnecessary, noting that both literary and artistic representations of the scene make it clear that it was the mere sight of Helen that changed Menelaus' mind. Peitho's non-participation, she argues, is better stressed thus than by omitting her altogether. Understanding Peitho here as representing erotic persuasion is, however, surely the simplicior lectio.

129 Especially 891-2: ὅρων δὲ τὴνδὲ, φεύγε, μὴ σ' ἐλπίδων αἴρεῖ γὰρ ἄνδρών ὑμωταί, ἐξαιρεῖ πόλεις... For the visual element of Persuasion, cf. Aisch. Eum. 970: στέργω δ' ὑμωτα Πειθοδὼς; see Buxton 1982, 112-3 on the erotic connotations of eyes.

130 Eur. Tro. 982 μὴ οὖ πείσεσθε σοφῶς. I have just one possible example of seduction being carried out principally through the medium of words: the tondo of a kylix near the Meidias.
SEDUCTION AND THE WEDDING

The Persuasion of Helen is the paradigmatic adulterous seduction for fifth century Athens, and Peitho's involvement in it underlines her potentially subversive nature. Paradoxically, Peitho also has a role in the eminently conservative institution of the wedding. Buxton comments briefly on Peitho's role as marriage deity in connection with the Artemis cult at Argos, contrasting this with what he sees as "her role as patroness of *hetairai*". In their articles on Peitho, Voigt manages to read nuptial significance into the inscription from Mylasa, and Weizsäcker has a paragraph on Peitho as "Ehegöttin", under the general heading of "Peitho's significance for civic life". None of these, however, makes the connection between this institutional role and the seductive Peitho of the visual arts.

A number of late literary references present Peitho in this light. In Nonnos' *Dionysiaka* Peitho, "in the form of a hard-worked woman", leads Kadmos to his bride Harmonia; she is θεσλαμητιπόλος, "attendant in the bridal chamber", and "delighting in weddings, nurse of Loves". In a later episode she is γαμοστόλος, "wedding-preparing", and arms Dionysos and Poseidon, who are preparing to fight for Beroe's hand in marriage. The general association of Peitho with Hermes we have seen from Hesiod on is articulated in Nonnos' mythology as a husband-wife relationship. The epithet γαμοστόλος is otherwise usually attached to Hera or Aphrodite, as in the *Orphic Hymn to Aphrodite*, where Aphrodite is "wedding-preparing mother of Loves, Painter, c.410 BC, Getty Museum 82.AE.38. This shows a seated woman, labelled Demonassa, apparently being lectured rather earnestly by the female figure standing in front of her, while an Eros stands behind. Marion True (1985, 79-88) identifies the speaker as Peitho because of her pose, overlooking the fact that Peitho does not usually look as though she is engaged in rhetorical persuasion, and equates Demonassa with the Demonassa who accompanies Phaon, the ferryman of Lesbos, on a hydria in Florence (81947). I would like to retain the identification of Peitho, since the way Eros is standing with his hand on Demonassa's shoulder, in collaboration with the speaker, does seem to suggest that some kind of seduction is going on, but I would prefer to think of Demonassa as the daughter of Amphiarao (Paus. 5.17.5, 9.5.15), perhaps being persuaded against her better judgement to marry her future husband Thersander, son of Polynikes (who repeated his father's trick of bribing Eriphyle to send first Amphiarao, then her son Alkmaion, to war against Thebes).  

Buxton 1982, 35, based largely on the putative link between Peitho and *hetairai* at Olynthos (above pp.130-1) and Pindar's Corinthian prostitutes, "servants of Persuasion" (fr.122 S-M). Pirenne-Delforge takes the qualification ἐπιπολοί Ἔπεθος to be merely "joli" (1994, 113); see 10-27 on Akrokorinth's Aphrodite and the question of sacred prostitution.  


Nonn. Dion. 3.84-6, 112: τερπομενην δε γαμοις τιθηνητευον Ερωτων.  

Nonn. Dion. 42.530. See Peek 1968-75, s.v. Τεθοθ.  

Nonn. Dion. 5.574-5, 48.231-2.
enjoying the marriage bed (with/of) Peitho”, as well as “bridal fellow-diner of the
gods”. 136 Kollouthos has Peitho attending a wedding: “and Persuasion came, who had
decorated a bridal wreath”. 137 More direct reference to Peitho’s involvement in actual
wedding ritual is supplied by a sixth-century epigram by Joannes Barbokallos, which
purports to record a rustic bridegroom’s offerings:

Hermophilas the herdsman, bridegroom of budding-wreathed Eurynome,
dedicated curds and honey-combs from the hive to Peitho and the Paphian.
Receive the curds for her sake, the honey for mine.138

That Peitho’s presence here is not just a literary conceit is suggested by two passages
in Plutarch. The second of his Roman Questions asks why five torches are lit as part
of the marriage ceremony, the last of several possible answers being:

Or is it because they think those getting married need five gods, Zeus Teleios, Hera
Teleia, Aphrodite and Peitho, and besides all these Artemis, whom women in child-
birth and labour-pains invoke?139

Although the context is supposedly Roman, the details are all concordant with
Classical Greek practice: Hera the Fulfiller is regularly the presiding goddess of
marriage, with Zeus consecrating the union’s legitimacy and legal status; Aphrodite’s
role in the ἰμερόεντα... ἔργα γάμοιο is established as early as the Iliad (5.429);140
Artemis must be placated by young women leaving her sphere for marriage, or they
risk death in childbirth.141 For Peitho’s function after the wedding we have an
explanation elsewhere in Plutarch:

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Hymn to Aphrodite 55.8-9 and 11: γαμοστόλη μήτερ Ἐρωτῶν,/ Πειθοὶ λεκτροχαρίς... νυμφίδια
συνδίδαι θεών.

137 Koll. 30: καὶ στέφως ἀσκήσασα γαμήλιον ἠλυθε.

138 A.P. 6.55: Πειθοὶ καὶ Παρθία πακτάν καὶ κηρία σύμβλον/ τὰς καλυκοστεφάνου νυμφίος
Εὐρυνύλας/ 'Ἐρμοφίλιας ἀνέθηκεν ὁ βακόλος- ἄλλα δέχεσθαι ἀντ' αὐτῶς πακτάν, ἀντ' ἐμέθεν
τὸ μέλι.

139 Plut. Quaest. Rom. 264b: ἢ ὅτι πέντε δείσθαι θεῶν τοὺς γαμοῦντας σύνονται, Δίος τελείου
καὶ Ἡρας τελείας καὶ Ἀφροδίτης καὶ Πειθοὺς, ἐπὶ πάσι δ' Ἀρτέμιδος, ἢν ταῖς λογείαις καὶ
ταῖς ὀδησίαις οἱ γυναῖκες ἐπικαλοῦνται. On the Roman Questions, see Boulogne 1994, 77-88
(on marriage) and 118-24 (on Plutarch’s conflation of Greek and Roman deities).

140 On Aphrodite and marriage see Pirenne-Delforge 1994, 421-6. She glosses Peitho’s
presence in the Plutarch: “Peitho facilite le passage de la jeune mariée de la maison de son
père à celle de son époux” (421), but without explaining why.

141 Burkert 1985a, 133 and 135 (Hera), and 151 with nn.24-5 (Artemis). The garments of
those who had died in childbirth were dedicated at Brauron: Eur. /A 1464-7; cf. temple
inventories, IG II² 1514-16. Peitho does not seem to have found her way into the Roman
pantheon. She is not listed by Axtell, and the few references to her as Suada or Suadela are
The ancients worshipped Hermes alongside Aphrodite, since communication is very necessary for happiness in marriage, and Persuasion and the Graces, so that couples might persuade each other to do what they want, and not fight or be contentious. While this is obviously a rationalisation, it brings us back to the combination of Peitho and the Charites seen in Hesiod, and the Thasian, Parian and Lesbian cults. For Peitho’s involvement in the wedding itself we must return to fifth century Athens and the evidence of vase-painting.

There have been hints of wedding ritual in several of the vases already mentioned, which bear interesting comparison with Oakley and Sinos’ illustrations of the Athenian Wedding. Without the inscriptions marking it as a Persuasion of Helen, the central scene of the Berlin amphoriskos would be a generic bridal adornment scene. On Makron’s skyphos Paris leads Helen by the wrist with the gesture of a groom leading his bride to her new home, while Aphrodite adjusts Helen’s veil, like the bridesmaids (nymphéutriai) in many wedding scenes. On the fragmentary New York skyphos which probably depicted the same scene, Peitho is pulling at her himation in a gesture often associated with the anakalypteria, the unveiling of the bride. On a lekythos in London Peitho prepares a kanoun for Aphrodite, which could again be a wedding reference, as such baskets appear in a number of wedding scenes, though they seem to have been used in other rituals as well.

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144 Oakley and Sinos 1993. Oakley (1995, 66) comments that wedding iconography is appropriate for Helen as she is “the mythical bride par excellence”; see fig. 8 for Helen in a bridal adornment scene (kylix, name-vase of the Painter of Berlin F 2438, c.430 BC).

145 Oakley 1995, 65. On the gesture chei’r epi karpo and abduction in wedding imagery, see Jenkins 1983. The groom leads the bride by the wrist in Oakley and Sinos 1993 figs. 82, 85, 87, 94, 97, 102, 106, 10 and 118, in most cases attended by a nymphéuteria adjusting her veil/urging her forward. Oakley and Sinos take Peitho’s presence on Makron’s skyphos as an indication of divine intercession, suggesting that the bride here is going willingly, negating the idea of violent abduction (33).

146 On the anakalypteria, see Oakley and Sinos 1993, 25 with nn.17-18.

147 Manner of the Meidias Painter, 410-400 BC, London E697; ARV² 1324, 45; Shapiro 1993, no.21 fig. 163.
The Eretria Painter’s epinetron in Athens, of 425-20 BC, may go some way towards explaining Peitho’s involvement with institutional unions (FIG. 30). Three scenes are depicted: on the end, Peleus pursues Thetis, and on one side Alkestis is visited by friends after her wedding night. On the other, a bridal adornment is in progress: the bride is seated in the centre, attended by three women, while a friend or her mother is seated to left; there are two winged youths who provide ample indication of the erotic context. Inscriptions identify the bride as Harmonia, her mother as Aphrodite, and the three standing females as Peitho, Kore and Hebe; the youths are Eros and Himeros. Of course, these are all familiar mythological names, and Aphrodite really is Harmonia’s mother, but this is a unique combination of the characters. Shapiro makes a good case for an allegorical reading of the scene: the good bride-to-be (Harmonia) is being encouraged by the experienced Aphrodite, with the help of Persuasion, to leave behind her maidenhood (Kore) and enter properly into her prime (Hebe); in other words we have here the traditional pre-marriage instruction session, the bride being decked out with sexual knowledge as well as with such trappings as jewellery and perfume.

Oakley and Sinos comment on the striking emphasis in extant vase-painting on two parts of the wedding ceremony, the procession and the bride among her friends, either preparing for the wedding or receiving gifts after the wedding night. While

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148 Athens NM 1629; ARV² 1250, 34 and 1688; Shapiro 1993, no. 47 fig. 58.
149 See Oakley and Sinos 1993, 41-2 figs. 128-30. Their identification of the Alkestis frieze as an epaulia scene (the bride is leaning against the doorway to a bedroom) makes sense of the whole vase as depicting three stages in the wedding process, each associated with a different mythical heroine.
150 Cf. Aisch. Suppl. 1038-42 for the combination of Aphrodite, Pothos, Harmonia and Peitho in the context of marriage properly conducted, as contrasted to the forced union of the Danaids with the sons of Aigyptos. Similarly, in the P.V. Prometheus’ happy marriage to Hesione involves peitho (560), in contrast to the unhappy plight of Io, raped by Zeus (Buxton 1982, 86-7 and 99).
151 Shapiro 1986, 14-20; more briefly, Shapiro 1993, 105-6, no. 47 fig. 58.
152 Peitho is not often involved in the seduction of a man (the only other example I know of is Menelaos’ change of heart on the Vatican oinochoe), but she does assist in the persuasion of Adonis, on a rather unusual relief oinochoe, St. Petersburg 108K, c.400 BC; Shapiro 1993, no. 131 fig. 167 (for good reproduction of the inscriptions, see Icard-Gianolio 1994, no. 20*). Like the Homeric Hymn to Aphrodite, this is an exceptional case, the seduction of a mortal man by a goddess, and the goddess of love at that. Adonis is placed in the position of the hesitating Helen or inexperienced bride, Eros and Peitho softening him up to receive his ardent lover. Peitho appears in an unexpected Orphic genealogy which makes her and Eros parents of Hygieia (Proklos, in Tim. p.158e = 2.63.29, 64.2, Diehl); should this be taken to mean that willing participation in sex leads to healthy offspring?
153 Oakley and Sinos 1993, 44. The preparation and the epaulia scenes are often difficult to distinguish.
the public procession dominates earlier wedding imagery, a shift in favour of the more private parts of the ceremony can be seen in the last third of the fifth and the early fourth century, perhaps to be explained by the general trend towards escapism in vase-painting of this period, or by an increasingly romantic view of the wedding. The motifs of adornment, emphasising the bride's entry into the sphere of Aphrodite, can be read as elements of seduction, an interpretation emphasised by Peitho's occasional inclusion: "we must think of the bride not only as being the target of persuasion but also as acquiring the power represented by this divine figure." Oakley and Sinos' conclusion that the "seductive" element of Athenian wedding imagery reflects a less passive view of women than traditionally held may be a little optimistic, but the essential point, that seduction and the wedding are not mutually exclusive categories, is an important one.

CONCLUSION

To summarise: our earliest evidence for the cult of Peitho outside Athens is the fifth-century inscription from Thasos; at Sikyon the cult may be a late fourth-century innovation; in the Hellenistic period we have reasonable attestations for Paros, Mylasa, and Olynthos. At Pharsalos an elusive inscription indicates an Aphrodite Peitho, possibly associated with marriage, and Peitho appears again as a cult title of Aphrodite at Knidos and on Lesbos in the Hellenistic period; that she is not a separate deity in the last two places could be explained by the importance of Aphrodite's cult there, the old goddess incorporating Persuasion among her many aspects. At Argos we hear of a cult of Artemis Peitho of uncertain date. For Attika a reasonable case can be made for a cult of Peitho at Athens, in association with Aphrodite Pandemos, from at least the late fifth century. The "epithet theory" is at first sight tempting, given Peitho's appearances both as a title of Aphrodite and as an independent goddess, but in no single location do we have evidence of a chronological sequence from the one to the other. Rather than trying to impose such a linear-development model, a more sensible approach is perhaps to see Peitho as generally closely associated with Aphrodite, but

154 Oakley and Sinos 1993, 46. In literature women who "persuade" men may be regarded with some suspicion — Homer's Hera deceiving Zeus (ll. 14.214 ff.), Hesiod's Pandora (above), Pindar's Corinthian prostitutes (above) — but Hera and Pandora both do so within the context of marriage. See above on Argos for Peitho herself as a wife.
the exact nature of the relationship being subject to local variations, and expressed differently according to medium.  

This association with Aphrodite is Peitho’s most consistent characteristic in cult and in the visual arts. In literature she very occasionally appears in a more political context — Alkman’s sister of Eunomia and Tyche, Herodotos’ story of Themistokles and the Andrians — but these references are heavily outweighed by her appearances in the erotic sphere.  

Buxton’s brief account of “secular peitho” in literature from Homer to Plato suggests a shift from an archaic erotic and “bewitching” persuasion to a later Classical emphasis on peitho’s rhetorical side. That the abstract concept should develop in this direction is hardly surprising in the context of the growth of the sophistic movement and the opportunities for rhetoric provided by Athens’ political and legal institutions. The goddess can indeed occasionally be seen to share in this rhetorical aspect, but only in literary accounts — Pausanias on the cults at Sikyon and Argos, Aristophanes’ sophistic Euripides, Isokrates on Athenian attitudes towards eloquence — which are predisposed to favour the persuasive power of the word. For Peitho’s much commented-upon association with Artemis, rather than Aphrodite, in the Peloponnese we are entirely dependent on Pausanias. The antiquity of the cults at Sikyon or Argos is open to question, but the latter at least may be explained by the common connection of both Artemis and Peitho with marriage, as suggested by Plutarch. The bulk of our evidence for actual cult practice suggests that Peitho was primarily worshipped as an associate of Aphrodite, and even Aphrodite’s epithet Pandemos at Athens is as susceptible to erotic as to “democratic” explanations. As late as the theatre-seat inscriptions Aphrodite Pandemos seems to have some connection with Nympha, the Bride, and Peitho’s appearances in fifth-century Attic vase-painting involve her in the seduction of Helen, in imagery taken from representations of the wedding. Peitho may have “no other temple but logos” for Aristophanes’ Euripides, but clearly her significance for the majority of her worshippers lay in the far from “logical” sphere of love and marriage.

156 Alkman fr. 64 Page, Hdt 8.111f. See Buxton 1982, 36-45 for a survey. The Peitho of the Oresteia is much cited as political in character, but her magical/erotic side is just as apparent; see Buxton 1982, 105-13; Gross 1985, 16-19.
HYGIEIA: “NON DEA SED DONUM DEI”?

Health, greatest of the blessed gods, may I live with you for the rest of my life, and may you be a willing inmate of my house. For if there is any joy in wealth or children, or in a king’s godlike power over men, or in the desires which we hunt with Aphrodite’s hidden nets, or if any other delight or rest from labours has been revealed by the gods to mortals, it is with your help, blessed Health, that all things flourish and shine to the Graces’ murmuring. Without you no one is happy.

Ariphron, Hymn to Hygieia

Ariphron wrote his hymn to Hygieia around 400 BC, and its long-lasting appeal is attested by the fact of its inscription on stelai from Athens and Epidaurus, as well as by citations in writers as late as the Middle Ages. On the Athens stele, of c. AD 200, now in Kassel, it is inscribed between hymns to Asklepios and Telesphoros, while on the Epidauran stele Hygieia’s hymn is followed by hymns to Asklepios and Athena. The latter is one of a pair of stones on which six hymns are inscribed, and since one is headed ὄρᾳ τριτῇ Bremer suggests these may have formed a “breviary-on-stone” for daily worship. Certainly the hymn, with all its literary refinement, must have been in official cult use, while in Athenaios it appears in a more domestic context, sung as the equivalent of a prayer at the end of a meal.

Less well preserved is the Chian Likymnios’ hymn, more or less contemporary with

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1 Ariphron, ap. Athen. 15.702: Ὑγίεια, πρεσβύτατα μακάρον, μετὰ σοῦ ναίομι τὸ λειτανίμενον βιοῦ, σὺ δὲ μοι πρόφαν σύνοικος ἐτής· εἰ γὰρ τις ἢ πλοῦτον χάρις ἢ τεκέων· ἢ τῶν ἰσοδαίμονος ανθρώπων βασιλικός ἀρχάς ἢ πόθον, οὗς κρυφοίς Ἀφροδίτας ἀρκύσων θηρεύμεν, ἢ εἰ τις ἄλλος θεὸν ἀνθρώποις τερήσῃ ἢ πόνων ἀμπυνακά πέφανται, μετὰ σέδε, μάκαρι Ὑγίεια, τέθαλε πάντα καὶ λάμπει Χαρίτων ὀρός· σέθαν δὲ χορίς σὺνς εὐδαιμόν ἐσο. For my purposes, the only significant variant on this text is the insertion of βροτοτάσι after Ὑγίεια in l.1, “greatest for mortals” (PMG 813).
2 Ariphron’s date: choregic inscription, IG II² 3092. Citations: see Campbell Greek Lyric V Loeb, 1993, 134-7 (most recent edition of the hymn).
Ariphron’s, which addresses Hygieia as “Bright-eyed mother, longed-for queen of Apollo’s holy throne on high, softly-smiling Health.”

From such invocations it would seem that the goddess Hygieia was held in high regard. She was present in the form of statues or votive reliefs, and invoked in inscriptions, in sanctuaries of Asklepios all over the Greek world. Hygieia came to Rome as part of the cult of Aesculapius in 293 BC, where she continued to flourish long after she was officially identified with and absorbed by Salus in 180 BC, and evidence of her worship in the imperial period has been found in places as far apart as Rouen and Ptolemais. But while the cult of Hygieia is amply documented from the fourth century BC on, its origins are obscure, and her consistent dependence on the male Asklepios is a striking feature. Unlike Themis, Nemesis and Peitho, she does not appear in extant literature or art before her earliest attestation in cult, and she has very little mythological role to provide personal characterisation, making her status as a personification the more immediately apparent. Recent studies of Hygieia’s iconography and cult make an exhaustive account of the evidence unnecessary here, but this combination of impersonality and widespread worship makes her an interesting case for our investigation. I shall look in particular at the question of the goddess’ origins and her relationship with the concept she embodies.

7 Sobel 1990 (see end pages, for maps showing the distribution of Hygieia’s cult, as attested by written sources/archaeological evidence) and Croissant 1990; with 238 LIMC entries, Hygieia comes second only to Nemesis amongst personifications in popularity. Hamdorf (1960, 47-8 and 105-6) gives his usual synopsis of the material.  
8 An early version of this chapter was delivered as a paper at the conference Hygieia: Good Health in Antiquity, held at Exeter in September 1994. Amongst the audience there, Karen Stears, Helen King and Veronika Grimm were especially helpful in their comments and suggestions. I owe my references to medical writers to Rebecca Flemming.
"Without you no one is happy"

A thorough investigation of the word *hygieia* and its usage is beyond the scope of this chapter, but a few definitions from a variety of writers may be useful in establishing what it is that Hygieia represents. In later medical writers *hygieia* is a technical term, opposed to *nosos*, “disease, sickness”, and closely defined as a matter of the correct balance between the elements:

For health and disease come about concerning the powers of the primary bodies from which living creatures are composed, that is the elements, the powers of which are heat, cold, moisture and dryness. For it is in the due proportion of these powers with each other that health consists, and disease consists in the disproportion of these same things.\(^9\)

Galen gives a similar definition at the beginning of the *Hygiene*, but elsewhere comments on the more popular usage of the terms:

I see all men using the nouns *hygieia* and *nosos* thus... For they consider the person in whom no activity of any part is impaired “to be healthy”, but someone in whom one of them is impaired “to be sick”.\(^10\)

Plutarch provides an example of such non-technical usage in the course of his account of the meaning of “ox-hunger”, likewise contrasting *hygieia* with *nosos* and perhaps implying that the former is the natural state:

Since any kind of starvation, and particularly *boulimos*, resembles a disease, inasmuch as it occurs when the body has been affected unnaturally, people quite reasonably contrast it (with the normal state), as they do want with wealth and disease with health.\(^11\)

In a medical context, *hygieia* is clearly “soundness of body”, and such good health is also implied in more general usage. Non-medical texts go further, like Ariphron, making *hygieia* not only a good thing, but one without which none of life’s other advantages can be enjoyed. The general idea is familiar in the late twentieth century — “He that wants health wants all”\(^12\) — and it seems to have become a commonplace

\(^9\) Alexander of Aphrodisias Quaestiones 1.9; tr. Sharples 1992, 46.
\(^10\) Hygiene: Green 1951, 5. On the Therapeutic Method 1.5.4; translation Hankinson 1991, 22.
\(^11\) Plut. Quaest. Conv. 6.8 (Moralia 694b): ἐπεὶ δὲ πᾶς μὲν ἔστεκεν ὅλα λιμὸς νόσος, μᾶλλον δ' ὁ βουλίμος, ὅτι γίνεται παθόντος παρὰ φόσιν τοῦ σώματος, εἰκότες αὐτοπάττουσιν ὡς μὲν ἐνδειξὶ τὸν πλοῦτον ὡς δὲ νόσῳ τὴν υγῖειν. Also in this chapter are Plutarch’s accounts of the holocaust to Boubrostis at Smyrna and the Chaireonian “driving out of Ox-hunger” (see below p.193 on Ploutos).
\(^12\) Penguin Dictionary of Proverbs (1983, no.87.8).
in Greek literature. Simonides is supposed to have voiced the sentiment that “there is no pleasure in beautiful wisdom if a man does not have holy health”, and the primacy of health is similarly asserted in a much-quoted drinking song attributed to Simonides or Epicharmos:

To be healthy is best for mortal man,  
second is to be of beautiful appearance,  
third is to be wealthy without trickery,  
and fourth to be young with one’s friends.  

The primacy or otherwise of health as “a good” is explicitly discussed by Sextus Empiricus in Against the Ethicists, in the course of an argument as to whether good and evil really exist. In demonstrating that opinions about what is good and what is evil conflict, he uses the example of hygieia, a subject particularly familiar to him, since he himself was a physician. He quotes Arifron, Likymnios and Simonides, in support of the statement “Now, that hygieia is a good, and the prime good, has been asserted by not a few of the poets and writers and generally by all ordinary folk.” For an expert opinion he cites Herophilos, the Kean physician, c.300 BC, who “in his Dietetics affirms that wisdom cannot display itself and art is non-evident and strength unexerted and wealth useless and speech powerless in the absence of health.” Others, particularly the Academics and Peripatetics, recognise health as a good, but not the prime good. A “pleasing illustration” of this point of view is attributed to Krantor, a disciple of Xenokrates, c.300 BC. We are to picture a theatre, with the goods entering one by one and competing for the first prize, each presenting a more convincing case than the last. First comes Wealth (πλοῦτος), then Pleasure (ἡ ηδονή). Third, Health explains that in her absence there is no profit in pleasure or wealth, quoting Euripides: “What does wealth profit me when I am..."
sick? I would rather live a painless life, having a little day by day, than be rich and suffer sickness.” 17 But last of all enters Courage (η ἀνδρεία), claiming that her presence is essential for the maintenance of all the others, so health ends up with only second place.

For a more populist consideration of hygieia’s ranking as a good thing, we might turn to Lucian’s De Lapsu. This is ostensibly an apology to a patron for “a slip of the tongue in greeting”: Lucian accidentally said “Health to you” when protocol required “Joy to you”. But he takes the opportunity for a disquisition on the three forms of greeting τὸ χαίρειν, τὸ υγιαίνειν and τὸ εὖ πράττειν, giving examples of the usage of each from various philosophers and other writers, as well as adducing supposedly historical instances, to show that wishing someone health in fact encompasses both “joy” and “doing well”. Apparently, Plato rejected “Joy to you” as bad and pointless, substituting “Do well”, while Pythagoras advised his pupils to use “Health to you”. They always began serious letters to one another with it, as “the greeting most suitable for both body and soul, encompassing all human goods”. 18 Epicurus, too, started letters to his dearest friends “Health to you”, and the greeting often comes first in epic, tragedy and Old Comedy. Philemon says, “First I beg good health, and second doing well, thirdly to have joy, and last to owe no debts”. 19 The Simonides drinking song is cited, then the first line of Ariphron’s hymn: “I need hardly mention that most familiar piece of all which is on everyone’s lips... Then if health is greatest of the gods, her work, the enjoyment of health, is likewise to be put before the other goods”. 20 One of Lucian’s “historical” examples is Pyrrhos of Epiros: in all his prayers to the gods, he never asked for victory or glory or excessive


18 De lapsu 5: ὡς καὶ αὐτὸ ψυχήεται καὶ σώματι ἀρμοδιώτατον καὶ συνόλος ἄπαντα περιείλησεν τὰνθρωπινον ἀγαθά. Lucian goes on to assert that these Pythagoreans even called the Pentagram, the triple intersecting triangle which they used as a symbol of their sect, “Health”, and some, e.g. Philolaos, called the Quaternion (i.e. the sum of first four integers, 1+2+3+4=10) “the Beginning of Health”.

19 De lapsu 6: αὐτὸ δ’ ὑγιείαν πράτεται, εἰτ’ εὐπραξίαν/ τρίτον δὲ χαίρειν, εἰτ’ ὁρείλειν μὴ δέν.

20 De lapsu 6: ἵνα σοι μὴ τὸ γνωριμώτατον ἐκείνο καὶ πᾶς διὰ στόματος λέγω, Ὑγιεία... ὅστε εἰ πρεσβύτητι ἑστίν ύγιεία, καὶ τὸ ἐργον αὐτῆς τὸ υγιαίνειν προτακτέον τῶν ἄλλων ἀγαθῶν.
wealth, but only to be healthy (ὑγιαίνειν); he was sure that if he had this he would easily get all the rest. Lucian comments, “I think he was right when he considered that all the good things in the world are worth nothing when health is the one thing missing.”

He ends his case by suggesting that his slip of the tongue was inspired by Hygieia herself or by Asklepios, in order that his patron might be promised health through him, and prays that Asklepios might accept this composition.

The concept Hygieia embodies, then, is good health, physical soundness which is a necessary prerequisite for a good life. This puts her in a rather different conceptual category from “order”, “righteous anger” and “persuasion” — though “health” is grammatically an abstract, it is manifested in extremely tangible forms, of immediate personal interest to everyone. For anyone with a Christian background the deification of such a physical, earth-bound state is particularly difficult to comprehend, and St Augustine’s rationalisation appealing: “she is not a goddess, but a gift of God”.

**HYGIEIA’S ORIGINS**

Hygieia first appears as an autonomous deity in 420 BC when she arrives in Athens with Asklepios; before this her history seems to be divided into two strands, in Athens and in the Peloponnese. A cult of Athena Hygieia seems to have been observed on the Athenian Akropolis from at least the first half of the fifth century.

A dedication of c.475 BC by the potter Euphronios, found on the Akropolis, is often cited as honouring Athena Hygieia, although the inscription is very fragmentary, and an alternative restoration would make the dedicatee Apollo Paian; in either case it seems just as plausible to read *hygieia* as the concept rather than as an epithet of Athena, in a prayer for health. Less equivocal evidence is provided, however, by a

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21 *De lapsu* 11: καὶ ἄριστα οἶμαι ἑθρόνει, λογιζόμενος ὅτι οὐδὲν ὁφελός τῶν ἀπάντων ἄγαθον, ἐστ’ ἄν τοῦ ὑγιαίνειν μόναν ἀπή.
22 *De lapsu* 15 and 19. At 13 he points out that the Roman greeting salve is equivalent to τὸ ὑγιαίνειν.
23 *City of God* 4.20; this is actually applied to Virtus, but Health would certainly fall within the category of minor deities lambasted throughout book 4; see above pp.58-9.
24 See above pp.60-1 on the noun-noun combination.
25 *IG* i 824, B 4: ...ἀν [ἡ]γιαίνα(ν...])v. *DAA* 255-8, no.225. The supposition that this is sound evidence for an early cult of Athena Hygieia persists: e.g. Aleshire 1989, 12 and n.1; Ridgway 1992, 137 and n.62; Shapiro 1993, 125; Robertson 1996, 47. Maxmin ingeniously
vase fragment also from the first half of the fifth century bearing the graffito "Kallis made and dedicated this to Athena Hygieia". 26 Although not much of the vase survives, the image over which the dedication is inscribed could well be an armed Athena: most of the shield can be seen, decorated with a snake, held against flowing drapery. The shield device might call to mind Hygieia's usual attribute, but snakes are also associated with Athena in her own right. We do not hear of Athena Hygieia again until the 430s, but here we have both a complete inscription and a story to go with it, Plutarch's account of an accident which happened in the course of Perikles' building programme on the Akropolis. A workman engaged on the Propylaia fell from a great height, and was so badly injured that doctors despaired of him, but Athena appeared to Perikles in a dream and prescribed a course of treatment, which rapidly healed the man: "It was in commemoration of this that he set up the bronze statue of Athena Hygieia on the Akropolis near her altar, which was there before, as they say." 27 The details of the story, with its combination of divine intervention and practical treatment, probably owe much to the authors' knowledge of later healing procedures at Epidauros and other Asklepieia, but such a statue was indeed dedicated at around this time. A base found just inside the Propylaia attests a public dedication, rather than a private one by Perikles: "The Athenians to Athena Hygieia. Pyrrhos the Athenian made (this)." 28 The base is still in situ, next to an altar of the same period, which perhaps replaced an older altar destroyed in the course of the new building work in the 430s. Athena Hygieia appears only rarely after 420 and the arrival of Asklepios with his associate. In the 330s sacrifices to her at the Lesser Panathenaia are recorded as having been funded by taxes levied on the recently recovered territory

26 IG I3 506 (Athens Akropolis 1367): 'Ἀθηνᾶιαιάτι ὕπτερον φέρεσθαι την Αθηναίαν Ἔγυμεν' καὶ ὄνειθησεν; ARV2 1556; Wolters 1891, 154-7; Graef and Langlotz 1933, no. 1367 and pl. 91.
27 Plut. Perikles 13.7-8. Cf. Pausanias (1.23.4), who takes care to distinguish between a statue of Hygieia "who people say is daughter of Asklepios" and one of Athena "who also bears the surname Hygieia". Pliny probably conflates the two: Pyrrhus (fecit) Hygiam et Minervam (NH 34.80). Wolters (1891, 159-60) suggests that the statue was perhaps dedicated in thanks at the end of the plague in the early 420s.
28 IG I3 506: 'Ἀθηνᾶιαιάτι τῇ Ἀθηναίᾳ τῇ Ἔγυμεν. Πύρρος ἐποίησεν Ἀθηναίαν. DAA 185-88 and 523, no. 166 (two close-ups of the inscription). See Travlos (1971, 124 fig. 170) for a good photograph of the base. Ridgway dismisses the discrepancy as to dedicator as an example of ancient sources preserving a "distorted version of the truth" (1996, 137-8).
of Oropos. Elsewhere in Attika Athena Hygieia is only mentioned once, and in passing, by Pausanias, as having an altar at Acharnai.

It would be interesting to know what this Athena Hygieia looked like. Attempts have been made to identify replicas of Pyrrhos' statue in the type of Athena best known from that in the Hope collection. The main reason for making a connection between the two seems to be that the Hope Athena was found together with statues of Asklepios and Hygieia, as there is nothing obvious in her iconography to suggest the identification: her helmet is decorated with pairs of sphinxes and winged horses, and her aegis has a particularly dense trimming of snakes, features all explicable in terms of Athena's own mythology. The identification has been discredited on technical grounds, as the marks on the base do not fit with the feet of any of the Hope Athena copies. The cuttings rather indicate that the statue which the base supported had its right foot forward, the left drawn back and turned outwards, with a spear held in the left hand anchored to the base. Robertson has recently suggested that the cult statue of Athena Hygieia should be identified with the Athena Promachos, which in turn should be associated with the striding Athena depicted on Panathenaic amphoras; Pyrrhos's statue would have been a smaller-scale version of this, not striding quite so actively. His argument seems to be based largely on an anecdote by Cassius Dio which records that, during the battle of Actium, a statue of Athena on the Athenian Akropolis turned from east to west and spat blood, indicating that the gods favoured Octavian rather than Antony; such a

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29 IG II² 334.8-10: ... θρόεν δὲ τοὺς ἱεροποιούς τὰς μὲν δύο/ [θυσίας τὴν τέ τῆ] Ἀθηνᾶι τῇ ὑγιείᾳ καὶ τὴν ἐν τῷ ἄρ-λῃκαίῳ νεώτ θυοβελην... Humphreys 1985, 208.
30 Paus. 1.31.6. Athena Hygieia appears once outside Attika, though not until the second century AD, at Hieron near Epidaurus, in a dedication made by a priest of Asklepios: 'Αθηνᾶι ὑγιείᾳ ὁ ἱερεύς τοῦ Σωτήρος Ἀσκληπιοῦ Μάρκου Ἰωάννου Δαδοῦχος (Cavvadias, Epidaure 49). Shapiro (1993, 126 n.265) suggests than an altar inscribed with the name Hygieia found in the temenos of Athena Proneia at Delphi might be another instance of Athena Hygieia's cult; its location may be indicated by the conspicuous inscription 'ΥΓΙΕΙΑΣ on the inside of the temenos wall.
31 I am indebted to Birte Lundgren for information extracted from her notes for an entry on the Hope Athena in the Ashmole Archive. For a refutation of Studniczka's identification of the Hope Athena with Pyrrhos' statue, see Mathiopoulos 1968, 105-6. Mathiopoulos argues that Pyrrhos' statue was as important a work as the original of the Hope/Farnese type, which inspired the production of many replicas.
32 Robertson 1996, 47-8; he perhaps dismisses the difference in stance too lightly. Athena Promachos: Paus. 1.28.2; schol. Demosth. Against Androton 13.
33 Cassius Dio 54.7.3.
statue, he maintains, ought to be out of doors (to make the most of the orientation point) and spitting blood suggests an association with Hygieia. Plutarch’s account, however, seems to imply that the statue of the 330s was erected next to an altar which had previously stood by itself, and while it may be possible to associate the Athena of Panathenaic amphoras with an outdoor sanctuary and statue, it is difficult to see what her connection would be with Hygieia.34

For the Peloponnese, we have two testimonies to Hygieia’s existence before 420, a fact which has led some to postulate that she originated in this area as an autonomous deity who became associated with Asklepios because of their similarity of function.35 But we have very little to go on, and what we do have already associates Hygieia with Asklepios. Pausanias lists statues of Hygieia and Asklepios among the series of statues by Dionysios of Argos which stood along the south side of the temple of Zeus at Olympia. These were dedicated by Mickythos (treasurer of Anaxilas tyrant of Rhegion, later regent for his children) around 460 BC, apparently in thanks for a miraculous cure brought about by prayer at Olympia.36 At Titane, in the northern Peloponnese, there was an Asklepieion supposed to have been established by Alexanor, son of Machaon and grandson of Asklepios. Pausanias describes the statue of Asklepios as very ancient, dressed in a white woollen tunic and cloak, and that of Hygieia as being almost hidden by the swathes of “Babylonian clothing” and masses of women’s hair offered to her.37 Such clothed statues and offerings might indicate a cult of greater antiquity than the fourth century, and the account implies that it was popularly observed.38 That the cult of Hygieia was well established in this locality by the end of the fifth century is suggested by the fact that Arhiphon, author of our hymn, came from Sikyon, just a few miles away from Titane. He calls her πρεσβύτα (l.1) another possible indication of her antiquity, though given the context this may mean “most important” rather than “oldest” of the gods.

34 See Neils (1992, 36-7) for the attribution of such a sanctuary to a “Panathenaic Athena”.
35 See Croissant 1990, 554.
36 Paus. 5.26.2; cf. Hdt. 7.170 on Mickythos.
37 Paus. 2.11.6: φαίνεται δὲ τὸ ἀγαλματος πρόσωπον μόνον καὶ ἄκραι χεῖρες καὶ πόδες.
χιτών γὰρ οἱ λευκοὶ ἔρευς καὶ ἱμάτιον ἐπιβέβλησεν. καὶ Ὀυγείας δ’ ἔστι κατὰ ταύτων ἀγαλμάτων
οὐκ ἂν ὡς τόσον ἠδοκείας ῥάδιος, οὕτω περιέχουσιν αὐτὸ κόμια τε γυναικῶν αἱ
κειμέναι τῇ θεῷ καὶ ἐσθίοις βαβυλωνίας τελαμόνες.
38 On dressing statues, see Romano 1988.
The two strands come together with Hygieia's arrival in Athens in the wake of the Epidaurian Asklepios in 420 BC, an event recorded on the Telemachos Monument, which gives an exceptionally detailed account of the founding of the cult. From fragments found on the site of Asklepios' sanctuary on the south slope of the Akropolis, the monument can be reconstructed as consisting of a tablet carved with reliefs on both sides, supported by a pilaster with inscriptions and reliefs on all four sides (FIG. 31a). On the main relief Asklepios is shown standing, to the right, with a female companion seated on a table, beneath which crouches a dog; a smaller-scale figure to the left, his hand raised in a gesture of prayer, must be a human, quite plausibly Telemachos himself (FIGS. 31b). The presence of the dog may be paralleled by the animal's association with the hero in his sanctuaries at Epidaurus and the Peiraeus. The larger male figure is recognisable as Asklepios on iconographic grounds, being bearded and semi-draped, but the female is without distinguishing attributes. The identity of both, however, can be inferred from the account of Telemachos' contribution to the cult's foundation inscribed on the one reasonably well-preserved side of the pilaster (FIG. 31c):

Telemachos founded the sanctuary and altar to Asklepios first, and Hygieia, the sons of Asklepios and his daughters and... Coming up from Zea during the Great Mysteries he (Asklepios) was conveyed to the Eleusinion; and having sent for servants at his own expense, Telemachos brought him (Asklepios) here on a wagon, in accordance with an oracle; at the same time came Hygieia; and so the whole sanctuary was established in the archonship of Astyphilos of Kydantidai....

39 Fragments of relief, side A: i) Hygieia (?): Athens NM 2477 and London BM 1920.6-161; ii) Asklepios: Padua Mus. Civ.; iii) Telemachos (?): Verona, Mus. Maffeiano. See Beschi 1982 for a full discussion of the fragments and reconstruction of the monument. He shows Mitropoulou's 1975 reconstruction and identification of the two divine figures as Amynos and a companion to be unsound. The relief on side B Beschi interprets as recording Asklepios' journey from Epidaurus via the Piraeus to Athens in symbolic terms, depicting a ship and waves on the right, on the left the propylon of the new Asklepieion.

40 Thrasymedes' chryselephantine cult statue of Asklepios at Epidauros had a dog lying at its side (Paus. 2.27.2). Dogs and Kynagetai are among the recipients of bloodless sacrifice specified in a fourth-century lex sacra from the Peiraeus Asklepieion (IG II² 4962 a.8-10; see below n.91).

41 IG II² 4960 fr.a.1-20 (SEG XXV 226; Athens EM 8821): [Πηλέμαχος ιδηρύσατο τό ύπορόν και τόν βολμόν τόν 'Ασκληπιδαυα τοὺς 'Ασκληπινίποις και γυναῖκας 'Ασκληπίου θυγατέρας καὶ τοῖς μεγάλοις κατήγατο ἐς τὸ Ἐλευσίνιον] καὶ οἴκοθεν μεταπεμφώθην διὰ κοπαίδον ἅγιαν δέησεν ἕως ὁμάτος] Τηλέμαχος[ ἔχα θρησκήμον ἡμᾶς Ἰλίδεας καὶ] οὔτος ἢδοθεν [τὸ ιερόν τούτῳ ὑπὰν ἐπὶ] [Ἀστυφίλῳ ἄρχοντας Κυδαντίδου]. I am following the text proposed by Clinton, based on his own examination of the stone (1994b, 21-5).
It has been generally held that Asklepios travelled in the form of a snake, but Clinton has recently made a good case for the alternative restoration of the inscription adopted here, and suggests that both Asklepios and Hygieia took the more orthodox form of statues, eventually to be put up in the new sanctuary. Clinton has recently made a good case for the alternative restoration of the inscription adopted here, and suggests that both Asklepios and Hygieia took the more orthodox form of statues, eventually to be put up in the new sanctuary. This journey from the Piraeus was commemorated annually thereafter by the Epidauria, held on the 17th Boedromion, a conveniently empty day in the midst of the older festival of the Eleusinian Mysteries. Clinton demonstrates that the connection with Epidauros was not only emphasised by the festival’s name, but also by the regular participation of officials from Epidauros; this he connects with the important role of Eleusinian officials in bringing Asklepios to the Eleusinion, and possibly previously to Zea, which Telemachos’ account carefully down-plays, stressing rather that his own part in the proceedings had the approval of Delphi. A second festival, the Asklepieia, was held on the 8th Elaphebolion, the day of the “Preliminary to the Contest” at the beginning of the City Dionysia, although we have little information on this. Asklepios must have been known in Athens long before 420, but it is only with Telemachos’ formal introduction that the cult begins to be observed, and the sanctuary with which it is associated probably remained essentially private for the first fifty to seventy-five years of its existence, not receiving state funding until the mid fourth century.

The Telemachos Monument is also the first time Hygieia is seen in Athens as a goddess separate from Athena. As we have seen, Hygieia was probably already associated with Asklepios in the Peloponnese, and is attested at Epidauros at least as early as the turn of the fifth to the fourth century. Clinton argues against the idea of

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42 Clinton 1994b, 23-4. Such “ancient images (aphidrymata)” of Asklepios and Hygieia are referred to in a decree from the Athenian Asklepieion of 52/1 BC (IG II² 1046.13-14).
45 Aischines 3.67; IG II² 1496.109-10, 133-5, 150; SEG XVIII.26.11 (restored).
46 In the Iliad Asklepios is of course father of the physician heroes Machaon and Podaleirios, leaders of the contingent from Trikka, Ithome and Oichalia. Hesiod’s Catalogue of Women (frs. 50-2 M.W.) apparently told the story of Asklepios’ life, and a fuller version appears in Pindar Pythian 3.25-60. On the Homeric Asklepios see Walton 1894, 1-7; Kerényi 1956, 70-86; Edelstein and Edelstein 1975, II 1-22.
47 On the history of the Athenian Asklepieion, see Aleshire 1989, esp. 7-20. On the practice of dedication there and the economic status of the dedicants, see also Aleshire 1992.
an Epidaurian origin for the Athenian Hygieia on the grounds that the Telemachos inscription implies that her statue only joined Asklepios' after he left the Eleusinion.\textsuperscript{48} Even if such a literal interpretation is accepted, however, it would not necessarily mean that Hygieia must have come from a local Athenian source; both the inscription and the relief above it rather associate Hygieia closely with the explicitly imported cult of Asklepios. That sacrifices were still being made to Athena Hygieia in the 330s also undermines the hypothesis that the Hygieia of the Telemachos Monument was in some way a development from the Athenian Athena Hygieia.\textsuperscript{49} The closest we have come to seeing the "epithet theory" at work is the case of Aphrodite and Peitho, and unlike them Athena and Hygieia do not seem to remain closely associated, the independent Hygieia's primary relationship being with Asklepios. It can also not be coincidental that Hygieia appears for the first time in Athenian vase painting in the last two decades of the century (see below).\textsuperscript{50}

That Athens' patron goddess should have included healing among her many attributes is not particularly surprising,\textsuperscript{51} but if the independent Hygieia's origins lie outside Attika, how did she come into being? Most problematic is her complete lack of early mythological pedigree providing a foundation upon which a cult could be established. Her consistent association with and dependence on Asklepios suggest that she derived from him in some way, but exactly how is difficult to establish in the absence of more evidence for her pre-420 existence.\textsuperscript{52} It is not impossible that Hygieia originated purely in iconographical invention, as a useful means of

\textsuperscript{48} Clinton 1994b, 24 n.22.
\textsuperscript{49} As e.g. Farnell 1896-1909, I 317-8.
\textsuperscript{50} The Epidauros link is also reflected on an Attic red-figure plate of 420-10, where a personified Epidauros is shown holding the baby Asklepios, accompanied by another female figure Eu(kleia?), and approaching a seated Eudaimonia; a tripod on top of an Ionic column in the background probably alludes to a victory in a dithyrambic contest, presumably with a poem recounting Asklepios' birth. Leuven, Katholieke Universiteit; Shapiro 1993, 65-6 no.20; Schefold 1981, 57-8 fig. 70.
\textsuperscript{51} Farnell 1896-1909, I 317: "the Athenians in this as in other matters attribut[ed] to their goddess all that tended to the physical amelioration of life".
\textsuperscript{52} Hygieia never possessed a temple of her own anywhere, and she rarely had even so much as an altar to herself. At Epidauros a temple was built for Egyptian Hygieia, Asklepios and Apollo by "the senator Antoninus" (Pius?), but she did not even have a shared temple there before this (Paus. 2.27.6).
representing Asklepios' "product", but her success as a deity far exceeds that of any other born of such a deliberate device.\textsuperscript{53}

**HYGIEIA’S ASSOCIATES**

If Hygieia’s early history is obscure, her associations with other deities from 420 on provide a more promising line of enquiry. In the first half of the fourth century she seems to have been associated with Demeter at Metapontum: a stater has a head identical to contemporary issues representing Demeter, but on the neck, in tiny letters, is the inscription HYGIEIA.\textsuperscript{54} It is tempting to make much of the allegorical implications — a good crop/plentiful food ensures good health — but a simpler explanation would be to see Hygieia here as a property of Metapontum’s principle deity, parallel with Athena Hygieia. The closest we get to hygieia or a cognate being used of a male divinity is a Dionysos Hygiates, “Dispenser of Health”, attested in Athenaios, quoting the fourth-century medical writer Mnesitheos. The fragment is a passage on the beneficial properties of wine, if taken in moderation, as giving strength to mind and body, and being useful in medicine, for mixing with drugs. It ends with the comment, “Because of this Dionysos is everywhere called physician (ιατρός)”, to which Athenaios adds, “The Pythia has told some to call Dionysos θεάτης.”\textsuperscript{55} But it is not at all clear that either ιατρός or θεάτης were ever official cult titles; once the medical properties of wine have been adduced it is almost inevitable that the giver of wine should be described as “doctor”.\textsuperscript{56} In the context of Dionysos as healer, Athenaios also quotes the fourth-century comic poet Euboulos, who puts a speech on how much wine should be provided at a party into Dionysos’ mouth. The fragment stands in a long tradition of sympotic poetry on the subject of the dangers of excessive drinking and the pleasures of a moderate intake:

\textsuperscript{53} Edelstein and Edelstein (1975, 89-90, n.51) summarise the arguments for and against Hygieia being "an Athenian creation" or "an emanation of Asklepios".
\textsuperscript{54} Croissant 1990, 219*; Sobel 1990, X.1; Noe 1984, no.411 (cf. no.420 for a Homonoia).
\textsuperscript{55} Mnesitheos fr. 41 Bertier (ap. Athen. 2.36a-b). Cf. Mnesitheos fr. 42 (ap. Athen. 1.22e) for the oracle recorded by Chamaileon: “For twenty days before the Dog-star (rises) and twenty days thereafter, use Dionysos ιατρός in a shady house. Mnesitheos of Athens, also, says that the Pythia directed the Athenians to honour Dionysos as ιατρός.” See Bertier (1972, 57-86) on the Mnesitheos fragments, and Fontenrose (1978, 392, L103) on the oracle.
\textsuperscript{56} Bertier 1972, 61. On Dionysos as healer, see Detienne 1989, 38.
For sensible people I prepare only three kraters: one for health (hygieia), which they drink first, another for love and pleasure, and a third for sleep. After draining the third, those said to be wise go to lie down. The fourth I know not. It belongs to insolence (hybris). The fifth is full of cries. The sixth brims with insults and jests. The seventh has black eyes. The eighth is the bailiff, the ninth, bile. The tenth is madness (mania). It is this one that causes stumbling. For poured into a narrow receptacle it easily trips up the one who drinks it.\(^57\)

Dionysos the giver of health, pleasure and sleep, stands aside after the beneficial first three kraters, leaving the intemperate to bring trouble upon themselves. That the first krater is “for Health” would suggest the common toast to Hygieia, attested by numerous references to the ὑγείας μετανιπτρίς (“cup of Health”) in literature of the fourth century and later: “one shook the great cup, full half with wine, half with water, calling on the name of Health.”\(^58\)

Hygieia is occasionally associated with the healing hero Amphiaraos, especially at Oropos, his major cult centre, where she appears several times either alone or in company with the hero. According to Pausanias, she shared the fourth division of the great altar of the Amphiareion with Panakeia and Iaso, Aphrodite and Athena Paionia.\(^59\) This may well have influenced the Athenian cult of Amphiaraos after Oropos was handed over to Athens post-Chaironeia, and Hygieia seems to have had a place in the Athenian Amphiaraion in the 330s: one of the charges against Euxenippos defended in Hypereides’ speech is that he allowed Olympias, the Macedonian queen-mother, to make a dedication to the statue of Hygieia there.\(^60\)

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\(^{57}\) Hunter 1983 fr. 94 (= PCG V, Eubulus fr. 93): Τρεῖς γὰρ μόνοις κρατηρίας ἐγκεραννύτω τοῖς ἐπὶ φρονοῦσί· τὸν μὲν ὑγείας ἐνα,/ ὅν πρῶτον ἐκπίνουσι, τὸν δὲ δεύτερον/ ἑράτος ἡδονῆς τε, τὸν τρίτον δὲ ὑπνοῦ,/ ὅν ἐκπίνοντες οἱ σοφοὶ κεκλημένοι/ οἴκαδε βαδίζουσι· ὃ δὲ τέταρτος οὐκ ἐπὶ ἡμέτερος ἐστ’, ἀλλ’ ὑβρεος· ὃ δὲ πέμπτος βοηθής/ ἐκτὸς δὲ κόμων ἔβδομος δ’ ὑπωπτιαν’/ ὃ δ’ θάλασσας κλητήρος· ὃ δ’ ἐνατος χολῆς/ δέκατος δὲ μναίστα, ὥστε καὶ βάλλειν ποιεί·/ πολὺς γὰρ εἰς ἐν μικρὸν ἄγγειον χυθεῖσι/ ὑποσκελιζεῖ βράστα τοὺς πεπωκότας. From the play Semele or Dionysos; tr. Detienne 1989, 50. See Athen. 2.36c-37b for further passages on wine, Hybris and Ate.

\(^{58}\) Philetairos fr. 1 Austin (ap. Athen. 11.487a): ἐνέσεις μεστὴν ἵσον ἵσοι μετανιπτρίδα μεγάλην, ἐπειδόν τῆς ὑγείας τοῦνομα; from fourth-century comedy Asklepios. Cf. Kallias fr. 9 PCG IV (ap. Athen. 11.486f; from Cyclops); Nikostratos frs. 3 and 19 K. (ap. Athen. 11.487b; from Anterosa); Antiphanes fr. 147 PCG II (ap. Athen. 10.423d; from Melanion); Kallimachos fr. 203.20-22 Pfeiffer. Pollux explains: “the μετανιπτρίς was actually a kylix, which they took after washing their hands. The name comes from the use of the cup rather than its shape. It was sacred to Hygieia, just as the krater was sacred to Zeus Soter” (6.100).

\(^{59}\) Paus. 1.34.3; see Schachter 1986, 60-1.

\(^{60}\) Hyp. Eux. 12: δείκτα γὰρ ἐποίησαν περὶ τὴν φάλαγν, ἐάσις Ὀλυμπιάδα ἀναθεῖναι εἰς τὸ ἀγαλμα τῆς ὑγείας. See Mitchell 1970, 24 n.99 for the argument that Euxenippos was an
Hygieia’s main relationship, though, is with Asklepios and his family. Given the lack of any mythological stories connected with Hygieia, the idea that she is part of a “family” seems somewhat anomalous, and things are not made any easier by the ambiguous status of Asklepios himself. In Homer he is a hero; most versions of his story make him son of Apollo by a mortal woman, and have him eventually struck down by Zeus.61 Heroic status may be alluded to in the iconography of the Telemachos Monument, and Athenian Heroa are attested in the second century BC.62 Like Herakles, however, he is “un-heroic” in the geographical extent of his cult, and divine status is suggested by his other festivals, even explicitly attributed to him by some sources.63 Ambiguity of status can also be seen in his “family”, which regularly consists of two hero sons, Machaon and Podaleirios, and four or five goddess daughters, Hygieia, Iaso, Panakeia, Akeso and sometimes Aigle. A wife, Epione, “the Mild” is occasionally mentioned, but is impossible to distinguish from the daughters in visual representations without the aid of an inscription; her name is explained by one commentator as having been conferred διὰ τῆς ἕπιτος φαρμακείας, “because of her soothing medicines”.64 It would seem that the daughters are a late addition, corresponding to Asklepios’ acquisition of divine status; the only pre-fourth-century testimonia to mention them are a fragment of the comic poet Hermippos, quoted in a scholion on Aristophanes’ Ploutos65 and the Hippocratic Oath, where Hygieia and Panakeia are coupled, without any of their sisters, in the opening invocation.66 Also, while the sons have “proper” names, unconnected with their role as physicians, the daughters are named after aspects of Asklepios’ work: Hygieia and Panakeia are personifications of abstract nouns meaning “health” and “cure-all”; Iaso and Akeso are slight variations on the nouns
Both ἀυξικατις and ἀκηπτος, both meaning “healing” or “cure”. Even Aigle means “the Light of the Sun”, suggesting an association between healing and light.67

One of the earliest fourth-century sources to mention any of these goddesses is Aristophanes’ *Ploutos* itself, of 388 BC. Wealth is taken to a sanctuary of Asklepios for his blindness to be cured, and when during the night the god does the rounds of his patients, he is attended by Iaso and Panakeia; there is no mention of Hygieia.68 The anonymous Erythraean hymn to Asklepios of c.370 BC, however, explicitly lists his children by Epione: Machaon, Podaleirios, Iaso, Aigle and Panakeia, “along with bright Hygieia the glorious”.69 Bremer comments, “This whole catalogue serves a double purpose, that of situating the god in his happy family and thus honouring him, and also that of enumerating the effects of the god’s medical powers”.70 A more or less contemporary votive relief from Thyreatis in the northern Peloponnese shows Asklepios with two male and four female deities, who could reasonably be identified as this family, though the figures are not given names (FIG. 32).71 One of the goddesses, in very low relief, appears immediately behind Asklepios, while the remaining three are separated from him by their two brothers: most people see her as Hygieia, in a position of “second-in-command” to Asklepios. Certainly she has first place behind Asklepios, before his other five children, a hundred years later in the opening prayer of Herodas’ fourth *Mimiamb*, which dramatises a sacrifice to Asklepios on Kos.72

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67 See Kerényi 1956 passim for the light/dark opposition in connection with Asklepios. He even defends Wilamowitz’ etymology, which derives “Asklepios” from “Aigle” (Kerenyi 1956, 28-9 and n.15). See Edelstein and Edelstein (1975, ll 85-89) on Asklepios’ daughters as props for the hero’s newfound divine status.

68 Aristoph. *Ploutos* 701-3, 730-2; schol. ad 639 includes Hygieia amongst “the many children of Asklepios”. Alan Griffiths suggests that Hygieia is perhaps seen as “coming later”, once the healers’ work is done, on the analogy of the Litai following Ate in *Iliad* 9. There is some debate as to which Asklepieion is meant, that on the Akropolis or the one in the Peiraeus, though the latter seems more likely: Aleshire 1989, 13. See Clinton for the suggestion that the sanctuary at Zea was established by the Eumolpidai and Kerykes, perhaps as much as a year before Asklepios’ progression into Athens, and in 388 BC was still more popular than the privately-founded Akropolis sanctuary (1994, 24, 30 and 34).

69 *Paean Erythraeus* 14-5 and 23-4: σὺν ἀγαλματὶ ἡγείται. On the hymn, see Edelstein and Edelstein 1975, I no. 592, II 200. A first century AD hymn to Asklepios by Makedonios follows similar lines, adding Akeso to the list of Asklepios’ daughters and calling Hygieia ἀριστέρος and τερενοκτόνη (IG II2 4473.17, 20).

70 Bremer 1989, 209.

71 Athens NM 1402, c.370-60 BC. Hausmann 1948, no.7; Sobel 1990, 1144; Kerényi 1956, fig. 47; Krug 1993, fig. 50.

72 Herodas *Mimiamb* 4.5.
The other daughters do not seem to have acquired anything like Hygieia's stature, appearing far less frequently in reliefs and cult-related documents; Aristeides even comments that Hygieia is the "counterpoise of all the others". At Athens, in particular, it is Asklepios and Hygieia who receive sacrifices together by the middle of the third century:

... it is the ancestral custom of the physicians who are in the service of the state to sacrifice to Asklepios and to Hygieia twice each year on behalf of their own bodies and of those they have healed.

**THE PICTURE OF HEALTH**

From his study of Hygieia's appearances in vase-painting, Shapiro concludes: "All of the sources that connect Hygieia to Asklepios as his daughter and make her a subsidiary aspect of his cult are considerably later than the fifth century. In the earlier period, the two seem to have been on much more of an equal footing..." But this totally ignores the many reliefs of the late fifth and fourth centuries which almost certainly depict Hygieia in just this subsidiary role, and as nearly all the vases he considers are by the Meidias Painter, or closely associated, they can hardly be taken as widely representative. These are, however, some of the earliest representations of Hygieia we have, and are the only context in which she appears independently of Asklepios, so worth considering.

The Meidias Painter's name-vase has already been mentioned for its depiction of Peitho fleeing from the Rape of the Leukippidai in the main scene. Below this...

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73 Arist. Or. 38.22: η πάντων ἄντιρροπος. Croissant dismisses Hygieia's sisters as "simples allégories exprimant la fonction médicale d'Asclépios" (1990, 554). This is going too far, as there is some evidence for their cult, albeit scanty. E.g. a votive relief of around 340 BC, has an enthroned Asklepios surrounded by four female figures, three standing and one seated, identified by an inscription as Akeso, Isa, Panakeia and Epione: Athens NM 1352, IG II2 4388; Hausmann 1948, no. 147; Kerényi 1956, fig. 23. See Hausmann 1948, nos. 79-89, 123 and 147-158 for reliefs representing Asklepios with sons/daughters other than Hygieia. Pausanias describes the sanctuary of Asklepios in Athens as worth seeing for the statues of "the god and his children" (1.21.4), but does not specify which. See above for the altar at Oropos.

74 IG II2 772.9-13: πάτριον ἔστιν τοῦ θεοῦ ἅγιος ὅσοι δημοσιεύοντοι θεείν τῷ Ἁσκ-Ἀλκτην καὶ τῇ Ὁγιεινῇ δίς τοῦ ἐνικοῦ-τοῦ ὑπὲρ τε αὐτών καὶ τῶν σωμάτων ἄν ἐκκακοῦ ἑαυστοῖ. Cf. IG II2 974 (138/7 BC) for a priest of Asklepios and Hygieia and sacrifices "at the beginning of the year". On the role of the public physicians in the cult of Asklepios, see Aleshire 1989, 94-5.

75 Shapiro 1993, 128.

76 Hydria, London BM E224, c.410 BC. Croissant 1990, no.1*; ARV2 1313, 5; Para 477, Add2 361; Burn 1987, M5 pls.1a, 2b-3; Sobel 1990, i.2; Shapiro 1993, no. 63 fig. 79.
runs a frieze of eighteen standing and seated figures, the main group on the front depicting Herakles in the Garden of the Hesperides, while the others are an eclectic assortment, including four of the Attic eponymous heroes, Medea and Philoktetes. Hygieia sits on a rock, holding a long sceptre, looking over her shoulder at three Hesperides (named Asterope, Chrysothemis and Lipara) picking apples from a tree up which a snake twines (FIG. 33). Though unprecedented, it is quite appropriate that Hygieia should be depicted in this mythological setting, since the apples of the Hesperides were meant to confer youth and immortality upon their possessors, and Herakles’ own apotheosis and marriage to Youth associates him with immortality. The snake in the tree seems a harmless version of the traditional guardian dragon, but also calls to mind the attribute associated with Hygieia in other media, and of course Asklepios’ snake-entwined staff. The juxtaposition of Hygieia with the local heroes is perhaps a deliberate reference to Athens’ recent adoption of her cult, showing her integration into the city’s pantheon.77

Two more hydriai by the Meidias Painter, both in Florence, represent a pair of lovers surrounded by onlooking personifications, including Hygieia. Aphrodite and Adonis are watched by Paidia, who sits on Hygieia’s lap, with Eutychia, Eudaimonia and Himeros.78 Phaon and Demonassa are accompanied by various members of Aphrodite’s retinue, including Himeros and Pothos pulling a chariot, and Eudaimonia, who leans on Hygieia’s shoulder.79 Two pyxides in the manner of the Meidias Painter include Hygieia among other personifications in “women’s-quarters” scenes. One in New York has Peitho, Hygieia, who holds a pot and a jewellery box, and Eudaimonia, along with Paidia, Eukleia and Aponia.80 One in London has Aphrodite and her chariote, to which Pothos and Hedylogos are yoked, Hygieia picking fruit, and Eunomia, Paidia, Eudaimonia, Himeros, Harmonia and Kale

77 See Burn 1987, 15-25. She explains the presence of Medea by her association with rejuvenation, and interprets the whole frieze as an “Attic paradise”. A similarly peaceful version of Herakles in the garden of the Hesperides can be seen on one of the three-figure reliefs, the original of which was probably roughly contemporaneous with the Meidian vase and may well have adorned a public monument; for the relief, see below p.229, FIG. 60.iii.
78 Florence 81948, from Populonia, c. 410 BC. Croissant 1990, no.2*; ARV² 1312, 1; Para 477, Add² 361; Burn 1987, M1 pls.22-5a; Sobel 1990, l.7 (she erroneously catalogues this as Florence 81947); Shapiro 1993, no.16 fig. 81.
79 Florence 81947, from Populonia, c. 410 BC. Croissant 1990, no.3*; ARV² 1312, 2; Para 477, Add² 361; Burn 1987, M2 pls. 27-9; Shapiro 1993, no.17 fig. 80.
80 New York 09.221.40, c.410 BC. Sobel 1990, l.6; Shapiro 1993, no.1 fig. 83.
A squat lekythos in London, again in the manner of the Meidias Painter, has a much smaller cast: Eudaimonia sits in the central position, where we would expect Aphrodite herself; she is attended by Pandaisia, “Wedding Feast”, while to the right stands a youth called Polykles, presumably the groom, and to the left Hygieia, presumably as bride (FIG. 35). She is raising a fold of her himation, in a gesture which is often taken to signify modesty, or in this context is likely to refer to the *anakalypterion*, the unveiling of the bride. 82

What are we to make of this Hygieia? The Meidias Painter offers a feast for the allegorist. Children’s “Play” is good for their “Health”, or at least dependent upon it. Hygieia’s most constant association is with Eudaimonia, “Good Fortune”, once reinforced by Eutychia, which points to the uncertainty of the blessings of Health. The appearance of Hygieia on pyxides, containers for jewellery or cosmetics, and her carrying of a jewellery box, ties in with her association with both Aphrodite herself and the goddess of love’s various assistants. The fruits of love, acquired with the help of “Persuasion”, “Desire”, “Yearning” and “Sweet-Talk”, cannot be enjoyed without good Health. More prosaically, Hygieia is depicted on hydriai, from which fresh water is poured, while Health characterises herself in one instance by picking fruit. But can we take this at all seriously? Without the inscriptions, we would never be able to distinguish one Meidian personification from another, and their sheer abundance makes it difficult to attach major significance to any one figure. In her monograph on the Meidias Painter, Lucilla Burn explains their function as promoting a general atmosphere of well-being, their multiplicity consolidating the amount of happiness on offer in an escapist paradise. 83 I am inclined to agree that Hygieia should be understood as merely part of this general “feel-good” impression, but the important point remains that Health is represented as one of life’s major desiderata. It seems odd that Hygieia should be divorced from her usual association with Asklepios on a group of representations dating from the years immediately after her introduction to Athens in his wake.

81 London E775, c.400 BC. Sobel 1990, I.4; Shapiro 1993, no.19 fig. 82.
82 London E698, from Ruvo, c.400 BC. Croissant 1990, no.52; *ARV* 2 1316; Add 2 362; Burn 1987, P1 pl. 20c-d; Sobel 1990, I.3; Shapiro 1993, no.18 fig. 84.
83 Burn 1987, 36. See 32-40 on Meidian personifications in general. For a political interpretation of the figure of Aponia NY 09.221.40, see Shapiro 1984.
The only vase outside this Meidian circle which shows Hygieia is a Boiotian krater, of about 400 BC (FIG. 36). Here she is straightforwardly associated with Asklepios, and represented as receiving a worshipper, which would accord with evidence of her cult in Boiotia. On one side, Hygieia is seated to the right, and in front of her a woman brings offerings. On the other, Asklepios reclines on a couch, offering a kantharos of drink to a snake. Hygieia is a particularly appropriate figure to decorate a vessel for mixing wine, given the association we have already seen between health and wine, and the universal toast “your health”, στήν υγιεία σοζ. 86

A considerable number of votive reliefs of the late fifth and fourth centuries depict Asklepios with a single female deity in attendance. This figure could be his wife or one of the other daughters, but she is usually identified as Hygieia, since other sources give Hygieia preeminence in Asklepios’ family. The god himself is recognisable by being bearded and semi-draped, and obviously the identification is more secure if the relief is known to come from a sanctuary of Asklepios. A snake is the attribute of both father and daughter. One of the earliest of these reliefs, dating from c.415 BC, probably comes from the Athenian Asklepieion, and is now in Brocklesby Park, Lincolnshire (FIG. 37). 87 Worshippers approach Asklepios, who holds out a phiale in his right hand, and behind him stands Hygieia carrying a small vase, perhaps meant to contain medicine. From the Peiraeus Asklepieion comes a more homely scene of healing (FIG. 38). 88 A woman lying on a couch is being attended by Asklepios, just as though he were a mortal doctor, while three adults and a child look on. Behind Asklepios stands a rather casual-looking Hygieia, holding a fold of her cloak in a gesture similar to the one we noted on two of the Meidian vases

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84 Athens NM 1393, c. 400 BC. Croissant 1990, no. 7*; cf. LIMC II s.v. Asklepios 41*; Lullies 1940, 21-2, pl. 26, 1-2; Sobel 1990, 1.1. Not mentioned in Shapiro 1993.
85 For references to Boiotian cults of Hygieia, see Schachter 1986, 1160-1.
86 Above pp. 170-1.
87 Brocklesby Park 10; Croissant 1990, no. 137 = Asklepios 102*; Hausmann 1948, no. 3 pl. 13; Sobel 1990, II.60.
88 Peiraeus Museum 405, end 5th cent. BC. Croissant 1990, no. 138; Hausmann 1948, no. 1 pl. 1; Sobel 1990, II.80; Kerényi 1956, fig. 18. Croissant suggests Iaso and Panakeia as well as Hygieia as candidates for the goddess, but gives no justification for the identification, which would be required in the case of the first two given their relative obscurity. Cf. the relief depicted on side B of the Telemachos Monument (Beschi 1982, 41-2 fig. 9).
(London hydria and squat lekythos). If this reflects a real doctor’s visit, perhaps Hygieia here is in the role of ἱερὴ ἑλέκτρις, female doctor or midwife, standing aside for the more authoritative male doctor.

Moving into the fourth century, three fragmentary reliefs from the Athenian Asklepieion have the combination of a seated Asklepios and Hygieia leaning against a column, stele or tree. On one, Asklepios was seated to the left, though only his feet are still extant, while Hygieia leans against a column, up which a snake climbs. The column presumably indicates that the scene is set inside Asklepios’ temple. The second has a man and a boy offering a pig to the enthroned Asklepios (FIG. 39). There is a snake coiled under the god’s seat and Hygieia stands leaning with her right arm against a tall stele topped with a disc. The third depicts a family bringing offerings of fruit and cakes, which they place on an altar before the seated Asklepios (FIG. 40). Hygieia leans against a tree up which a snake climbs, rather reminiscent of the snake in the Hesperides frieze on the Meidias’ Painter’s London hydria. In this connection we might call to mind one of the cures recorded at Epidauros: a mute girl was sleeping in the abaton when she saw a snake creeping down from one of the trees which grew nearby; on waking up she immediately cried out for her mother and father, and went away cured.

These offer us a fairly consistent image of Hygieia as Asklepios’ chief assistant. Her subordinate status is indicated by her position, standing behind the god, or by the fact that she remains standing while he is seated. But she is present on nearly half of the reliefs we have, and seems to be sharing in the offerings brought, which would suggest that her role in Asklepios’ cult is a substantial one.

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89 Athens NM 2557, first half 4th cent. BC. Croissant 1990, no.29*; Hausmann 1948, no.143; Sobel 1990, pl.4a.
90 Athens NM 1330, c.350 BC. Croissant 1990, no.31; Hausmann 1948, no.144; Sobel 1990, II.36 pl.4b; Kerenyi 1956, 38 fig. 21.
91 Athens NM 1335, c.330 BC. Croissant 1990, no.34 (= LIMC II s.v. “Asklepios” 96*); Hausmann 1948, no.145; Sobel 1990, II.40; Kerenyi 1956, 33 fig.16. A fourth-century inscription from the Peiraeus Asklepieion lists a number of healing deities to whom three πόμας must be given as a “preliminary”, presumably to a blood sacrifice IG II² 4862; see Kearns 1994, 68.
92 IG IV² 1.123 xliiv.
93 Hausmann 1948 catalogues 52 reliefs showing Asklepios alone, 72 showing him accompanied by Hygieia, 21 with other members of his family, and 14 with other deities or heroes.
By far the largest body of representations of Hygieia, however, is made up of statues associated with the cult of Asklepios. For the most part these are Roman copies of fourth century originals, and fall into half a dozen or so main iconographic categories, though there is little to choose between most of them. As a rule, Hygieia is represented as a young woman, of more or less demure aspect, standing with a snake draped around her shoulders, which she feeds from a phiale. Variations occur in matters such as which leg her weight is on, which hand holds the phiale, details of drapery and hairstyle, and just what the snake is doing, but the essential remains the same.

Probably the most familiar image of Hygieia is the statue from the Hope collection, currently in the Getty Museum, Malibu (FIG. 41). This Antonine-period copy was found at Ostia, together with the Hope Athena and Asklepios. The statue has been compared to Kephisodotos' "Eirene and Ploutos", which it resembles both in formal aspects and in its conception, as a figure which appears at once allegorical and human. The Attic origin suggested by this similarity, combined with a date in the first half of the fourth century and the wide dissemination of the type, has led to the suggestion that the original was the cult statue of the Athenian Asklepieion, but we have no written sources to confirm this or identify a sculptor; Aleshire rejects the idea, arguing that the statue of Asklepios stood alone in his temple. For once, the statue has a head, though various elements have been restored: the nose, the right forearm and phiale, the left hand and nearby drapery, and parts of snake.

From the second half of the century, Pausanias records the existence of a statue group by Skopas in the temple of Asklepios at Gortys in Arcadia, representing Hygieia and a young, beardless Asklepios. A small-format group in the Vatican is thought to be a Roman adaptation of this, the bearded head of Asklepios being a
modern addition. Also by Skopas, again according to Pausanias, were the statues of Asklepios and Hygieia which stood either side of that of Athena Alea in her temple at Tegea. A head in Athens, found at Tegea, has long been labelled as belonging to this Hygieia, but in fact is more in the style of Praxiteles and likelier to belong to an Aphrodite than a Hygieia.

A type well attested by reproductions in all categories of document is the Broadlands, part of a group and regularly associated with an Asklepios of the Eleusis type (cf. the Thyrea relief), the latter being securely dated by a dedication of Epikrates to c.320 BC. The statuette from Rhodes was found with a young, but bearded, Asklepios (FIG. 42). The Broadlands is in fact only a variant of a statue-type known from an example in New York, datable to c.330, which has nothing to identify it as representing Hygieia. The sculptor of the Broadlands Hygieia has adapted this simply by lightly modifying the arm movement in order to add the snake. It is probable that the original was part of the group sculpted by Timarchos and Kephisodotos the Younger for the sanctuary of Asklepios on Kos. The style of the best replicas and the date of c.320 (imposed by the Epikrates dedication and the relationship with the New York statue) fit perfectly with this identification, which explains the considerable popularity of the type.

Any deity is only recognisable by his or her attributes, or sometimes special clothing, but with more mythologically established figures than Hygieia identification is often aided by a narrative setting. Hygieia has no stories attached to her, standard female drapery, and just the one attribute. This paucity of clues to her identity is brought out by the case of a statue in Kassel (FIG. 43 i-ii). The type was originally created for Hera c.420 BC, possibly by Agorakritos, but was much favoured by the Romans and used, with minor adaptations, both to represent various goddesses and

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98 Vatican Mus. 571, imperial period. Croissant 1990, no. 22*; Sobel 1990, pl.3b; Amelung 1908, II pl.51 fig. 399. Of the same type is a group in Copenhagen, which has a beardless Asklepios (Croissant 1990, no.21).
99 Paus. 8.47.1.
100 Athens NM 3602; Sobel 1990, Ill.g.12. For firm refutation of the head's identity as Hygieia, see Croissant 1990, 571.
101 Rhodes Mus. Arch., Konstantinopoulos 1977, fig. 170; Croissant 1990, no.72; Sobel 1990, Ill.d.5 pl.11b.
102 New York statue: Richter, MetrMusSculpt, no.126 pl.96. See Croissant (1990, 571) for a summary of the arguments and bibliography.
for portraits; the mere addition of a snake has given us a Hygieia. Until very recently it sported a head, with which it appears in most of the literature on the statue, including the 1990 volume of *LIMC* which covers Hygieia. The head is in fact made of better marble than the body, but this has generally been excused on the grounds that it was probably a portrait added to a mass-produced body, as the head has been heavily restored, though, it is impossible to be sure whether an individual is intended. Discussing the whole statue, Bieber suggests that it could be meant to show a Roman empress in the guise of Health, since Livia and Domitia both associated themselves with Salus; e.g. a coin from Tiberius’ principate has the bust of Livia with the inscription *Salus Augusta*. In Sobel’s 1990 monograph on Hygieia, however, the statue is illustrated without the head, which is no longer thought to belong to the body.

**CONCLUSION**

The image of Health as a young woman with a snake endures in the Classical tradition. A fine example can be seen in St. Bernard’s Well, a tholos sheltering a statue of Hygieia beside the Water of Leith in Edinburgh, erected over a spring provided “for the benefit of the citizens of Edinburgh” by a nineteenth-century philanthropist (FIG. 44). In her right hand she holds a goblet, her left resting on a vase; a snake curls around beneath her left hand towards the spa-water pouring from the vase. As with all our representations from antiquity, Hygieia is only recognisable here by the context and by her attribute. Since no stories are attached to her, and she has virtually no existence apart from her place in Asklepios’ cult, there is nothing to distract the viewer from her meaning, despite her human form. For a non-mythological figure Hygieia achieved astonishing success, which can only be due to the importance attached to the concept she embodies. The idea of deifying health is, after all, not an exclusively Greek one, as can be seen in the independent development

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103 Croissant 1990, no.40*.
105 Sobel 1990, III.c.7 pl.10b.
of the Italic *Salus*, who is attested by archaic inscriptions from Horta, Pisaurum and Praeneste.\textsuperscript{106}

The importance of maintaining good health is demonstrated by the fact that while Asklepios was called on by the sick in their hour of need, he was also regularly worshipped by the healthy. Athens' two annual festivals in honour of Asklepios were celebrated by the whole city, and Epidauros' quadrennial Asklepieia, held nine days after the Isthmian Games, included athletic and dramatic contests.\textsuperscript{107} If Asklepios himself embraces the preservation of health as well as the curing of sickness, his daughters may be understood as representing these aspects: Iaso, Akeso and Panakeia are the processes of healing, while Hygieia is a continuing state of good health. The "double-think" involved in recognising such an abstract character as Health as a goddess is mirrored by the remarkable nature of Asklepios' cult in general, with its combination of religious observance and practical medicine. That Hygieia only appears towards the end of the fifth century, and her image becomes widespread in the fourth, is not surprising; Hygieia, no less than Asklepios, could be called a "harbinger of the Hellenistic age".\textsuperscript{108}

\textsuperscript{106} See Axtell 1907/87, 13.
\textsuperscript{107} On Asklepios as preserver of health, see Edelstein and Edelstein 1975, II 182-4.
\textsuperscript{108} Parker 1996, 185.
Chapter 6

EIRENE: PROPAGANDA AND ALLEGORY

The decisive break-through of personifications into the realm of cult had taken place earlier, in the fourth century: increasingly, statues, altars, and even temples were erected for figures such as Eirene, Peace, and Homonoia, Concord; even Demokratia could not be forgotten. All this of course, is more propaganda than religion. The arbitrariness of the cult foundations could not be concealed; the profusion of robed female statues of an allegorical character arouses no more than dusty, aesthetic antiquarian interest.

Burkert 1985a, 186

If Hygieia developed as an aspect of Asklepios’ divinity, as Peitho did from Aphrodite, her close association with the god goes some way to compensate for her lack of mythology, providing her with some sort of personality at least as a generic daughter. With the fourth century, however, we come to a class of cults frequently regarded as altogether lacking in religious seriousness: cults of personified political ideas, such as Burkert dismisses with his “more propaganda than religion”. In this chapter I want to consider the figure of Eirene, the introduction of whose cult to fourth-century Athens is relatively well documented in ancient rhetoric and historiography. The inception of the cult is indeed given a political flavour by its association with a particular peace treaty, while the well known statue group by Kephisodotos of Peace holding the child Wealth, often assumed to be the cult image, presents an apparently straightforward allegorical message. We have already seen, however, that there are important precedents for cults of abstract ideas before the fourth century, and I should like now to counter Burkert’s sweeping relegation of Eirene and her like to a status of “no more than dusty, aesthetic antiquarian interest”.

1 An early version of this chapter was given as a paper at the Classical Association AGM at Nottingham, April 1996; of the audience there, Peter Rhodes and Ismene Lada-Richards made some particularly helpful suggestions.

2 On the cult of Homonoia, see now Thériault 1996, who is equally concerned to argue against Burkert in favour of the religious character of such figures as Homonoia (184-8). The earliest attestation is an altar at Olympia established in 363 BC (Paus. 5.14.9). Parker draws attention to the “Decree on Concord” from Mytilene, which records public offerings to Homonoia and Dike probably in the 330s (SEG XXXVI 750.5-12; Parker 1996, 228 n.39). At Athens Homonoia does not appear in cult before the very end of the fourth century. IG II² 1261.19-20 mentions the dedication of a (statue of?) Demeter Homonoia (302/1 BC); IG II² 4985, inscribed on a round marble altar, begins Ἰδμονονοια/τῷ ὀνόματι... (third century BC); IG II² 4795 records a priest of Homonoia (second century AD). On Homonoia’s iconography, see Shapiro 1990. On fourth-century political personifications in Athenian art, see now Smith 1997, ch.4, wherein Eirene is discussed at some length (140-59).
THE ATHENIAN CULT OF PEACE

Our earliest evidence for the founding of the cult of Peace in Athens is from Isokrates' *Antidosis* of 354/3 BC, in the context of an *apologia* for his friend Timotheos. This paragon of an Athenian general, according to Isokrates, has not only captured many cites, but has done so without causing the city much financial outlay; after capturing Kerkyra against the odds,

he won a naval battle over the Lakedaimonians and forced them to conclude the peace, which has made such a great change to each of the cities that from that day we have sacrificed to her every year, because no other peace has been so advantageous to our city...

Timotheos' campaign was conducted in 375 BC, his victory at Alyzia won on 12th Skirophorion (late May/early June), and peace concluded with the Spartans at some point between then and autumn 374. Nothing is known of its terms, but it was certainly shortlived, as hostilities resumed in autumn 373. Isokrates goes on to claim that Timotheos' victory reduced the Spartans to staying firmly within the Peloponnesse, "and anyone can see in this fact the cause of their disaster at Leuktra". This is a slight overstatement, unless Isokrates is conflating Timotheos' peace with the more important "Peace of Kallias" of 371, which really did give Athens decisive command of sea, but can be excused as rhetorical licence. Isokrates' comment that "no other peace has been so advantageous to our city" suggests that the quality being celebrated is Athenian strength rather than any idea of "goodwill to all men", and a yearly state sacrifice commemorating the achievement certainly does sound like "a kind of war-memorial", though this need not diminish the status of the goddess involved.

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3 Isok. *Antid*. 109-110: καὶ περὶ τῶν αὐτῶν χρόνων Λακεδαιμονίως ἐνίκησεν ναυμαχῶν, καὶ ταύτην ἡμέραν αὐτοὺς συνθέσας τὴν εἰρήνην, ἡ τοσαύτης μεταβολὴ ἐκατέρθη τῶν πόλεων ἐποίησεν, ὥσπερ ἡμέρας μὲν ἀπ' ἐκείνης τῆς ἡμέρας θείαν αὐτῇ καὶ ἔκαστον ἐνιαυτὸν ὡς οὐδεμιᾶς ἄλλης οὗτος τῇ πόλει συνενεγκόσθης...

4 On the dating of the peace, see Cawkwell 1963, who argues for a date in 375, soon after Alyzia.

5 Nilsson 1952 cites the date 371 for Eirene's altar and instigation of sacrifices without comment. According to Pausanias (1.8.2), a statue of the elder Kallias, broker of the peace of c.449 with the Persians, stood in the vicinity of Kephisodotos' Eirene and Ploutos in the Agora. Simon would like to see the younger Kallias' influence on the group, pointing out that he was a priest at Eleusis, the one place where Ploutos seems to have had a role in cult (1988, 63-4). Sparkes suggests that Kephisodotos' statue was commissioned after the 371 peace (*CAH* VII, pl.s.vi, no.33).

6 The "war-memorial" description is Parker's (1996, 230), a function which he also sees a number of "new cults" of the fifth century fulfilling (on which see 152-87).
fragment of the late fourth-century Philochoros puts a less glamorous, but entirely credible, gloss on the situation:

In the present context, too, Demosthenes could mention the next peace after the King's Peace, which the Athenians accepted gladly; Philochoros has argued the opposite case about this peace, that they accepted it much as they did that of Antalkidas the Lakonian, because they were tired of maintaining mercenary troops and worn down by war after such a long time, when they also established the altar of Peace.  

That Philochoros is indeed referring to the peace of 374 depends partly on his mention of the "altar of Peace" established at the same time, but ἐπὶ τοῦ βασιλέως εἰρήνης is most easily taken as "the next peace" chronologically, and we know of no other suitable candidates after 386 before 375/4. That the Athenians wanted peace in 375 because they were short of money is also made explicit in Xenophon's account; Isokrates is making a virtue out of a necessity when he praises Timotheos' thrift.

Isokrates' positive version of events is elaborated upon by Cornelius Nepos, who includes a Life of Timotheos among his biographies of "illustrious men". Timotheos sailed around the Peloponnese and pillaged Lakonia, brought Kerkyra under Athenian control, gained allies, and defeated the Spartans, who "of their own accord conceded pre-eminence in maritime power to the Athenians" in the subsequent peace treaty:

That victory was such a delight for the people of Attika that then for the first time altars of Peace were made at public expense and a pulvinar established for this goddess.

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7 Philochoros, FGrH 328 F151 (ap. Didymos in Demosth. 10, 34 col. 7, 62): δόνατο δ' ἐν καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ βασιλέως εἰρήνης, ἢν ἀσίμενος προσήκαν τις Ἀθηναῖοι, μημονεύειν τά νῦν ὁ Δημοσθένης, περὶ τῆς πόλεως ὁ Φιλόχορος διεξάκειται, ὅτι παραπλήσιον τούτην τὴν τοῦ Λάκανος Ἀνταλκίδου προσήκαν, ἀπειρήκοτες τὰς ἐξουσίας καὶ ἐκ πάνω πολλῶν τῷ πολέμῳ τετραμένοι, δεῦ καὶ τὸν τῆς Εἰρήνης βασιὸν ἱδρύσαντο.

8 Wycherley (1957, no.154) translates "yet another peace originating with a king". This interpretation would certainly make sense in the light of Cawkwell's argument for the King of Persia's possible role in the peace of 375/4 (1963, 90); this is, however, speculative, Persian participation being "rendered certain" (n.54) only by the Philochoros fragment. If Wycherley's interpretation is correct, however, Philochoros' reference can only be dated by association with the altar of Peace, giving us a rather circular argument.

9 Hell. 6.2.1, cf. 5.4.64-6. Peter Rhodes points out that the Athenians "were conspicuously short of money" in the fighting which followed the break-down of the 375/4 peace (private communication 19/4/96).

10 Nepos Timotheus 2: quo facto Lacedaemonii de diutina contentione desitterunt et sua sponte Atheniensibus imperii maritimis principatum concesserunt, pacemque iis legibus constituerunt, ut Athenienses mari duces essent. quae victoria tantae fuit Atticis laetitiae, ut tum primum arae Paci publice sint factae eique deae pulvinar sit institutum. culus laudis ut memoria maneret, Timotheo publice statuam in foro posuerunt. Pausanias records statues of Timotheos and his father Konon in the Agora (1.3.1) and on the Akropolis (1.24.3), where fragments of a base for such a pair of statues have been found (IG II² 3774).
Again, the cult of Peace seems to be a kind of victory trophy, set up in the same spirit as the “statue of Timotheos in the agora, at public expense” which Nepos goes on to record. He is the only source to give us plural altars of Peace, which may not be significant, or might indicate that he was familiar with more than one in his own day. Simon takes the pulvinar to indicate that Peace was honoured with theoxenia (the Roman lectisternium), a ritual banquet at which the deity was believed to be present, and for whom a couch (κλίνη, pulvinar) was made up as for the human participants. Such banquets are more often associated with family rites, for heroes and the dead, but are attested in more public contexts at Athens for Zeus Philios and for the Dioskouroi at Athens, Sparta and Akragas. Theoxenia at Delphi were a major festival, after which a month was named, and involved delegations from all over Greece. If theoxenia generally had any connotations of gathering together potentially or actually hostile parties, human and divine, for a conciliatory communal feast they would seem appropriate for Peace. We have no other evidence to substantiate the theory that the Athenians worshipped Eirene in this way, however, and Nepos’ pulvinar could be meant in a more general sense, to indicate that the Peace was given the trappings of a real goddess of cult.

The only source to cast any doubt on this account of the cult’s inception is Plutarch, who associates the altar of Peace with Kimon’s victory over the Persians at the Eurymedon in the mid-460s. Plutarch’s account, however, is obfuscated by his

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11 See below pp.221-2 for a similar problem with “altars of Pity”.
12 Simon cites the Attic Deipnophoria for Kekrops’ daughters as a parallel (1986, 701).
13 Zeus Philios: CAF II 420 (= Athen. 239b). Dioskouroi: CAF I 5; hydria by the Kadmos Painter (ARV² 1187, 36); Pindar O. 3 with schol. (preface). Theoxenia are described in the mid-fifth-century lex sacra from the area sacred to Zeus Meilichios at Selinous (SEG XLIII 630A 14-16); see Jameson et al. 1993, 67-70.
14 Pindar Paian 6.60-5. Might Delphi have had a role in approving peace treaties? The first known instance of sending a treaty to a god for approval, however, is 356 BC, between Philip and the Chalcidians, which Parker suggests was an innovation of Philip’s for propagandistic purposes (1985, 309 and n.41; 309-10 on Delphi and inter-state relations generally). On the theoxenia in general, see Jameson 1994, who draws attention to their importance, and relates the practice to the iconography of the banqueting Herakles.
15 On theoxenia in general, see Jameson 1994, who draws attention to their importance, and relates the practice to the iconography of the banqueting Herakles. Pritchett (1979, 14-18) relates the question of what form the gods were present in at “divine banquets” to the similar problem with heroes accompanying armies to war. Note especially accounts of the Lokrians borrowing the Dioskouroi from the Spartans before the battle of the river Sagra, which involves the heroes’ transport by a ship equipped with a couch/cushions: ἐκφράζει τοῖς Διοσκόροις κλίνην ἐκ τῆς νησίς (Diod. 8.32), pulvinaria iis in navi conponunt (Justin 20.3).
16 Plutarch Kimon 13.5: φασὶ δὲ καὶ βασιλῆς Εἰρήνης διὰ ταῦτα τοὺς Ἀθηναίους ἰδρύσασθαι, καὶ Καλλιαν τὸν πρεσβεύσαντα τιμήσαι διαφερόντως.
apparent conflation of this event with the peace negotiated by Kallias with Persia in c.449/8; Kallias could conceivably have masterminded two peace treaties, but little is known of a post-Eurymedon peace, and no other sources link it with Kallias. It may not be entirely coincidental that Kimon’s victory is also associated by at least one source with the dedication of an altar to Pheme, because news reached Athens the very same day. The date of Kephisodotos’ Eirene and Ploutos is also of some relevance to the discussion, as it is often taken to be the cult statue. Its traditional assignment to 375/4 is to some extent dependent on our sources for the cult’s inception, which are usually adduced in arguments against the possible down-dating to 360 suggested by some material evidence (see below). However, the sculpture is something of a red herring. While I would not question that it was generally associated with Eirene’s cult, it cannot have been the cult statue in a strictly formal sense as there was no temple of Peace to house it. The exact relationship between the many statues and altars of the Agora is hard for us to reconstruct, and touches on the difficult question of the relationship between image and deity. My basic point, however, is that since an altar is the only essential constituent for any cult, it would not be a problem if no statue had been present at the inauguration of the cult of Eirene. Practical considerations, such as finance and commissioning a sculptor of repute, might well delay the appearance of even a bona fide cult image; we might compare the case of Rhamnous, where the new temple of Nemesis of c.430 may pre-date Agorakritos’ statue by several years. None of our sources gives us any indication of the location of Eirene’s altar, though the agora, where Pausanias puts the statue group, is where one might expect the kind of cult indicated by Isokrates and Nepos to be.

Apart from Nepos’ pulvinar we have a little evidence for the way in which Eirene was worshipped. A scholiun on Aristophanes’ Peace tells us:

They say that on the festival of the Synoikia a sacrifice is made to Peace, and that her altar is unbloodyed, on the 16th of the month Hekatombaion. Some say that they sacrifice to her in this way for the obvious reason of freeing themselves from blood.

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17 For an exhaustive discussion of Kallias’ peace, see Badian (1987).
19 E.g. “con l’inizio di un culto dell’ Eirene nell’ Agora di Atene, sembra difficile non postulare l’erezione di una statua votiva o di culto” (La Rocca 1974, 122).
20 See above p.37.
21 See above p.106 and n.68 on Nemesis at Rhamnous.
The month of the sacrifice is confirmed by Eirene’s appearance in the Dermatikon Accounts for Hekatombaion (below), although the date at which such a festival was first celebrated is debatable. It may be the subject of a fragmentary decree concerning the management of a major festival, with athletic, equestrian and musical competitions, which was to be set up by ...τὴν στήλην τὴν περὶ τῆς ἐτρήνης(?), from the letter forms the inscription has been dated to the early Lykourgan period, and it is quite conceivable that a new festival to Peace might have been established to celebrate the surprisingly lenient terms imposed by Philip after Chaironeia. It would seem likely that a festival of some sort was introduced earlier, when the altar was established, but this would not preclude an expansion in the 330s. It has been suggested that the Synoikia might have been chosen for Eirene because it was the actual day on which the peace was made, or because the ancient festival was in need of revitalisation, and a celebration of the political union of Attika would be appropriate to the kind of commemoration of Athenian power suggested by Isokrates’ account of the cult’s inception. It could also be significant that the date of 16th Hekatombaion makes Eirene’s the first major festival of the Attic year, in early July, taking place a fortnight before the Panathenaia, just after the cereal harvest, making it a celebration of the safe gathering-in of the crops most vulnerable to the ravages of war. That the goddess’ altar is “unbloodied” is almost certainly conjecture on the scholiast’s part, to account for the lines he is commenting on — obviously Peace is going to be opposed to bloodshed of any variety. While bloodless sacrifice must have been common for private dedications, such an unspectacular offering as a plate of cakes would hardly do for the public rites of a goddess with such political potential.

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23 Schweigert 1938, 294-6 no.20, fig. 22; SEG XVI (1959) 55. See Robert (1977) for a discussion of the inscription, although his argument for an earlier date is rejected, with good reason, by Humphreys (1985, 224 n.16) and Parker (1996, 230).

24 A Hekatombaion date for Timotheos’ peace would accord with Cawkwell’s arguments for its following closely after the victory at Alyzia. Cawkwell 1963, 89-90 and n.56; Parke 1977, 30-33; Parker 1996, 230. Synoikia: Thuc. 2.15.2, Plut. Theb. 24.4; Parker 1996, 14 and nn.16-17.


26 See below pp.198-201 on Aristophanes’ Peace.

27 See e.g. votive relief (Athens NM 1335) depicting worshippers loading an altar with bread and fruit for Hygieia and Asklepios (infra fig.40). On first fruit offerings in general, see Burkert 1985a, 66-8; on sacrificial cakes, see Kearns 1994. Bowie cites the rites of Black Demeter at Phigaleia (Paus. 8.42.11) for bloodless sacrifice to a “withdrawing” goddess: “Such ‘bloodless’ sacrifices were seen as characteristic of earlier, morally better eras before
That in fact Peace was annually in receipt of a very impressive, and indeed bloody, sacrifice of oxen is attested by the skin-sale records instituted by Lykourgos in the 330s. These detail the income from the hides of victims sacrificed at a number of major festivals, honouring deities including Democracy, Agathe Tyche and Peace as well as the more familiar Athena, Zeus Soter and Dionysos. The skins “from the sacrifices to Peace by the generals” fetched 874 drachmas in 333/2 and 713 drachmas the following year. Calculating just what that implies is fraught with variables, but taking Rosivach’s maximum estimate of 10 drachmas per hide would mean that at least 70-87 oxen were sacrificed to Peace. By the same estimate, the smallest sacrifice recorded in the accounts is 10 oxen to Agathe Tyche in 333/2, the largest 118 at the Thesia of 332/1, while Demokratia received 41 oxen in the same year. The sacrifice nearest to Eirene’s in scale is that of the City Dionysia, sales from the victims of 334/3 fetching 808 drachmas. These figures may be approximate, but it is clear that the celebration of Peace was on a par with Athens’ most major festivals in the late 330s. However politically inspired the instigation and continued observance of the cult of Peace, the skin-sale records indicate that she was taken extremely seriously as a goddess in the late fourth century. Eirene does not entirely “disappear from our view” after the 330s, as an inscription of the mid-second century BC or later found near the monument of Lysikrates mentions that the official being honoured “has performed sacrifices to Eirene”.

slaughter of animals was needed to placate the gods” (1993, 144). In Aristophanes’ Peace the idea of an offering of “cooked vegetables” is rejected as only suitable for “a piffling little Hermes” (923-4).

Discussed in detail by Rosivach 1994, 48-64, who argues that the festivals listed are the epithetoi heortoi. I am grateful to Robert Parker for first introducing me to this fascinating document, which he takes as his point of departure for a discussion of new cults in fourth century Athens (1996, 227-37), a draft of which he was kind enough to show me well in advance of publication. See Humphreys 1985 on Lykourgos, especially 210 and 212 on this inscription.


A reference to “Roman allies” precludes an earlier date.
Kephisodotos' Eirene and Ploutos

Kephisodotos' representation of Peace must be among the "profusion of robed female statues of an allegorical character" which seem to arouse Burkert's antipathy (FIG. 45). The group's identity is established by Pausanias' description of the Athenian agora, where he mentions "Peace holding the child Wealth" near the monument of the Eponymous Heroes. Pausanias gives us the name of the sculptor in an aside when talking about a similar group at Thebes, which apparently represented Fortune, rather than Peace, as the mother-figure, with the characteristic comment that both ideas were "clever". Pliny puts Kephisodotos' floruit in the 102nd Olympiad (372-68 BC), almost coinciding with the most widely accepted date for the founding of the Athenian cult of Peace and so supporting a date for the statue of 375/4, but as I have already argued, this need not have been erected immediately. A later date has been argued from what appear to be representations of the group on six Panathenaic amphorai, found in Eretria in the late 1960s, which are inscribed with the archon-name Kallimedes, dating them to 360/59 BC (FIG. 46). That the tiny mother and child groups depicted on either side of Athena's head represent a sculpture is clear from the pedestal on which they stand, and it is a reasonable assumption that they are a reference to a well known public monument. This does not necessarily date

33 Pausanias 1.8.2: μετά δὲ τὰς εἰκόνας τῶν ἐπινόμων ἐστὶν ἄγαλματα θεῶν, Ἀμφιάρας καὶ Εἰρήνη φέρουσα Πλοῦτον παῖδα. For discussion of the group, see Simon 1988, 62-6, Jung 1976, and La Rocca 1974; cf. Barber 1990 on its position in the agora. Pausanias also tells us of "statues of the goddesses Peace and Hestia" in (or near) the Prytaneion (1.18.3) somewhere between the precinct of Aglauros, on the north slope of the Akropolis, and the temple of Olympian Zeus. Peace would be a suitable companion for the public hearth, but we have no further information, and even the whereabouts of this Prytaneion are uncertain; cf. Stewart 1997, 152 for the appropriateness of the association.

34 Paus. 9.16.1-2: Ἡθαίοις δὲ μετὰ τοῦ Ἀμμανοῦ τὸ ἱερὸν οἰκονομοποιεῖν τὸ Τειρεσίου καλούμενον καὶ πλούσιον Τύχης ἐστίν ἱερὸν· φέρει μὲν δὴ Πλοῦτον παῖδα: ὡς δὲ Θεραῖοι λέγονσιν, χείρας μὲν τοῦ ἄγαλματος καὶ πρόσωπον Εὐνομίαν εἰργάσατο Ἀθηναῖος, Καλλιστόνικος δὲ τὰ λουπα ἐπιχείρησε. Σοφὸν μὲν δὴ καὶ τούτος τὸ βουλευτήριον, έστι Πλοῦτον ἐς τὰς χεῖρας ἅτε μητρὶ ἢ τροφῷ τῇ Τύχῃ, σοφόν δὲ οὐχ ἡσυχὸν τὸ Κηρυσσόδοτος· καὶ γὰρ ὀστὸς τῆς Εἰρήνης τὸ ἄγαλμα Ἀθηναίοις Πλοῦτον ἔχουσαν πεποιηκεν. Xenophon the Athenian sculptor is known to have worked in first half of the fourth century, which would place the Theban group near the Athenian chronologically as well as thematically. Hadzisteliou Price describes the Theban group as "due to late Classical and Hellenistic taste for personifications", citing an extant fourth-century Ionian statuette as comparison (1978, 62-3, fig. 38).

35 Pliny N.H. 34.50; Plutarch tells us that Kephisodotos' sister was first wife of the Athenian general Phokion, who was born c.402 BC: τῶν δὲ γυναικῶν ὅς ἦγεμνη περὶ τῆς προτέρας οὖθεν ἤστηρα, πλὴν δὲι Κηρυσσόδοτος ἦν ὁ πλάστης ἄδελφος αὐτῆς (Phokion 19).

36 Even earlier dates (403 or 393 BC) have been proposed for the group, but these are unlikely on stylistic grounds (La Rocca 1974, 122).

37 For Kallimedes' archonship, see La Rocca 1974, 125 n.40.
Kephisodotos' group to 360/59, of course, but that it was a recent addition to Athenian public space is the most obvious explanation for its depiction on such vases; in this case it could have been connected with the Common Peace of 362/1, although we have no sources to establish such an association. Arguments over the group's exact date are likely to remain inconclusive, but our cult sources and the amphorai give us *termini post and ante quem*. The vase-paintings indicate that Eirene's right arm held a staff and the child held a cornucopia in his left arm, both of which items are missing in the Munich copy (FIG. 45), the most complete of several Roman copies still extant. In addition to these, and Pausanias' testimony, the group's appearance on a Hadrianic coin suggests that it was still a familiar feature in Athens in the second century AD (FIG. 47).

None of our sources for the cult of Peace makes any mention of the child held by Kephisodotos' Eirene, and were it not for Pausanias, we would not know whom either figure was meant to represent. Like most of the personifications considered so far, the female figure is quite without attributes, apart from the staff, a symbol of authority suitable for any goddess (recalling Themis). The fact that she is holding a child could make her any one of a number of *kourotrophoi* known from literature, Gaia being perhaps the most likely candidate for Athens. The child's cornucopia is more helpful, with its connotations of plenty, though other extant representations of Wealth holding a cornucopia are all mid-fourth century or later, so possibly derivative of Kephisodotos' group. Even once the child is identified, however, mythological

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38 The cock columns flanking Athena on Panathenaic vases of the sixth and fifth centuries give way in the fourth to statue groups, which seem to be associated with the eponymous archon, as they change from year to year; the columns may be indications of an actual outdoor sanctuary and statue of "Panathenaic Athena". Neils 1992, 33-4, 36-7 (cf. above pp.165-6). On Athenian relations with and attitudes towards Sparta at this period, see Fisher 1994.

39 La Rocca (1974, 128-30) defends the 375/4 date with a stylistic analysis, adducing the personified Kerkyra on a decree-relief of 375/4 (Athens NM 1467) as a parallel and contrasting the figure of Peloponnesos on a relief of 362/1 (Athens NM 1481). Simon commits herself only to somewhere within the range 374-360 (1986, 703 no. 8).

40 On the other copies, see La Rocca 1974, with figs. 1-3 and 7-17; apart from the Munich one, he catalogues 6 torsos and 4 heads of Eirene, and 2 Ploutoi.

41 On earlier identifications of the group, primarily as Leukothea and Bakchos, or Ge Kourotrophos, see Hadzisteliou Price 1978, 62 and Shapiro 1986, 8. On Gaia at Athens, see above p.86 n.98.

42 See below, n.48. For an extensive study of the Classical and Hellenistic cornucopia, see Bermann 1994. A securely identifiable young Ploutos (inscription: ΠΙΛΟΤΟΣ) does appear *without* a cornucopia on a chous of c.400 BC: Berlin F 2661, *ARV*² 1321, 3; Clinton 1994a 17a; Stafford 1998, pl.12.
tradition makes Ploutos the son of Demeter, not Eirene, and references to him as a deity are almost exclusively connected with the Eleusinian Mysteries. In Hesiod he is son of Demeter and Iasion, and "makes rich whoever meets him", a role he plays at the end of the Homeric Hymn to Demeter, where he is a gift from the goddesses to their initiates, "giving riches to mortal men". He is amongst the otherwise unexceptional list of Demeter's associates in the call to prayer in Aristophanes' Thesmophoriazousai of 411 BC, though the idea that Wealth should be a god seems to be ridiculed in Euripides' Cyclops just a few years later. The Wealth of Aristophanes' play of 388 BC seems unconvincing as a deity, despite the attempts of Chremylos to flatter him as "greatest of all daimones"; unlike the Ploutos of myth he is portrayed as an old man, his blindness stemming from Hipponax's description. More usually Ploutos is depicted as a child, and a number of vases show him in the company of Demeter/Persephone. This association with the Mysteries can perhaps be explained by an interesting etymology in Plato's Kratylos for the king of the Underworld's names:

He was also called Plouton, this being because he gives wealth (ploutos), since wealth comes up from the earth beneath; as for "Hades", I think people in general suppose that the invisible (a-eides) is indicated by this word, and because they fear the name call him "Plouton".

That Pluto was often associated with the idea of wealth is shown by a number of vase-paintings in which the enthroned king of the Underworld is shown holding a cornucopia. Ploutos himself, however, is only represented as a child, varying in age

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43 The place of birth in Hesiod is "the thrice-ploughed field, in rich Crete", suggestive of his character as agricultural wealth (Theog. 969-74). Homeric Hymn to Demeter 486-9; cf. Attic skolion PMG 885: Πλούτων μητέρ' Ὀλυμπίαν αἰείδω/Δήμητρα στεφανοφόροις ἐν ὄρασι... See Clinton (1992b, 53-5) on "the Ploutos of Demeter" as the object of initiands desires, and (91-4) on Ploutos as the "divine" child whose birth was proclaimed during the initiation ritual (Hippolytos, Refutatio omnium haeresium, 5.8.40). On the hymn and Eleusis, see Parker 1991.

44 Aristoph. Thes. 295-300; Clinton suggests the name should be emended to Plouton (1992a, 54 n.131). On Eur. Cyclops 316-7, see above pp.30-1.

45 Aristoph. Plout. 230. MacDowell (1996, 329-31) describes Wealth as "one of the most complex allegories in any of Aristophanes' plays", and points out the ambiguity of his status as god/man/abstract, especially noticeable in his speech at 234-44.

46 Plato Kratylus 403a: τὸ δὲ Πλοῦτονον, τοῦτο μὲν κατὰ τὴν τοῦ πλοῦτον δόσιν, ὡς ἐκ τῆς γῆς κάτωθι ἀνίεται ὁ πλοῦτος, ἐπαινοµένη ὡς δὲ "Αιθής, δὴ πολλοὶ μὲν μοι δοκοῦσιν υἱολοµμάτειν τὸ ἀκρέσον προσερήθαι τῷ ὄνοματι τούτῳ, καὶ φοβοῦμενοι τὸ ὄνομα "Πλοῦτουνα" καλοῦσιν αὐτόν.

47 See Schauenburg 1953, fig.1 for the king of Underworld enthroned, attended by Hermes and satyrs, holding a cornucopia (Heidelberg skyphos, inv. E49; 370-60 BC). Schauenburg adduces 23 parallels for Pluto with cornucopia, e.g. ARV 438, 22 (Paris amphora) and ARV 398, 57 (Athens pelike), figs. 4 and 5. On Lykourgos' refurbishing of the cult of Pluto at Eleusis, and Pluto as "giver of agricultural wealth", see Mitchell 1970, 45 and nn.183-6.
from infancy to early adolescence, but always naked, often holding a cornucopia. 48
The only other appearance of Wealth in a ritual context is less obviously
anthropomorphic, in Plutarch's description of "the driving out of ox-hunger" at
Chaironeia, a ceremony which he relates as being practised in his own time:

There is a traditional sacrifice, which the archon performs at the public hearth but
everyone else at home; it is called "the driving out of ox-hunger". Striking one of the
servants with wands of agnus castus they drive him out of doors, chanting "Out with
Ox-hunger, in with Wealth and Health". 49

Though rather removed from any of our other references, this does show Ploutos as
the antithesis of famine, maintaining the association with Demeter and agrarian plenty.

For a fourth-century viewer the problem of identifying Kephisodotos' figures
was presumably obviated by the group's fame, and there may well have been an
identifying inscription on its base. But given the lack of mythological precedent, the
question remains, why should Kephisodotos have thought of representing Peace
holding the child Wealth? Parke comments that the group "by rather obvious allegory
indicated that the wars of Athens had led to her impoverishment", but Parke, even
more than Pausanias, has the benefit of a long tradition of allegorical representation to
inform his viewing. 50 Kephisodotos' Peace and Wealth is not quite without precedent
in general terms, it is true. Shapiro has convincingly exploded the myth that allegory
was invented by Apelles, collecting ample examples to refute Reinhardt's assertion that
Archaic and Classical art "kennt Allegorisches noch nicht". 51 In particular, he can

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Plouto is a more likely candidate for the column figure on two early fourth-century
Panathenaic amphorai which Neils identifies as Wealth — a mature bearded man, draped
from the waist down, holding a sceptre in his right hand, a large cornucopia in his left: Neils
1992, 33-4, fig. 25, cat. no. 25 (attributed to the Asteios Group) and Berlin 3980 (with archon-
name Philokles, 392/1 BC); see Clinton 1992, 105-6.

48 For discussion of the Eleusinian Ploutos' iconography and significance, see Clinton 1992,
49-55, where he proposes identifying the youth in the great Eleusinian relief as Ploutos,
handing a bunch of wheat stalks to Demeter (Athens NM 126, c.430 BC); see 91-4 on
Ploutos' possible role in the ritual drama of the Mysteries. See also Clinton 1994a for
representations of Ploutos in vase-painting, and on ancient and modern confusion with Pluto;
he concludes that "P. was a mere personification and never given formal worship as a god;
o no sacrifices are attested" (416). Hamdorf (1964, 49) sees Ploutos in a more generous light
as the "göttliche Kind" par excellence, entrusted to the Eleusinian goddesses.

49 Plut. Quaest. Conv. 6.8 (Moralia 693e-f): Θεότητα της ἐστι πάτριος, ἢν ὁ μὲν ἄρχων ἐπὶ τῆς
κοινῆς ἐστίς δρά τόν δ' ἄλλων ἑκατός ἐπ' οίκου· καλείται δὲ 'Βούλιμον ἐξέλασεν'· καὶ
tῶν οἰκέτων ἕνα τῶτον ἐγκύης ἐχθέοις ῥάθδους διὰ θυρών ἐξελάσθησαν, ἐπιλέγοντες ἔξοι
Βούλιμον ἔστω δὲ Πλούσιον καὶ Υγίειαν. Cf. West 1966, 331 (ad 593) on Poverty and
Plenty. On the ritual, see MacDowell 1995, 270-1 nn.17-8; on "scapegoat rituals" in general,
see Burkert 1985a, 82-4.

50 Parke 1977, 33.

51 Shapiro 1986; Reinhardt 1960, 34.
adduce a number of two-figure allegories, the simplest form possible, of the Archaic period — in literature, Homer's Ate and the Litai; in the visual arts, the struggle of Dike and Adikia on the Chest of Kypselos and on two late sixth-century Attic vases. This "combining (of) two personifications into a meaningful relationship" is perhaps most familiar from the genealogical linkings made by Hesiod and the archaic lyric poets, where the message lies not in any narrative content, as in the case of Justice overcoming Injustice, but in the relationship between the figures. Kephisodotos' group, however, remains the earliest example of such an allegory in extant monumental art, and its directness must have been quite striking to an audience as yet unjaundiced by such a "profusion" of figures as Burkert somewhat anachronistically has in mind.

THE TRADITION OF PEACE AND PROSPERITY

Though iconographically innovative, Kephisodotos' group is an overt formulation of a proposition with some pedigree. The concepts which Eirene and Ploutos personify are linked as early as Homer, "wealth and peace in plenty" being decreed by Zeus in his settling of the feud at the end of the Odyssey. Hesiod makes the link between political and agricultural well-being in his genealogy of the Seasons, who are called Lawfulness, Justice and Peace, daughters of Themis; the implications of Peace are neatly encapsulated in the adjective τεθολυπίς, "luxuriant", attached to her, while Pindar's version explicitly makes this family "guardians of wealth for men". The same association with both Justice and prosperity seems to be made in the Hymn of the Kouretes:

... were fruitful year by year, and Justice possessed mankind... which prosperity-loving Peace...

Following the Harrison-Nilsson line that the hymn is "Uralt" in origin and its addressee, Zeus Diktaios, is the Cretan "Vegetationsgott", Simon argues that Eirene is popular as a fertility deity from the Minoan period, and Kephisodotos' representation

52 On two-figure allegory see Shapiro 1986, 6-8.
53 Homer Od. 24.485-6.
54 Hes. Theog. 901-3; Pind. O. 13.6-8 (464 BC); see above pp.68-8 on Themis.
55 Hymn of the Kouretes 37-40: [..... ..... βρύφον κατηφος/ και βροτος Δίακα κατηφε./ [..... .....]τρ' ἔξολ/ ἀ χιλολθος Εἰρήνα. "Ὅρα δὲ has been suggested for 1.37, whence presumably Simon's assertion that the hymn names Eirene as one of the Seasons (1986, 705). See West 1965 on the text.
of her as *kourotrophos* draws upon a "jahrtausendalte religiöse Tradition". Quite apart from its dependence on the unfashionable fertility paradigm, however, Simon's argument is undermined by the fact that, even in Nilsson's opinion, the extant form of the hymn is Hellenistic, so there is no reason why the passage in question should not be derived from the Hesiodic genealogy. For Eirene's "early popularity" and association with fertility Simon also cites a fragment of a Samian folksong:

Open yourselves up, doors! Great Wealth is coming in, and with Wealth luxuriant Euphrosyne and good Peace.

This is preserved in a life of Homer, who is supposed to have gone around the households of Samos singing songs called *Eiresiōnai* to bring prosperity. Simon makes a connection between the Samian songs and the *eiresionai* of the Athenian Thargelia and Pyanepsia festivals. These *eiresionai* were apparently branches of olive or laurel bound with wool, much like the suppliant's bough, which were carried by a group of boys who went from house to house singing and collecting gifts in return for bringing this symbol of fruitfulness; the branches were later fastened above the door for continued prosperity. The ritual itself may be early, but as with the Cretan hymn, the antiquity of the Samian song is open to question, and the link between a Samian Eirene and Athens is not strong; the words of the Athenian Eiresione reported by Plutarch make no mention of Eirene, Ploutos or any other deity.

A passage commonly cited as the earliest literary reference to Peace as mother of Wealth is a fragment of Bakchylides, part of a Paian for Apollo Pythaeus at Asine:

Peace gives birth for mortals to haughty W/wealth, and the flowers of honey-tongued songs, the burning of the thighs of oxen and fleecy sheep in yellow flame on carved altars for gods, and young men's concern with the gymnasium, with pipes and revelry...

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57 Nilsson 1968, 546. Bremer opts for composition in the fourth century BC, though the hymn "might well be the product of a religious mentality which is much older and belongs to the second millennium BC" (1981, 295). On the development of the fertility paradigm and its application to Greek religion, see Lowe 1983, esp. 1-118; see also Lowe 1998 on the case of the Thesmophoria and the ninth-century scholion on Lucian's *Hetairikoi Dialogoi*, the one "ancient" text that seems to support the Frazerian fertility model explicitly.
This could almost be a parody of a Hesiodic genealogy: the list of Eirene’s “children” begins straightforwardly enough with a noun (πλοῦτος) qualified by a “personifying” adjective (μεγαλάνωρ), but in apposition to this are the elaborately designated Songs, and whole clauses to describe Sacrifices and the pleasant Pastimes of youth. An English translation is hampered by the initial-capital convention, which makes too sharp a distinction between the first and subsequent offspring of Peace. The autoschediastic nature of this genealogy is demonstrated by its absence from Eirene’s environs for the rest of the fifth century: while the concepts continue to be associated, Peace is not mother of Wealth again until Kephisodotos unites the two in bronze. 62

EURIPIDES’ AND ARISTOPHANES’ PEACE

Independently of Ploutos, Eirene makes a number of appearances as a goddess in the plays of Euripides and Aristophanes and in contemporary visual arts. Although she did not receive public worship until 375/4, there is every reason to suppose that in the last quarter of the fifth century she was increasingly seen as a real power, a power whose desirability was thrown into focus by the Peloponnesian War. 63

A fragment of Euripides’ Kresphontes, preserved in Stobaios’ section “On Peace”, is a choral ode addressed to Eirene:

Peace, with your depths of wealth and fairest of the blessed gods, I am eager for you as you delay; I fear old age may overwhelm me with hardships before I look upon your graceful prime, your fine-dancing songs, your garland-loving revels. Come, lady, to my city; shut out from our homes hateful Sedition and the raging Strife who delights in sharpened iron. 64

The context of most of the play’s fragments is uncertain, but this is the beginning of one of the main stasima, and presumably precedes the appearance of the young

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Greek Lyric V (Anon. frs.), 1021: ὅ γλυκεῖ' Εἰράνα/ πλουτοδότειρα βροτοῖς (Bergk suggested Pindaric authorship).

62 An alternative genealogy for Peace is preserved in a fragment of Aristotle, quoted by Plutarch: “In ancient times they used to call Kalaoria Eirene after a woman Eirene, who, the story goes, was born of Poseidon and Melanthea, daughter of Alpheios” (Aristotle fr. 597 Rose = Plut. Quaest. Graec. 19). Hopwood (1986, 199) suggests that this claim was meant to promote the peace-keeping role of the Kalaorian Amphictyony.

63 For an overview of war and peace in Euripides and Aristophanes, see Spiegel 1990, 99-125.

64 Euripides fr.453 Nauck (= 71 Austin): Εἰρήνην βαθύπλουτε καὶ/ καλλίστα μακάρων θεῶν,/ ζήλος μοι σέθεν ὡς χρονίζεις./ δέδοικα δὲ μὴ πόνους/ ὑπερβάλη με γῆρας,/ πρὶν σὰν προσείησαν χαρίςσαν ὄρας/ καὶ καλλιχόρους ἀοίδας/ φιλοστέφάνους τε κόμιος,/ ίθι μοι, πότις, πόλιν./ τὰν δὲ ἔχθραν Στάσιν εἰργό ἀπ’ οἴκοι τὰν μανουμέναν τ’ Ἐριν’ θηκτόι/ τερπομέναν σιδάρωι.
Kresphontes. The chorus are voicing resentment at the internal discord which has facilitated Polyphontes’ murder of the elder Kresphontes, which his son will avenge on his return from exile, thereby regaining the throne. The Peace being invoked is characterised by her opposition to two other personifications, Stasis and Eris. Eris is of course well known from epic and vase painting, and appears again in the context of civil strife in the Phoenician Women (411-09 BC). Stasis is a more shadowy figure, only lightly personified here, as she is in Pindar’s “angry Sedition, giver of poverty, a hostile nurse of young men”. The Kresphontes’ date is probably in the mid-420s, and certainly before Aristophanes’ Georoi (425-1 BC) in which the invocation of Peace is parodied; Timaios’ report that Hermokrates quoted the first eight lines of the hymn at the Sicilian peace conference of summer 424 BC is probably not reliable. Collard points out that the fragment uses the Aeolic metre and the form of words standard to an invocatory hymn, and it fits with Bremer’s categorisation of invocation (including name and epithets/attributes), argument and petition. It is in fact a formulaic element which is the butt of Aristophanes’ parody, the compound adjective βαθύπλουτος: “Peace, with your depths of wealth, and little team of oxen...” Use of the hymn form does not of course necessarily imply cult, but, at least in the tragic context, it does indicate that Peace can be taken seriously as a goddess.

Peace is again opposed to civil strife in Euripides’ Supplices, which may also date from 424 BC. Kreon’s herald is trying to dissuade Theseus from embarking on

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65 That Stasis and Eris should be “shut out of our homes” calls to mind the “driving out of Ox-hunger” ritual (above).
67 Pindar fr.109.3-4 SM: στάσιν ἀπὸ προσπίδος ἐπίκοτον ἀνελάνον/ πενίες δότερον, ἐχθρὼν κουρατρόφον. Pindar’s Stasis is opposed to Hesychia rather than Eirene, but he seems to use hesychia in much the same sense, e.g. O. 4.16 (Psaumis “turns his steps with pure purpose to city-loving Quiet”); see above p.31 for P. 8.1-7. For Stasis see also Dio Chrysostom’s attendants of Tyrannis: Ὄμος τῆς καὶ Ἰμρίς καὶ Ἀνομία καὶ Στάσις (1.82). Euripides’ Stasis is not capitalised by Austin (ed. 1968).
68 Timaios FGrH 566 F22. This is cited by Polybios (12.25k.1-26.9) as an example of Timaios’ shortcomings as a historian, in particular that he puts improbable speeches into the mouths of his characters; in Polybios’ opinion the great statesman Hermokrates is most unlikely to have made such a poor argument, or to have adduced Homer and Euripides in support of the commonplace that peace is better than war. On the Kresphontes see Collard, Crop and Lee (1995, 121-47).
69 On hymn structure, see Bremer 1989, 193-7.
70 Ar. Georoi fr.111: Εἰρήνη βαθύπλουτε καὶ ξεγγάριον θεοκρόν...
71 On hymns in drama, see Bremer 1989, 212-13, and Furley 1995, 37-9.
72 Zuntz (1955, 88-93) argues that the play fits Athens’ situation in 424, the same year as the Knights, with its “atmosphere of public buoyancy” (90).
a war against Thebes, arguing that people would be wise to think of the consequences before they vote for war:

Yet of the two propositions we know, all of us, the good and the bad, and which is better, by how much better for mortals is peace than war; she is best and dearest friend of the Muses, but enemy to Vengeance, she delights in fair children, and joys in wealth.\textsuperscript{73}

The praise of Peace in opposition to \textit{Polyvsoi} is rather ironic in the circumstances, since Thebes is herself exacting retribution by refusing to allow Adrastos and the Argive widows to bury their dead, and thereby breaking one of the first rules of any post-victory peace treaty.\textsuperscript{74} Eirene is much more of a rhetorical device here than the Peace of the \textit{Kresphontes}, being explicitly a \textit{λόγος} in the first half of the sentence, though her association with fertility and wealth is clear. In the later \textit{Orestes} (408 BC) Eirene is unequivocally a \textit{θεός}, albeit briefly. When Apollo intervenes to sort out the chaos in Argos, he ends with an injunction to everyone to “Go on your way now, honouring the fairest of goddesses, Peace”.\textsuperscript{75} The scholiast comments: “He says this because at that time the Peloponnesian War was going on in Greece; the Athenians had not been persuaded by the Lakedaimonian embassies to make peace.”\textsuperscript{76} The reference is to the rejection of a Spartan peace offer two years earlier by Kleophon, to whom the scholiast sees an allusion in the “villainous leaders” of l.772. Whether such a specific allusion was meant or would have been understood by Euripides’ audience is debatable, but the general point could hardly have been missed.\textsuperscript{77}

If Euripides’ \textit{hymn} suggests that Eirene is recognised as a deity in the mid-420s, Aristophanes’ \textit{Peace} confronts the question of her status head-on a few years later, the action centring on Trygaeios’ recovery of Peace and establishment of her cult in an ideal Athens. The play must have been written during the negotiations which would lead to the Peace of Nikias, which took effect from the 25th Elaphebolion 421 BC, about a fortnight after the play’s production at the City Dionysia. The very fact

\textsuperscript{73} \textit{Eur. Supp.} 486-91: καί τοι δύοιν γε πάντες ἀνθρώποι λόγοι ο/ τὸν κρείσσον' ἵσμεν, καί τὰ χρηστά καί κοκά, δι' ὅσο τε πολέμου κρείσσον εἰρήνη βροτοίς/ ἢ πρώτα μὲν Μοῦσαις προσφιλεστάτη/ Ποιναίσι δ' ἐχθρά, τέρπεται δ' εὐπαιδία,/ χαίρει δὲ πλοῦτω.\textsuperscript{74} See Paus. 1.43.7 on the personification of Ποινή. On Adrastos, see below pp.210-11.\textsuperscript{75} \textit{Eur. Or.} 1682-3 (408 BC): ἵτε νῦν καθ' ὁδόν, τὴν καλλιστὴν θεῶν Εἰρήνην τιμῶντες.\textsuperscript{76} Schol. \textit{Eur. Or.} 1682-3: θεῶν Εἰρήνην τιμῶντες: τοῦτο φησι διὰ τὸ κατ' ἐκείνον τὸν Καιρόν ἐνεστηκέναι τὰ Πελοποννησιακά: πρεσβευομένοις γὰρ Λακεδαιμονίων περὶ εἰρήνης ὀυκ ἐπεισήθησαν Ἀθηναῖοι. Cf. \textit{ad} 772.\textsuperscript{77} Wycherley (1957, no.155): “This emphasis on the importance of the goddess may, however; have no reference to her cult at Athens but merely reflect the longing for peace.”
that Trygaios has to found a cult for Peace indicates that a public cult was not yet observed, but the play does present us with a very real goddess.\(^\text{78}\) When Trygaios arrives in heaven, he learns that War has thrown Peace into a "deep cave", \(\varepsilonι\zeta\ \tauουτι\ \tauο\ \kατ\omega\) (223-4), from where she is hauled up in the following scene. Bowie compares the raising of Peace to the \textit{anodoi} of various gods in myth and ritual, especially Persephone, and draws parallels with the Athenian Anthesteria, a festival celebrating "the return of the god (Dionysos) at springtime after an absence in an enclosed place".\(^\text{79}\) Once Peace has been raised, Trygaios "performs the installation of the goddess" (923) in a scene which clearly reflects the standard procedure for such a ceremony. After some discussion of what constitutes a suitable sacrificial offering for Peace, a sheep is decided upon (923-37) and Trygaios goes to fetch an altar, though a few lines later he seems to spot the altar to Dionysos already to hand in the middle of the \textit{orchestra}, a reminder of the religious context of the original performance.\(^\text{80}\) The slave’s refusal to slaughter the sheep on the grounds that it is \(ου\ \ θ\ epsilon\zeta\) (1018), for "surely Peace does not delight in slaughter, nor is her altar bloodied", is almost certainly a joke.\(^\text{81}\) Trygaios solves the problem by sending the slave to do the actual killing indoors while he himself prepares the fire for roasting. This is the only serious irregularity in an otherwise familiar ritual of sacrifice, preceded by the purification of all in attendance, the scattering of barley, and a prayer to the goddess: "O most revered divine queen, lady Peace, mistress of dances, mistress of weddings, accept our sacrifice..."\(^\text{82}\)

\(^\text{78}\) MacDowell 1995, 193: "Of course the performance of such a ritual in comedy was not equivalent to the inauguration of a new cult in real life, but Aristophanes may be implying that such a cult is desirable, foreshadowing its actual establishment forty-seven years later." On the relation between the play and the Peace of Nikias (ibid. 197): "the point must be that Trygaios accomplishes what has not been accomplished in real life". Bowie adduces the precedent of various personifications in literature and a few in Attic cult: "Aristophanes' representation of a cult of Peace would have been somewhat novel, therefore, but it did not start a fashion" (1993, 142, n.51).

\(^\text{79}\) Bowie 1993, 142-50. On the deaths of Kleon and Brasidas he comments "The descent to Hades of these two warmongers will balance the return of Peace from the ground" (137, n.17). See Bérard 1974 for the iconography of Persephone's ascent from the Underworld. Thanks to Ismene Lada-Richards for drawing this aspect of the play to my attention.

\(^\text{80}\) Aristoph. \textit{Peace} 942: "Οξι\zeta\ \tauουτα\ \δηλα\ ι\ \ευθι· ο\ γαρ\ \\beta\ ο\ ι\ θo\ ρε\ α\ \ ι\ κα\ δη."

\(^\text{81}\) Aristoph. \textit{Peace} 1019-20: "ου\zeta\ θε\ δι\ θη\ που\ θε\ Ε\ ι\ ρη\ η\ σ\ φ\ α\ α\ ε\ ι\ σ\ / ο\ο\δ\ σ\ α\ μ\ α\ τ\ ο\ τ\ ο\ τ\ ο\ τ\ ο\ ι\ β\ ο\ ο\ ι\ ο\ ο\ τ\ ο\ ο\ ο\ ο\ ο\ ο\ ο\ ο\ ο. Sommerstein 1985, 181: "he is conjecturing that Peace is the sort of goddess who will find bloodshed of any kind abhorrent". See above pp.187-8.

\(^\text{82}\) Aristoph. \textit{Peace} 974-7: "ο θε\ ο\ να\ γ\ ζα\ / πο\ τι\ ο\ Ε\ ι\ ρη\ η\ / δ\ δ\ ο\ σ\ α\ χο\ ρ\ ο\ ν\ / δ\ δε\ α\ θου\ α\ τ\ η\ ι\ η\ με\ η\ ε\ ραν."

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Peace herself is a statue, dragged into view at 1.519, and apparently remaining on stage thereafter. The only indication we have of her appearance is the chorus-leader’s comment that she is εὐπρόσωπος because of her connection with Pheidias (615-18). This is occasioned by Hermes’ explanation of how Peace came to be driven out in the first place: Perikles provoked war to divert attention from the scandal surrounding his friend Pheidias, accused of misappropriating materials provided for the chryselephantine statue of Athena Parthenos and including himself and Perikles among the figures on Athena’s shield (603-14). Aristophanes’ statue of Peace was apparently on a grand scale, as indicated by reports that the play was parodied by Eupolis, in his *Autolykos*, and Plato, in his *Victories*: “It is even made a matter for comedy that he raised up the colossal statue of Peace.” We know of no visual representations of Eirene earlier than 421, so Aristophanes’ stage-prop may have been the first; presumably she looked like any other personification of the period, a beautiful young woman of marriageable age.

The *dramatis personae* include a number of other personifications, who all take a more active part in the proceedings than the statue. War (Polemos) and his attendant Uproar (Kydoimos) have speaking parts, and Theoria and Opora, though silent, are treated as objects of very human sexual interest, attentions which Peace herself is spared, as befits her divine status. The fact that Theoria and Opora are Eirene’s attendants is very much equivalent to the kind of allegory represented by Kephisodotos’ group. The characters’ names are variously rendered, reflecting the difficulty of finding an exact equivalent for the terms, but MacDowell’s “Festival-going” and “Vintage” are apt. Opora is properly “late summer”, the time of the grape harvest, which makes her literally one of the Seasons, a position usurped by

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63 On the truth or otherwise of the accusation see MacDowell 1995, 186-9.
64 Eupolis fr.62 (PCG V) = Plato fr.86 (PCG VII): κυμωδίατες δὲ καὶ <ἀπειμένην> τὸ τῆς Ειρήνης κολοσσικόν ἐξήραναν ἄγαλμα. Εὔπολις Ἀυτολύκωι, Πλάτων Νίκαι. Thanks to John Wilkins for drawing this to my attention.
65 Cf. Agorakritos’ Nemesis and the Meidias Painter’s personifications. For a possible representation of Eirene in a phlyax scene, see Kelvingrove 1903.70 (CVA GB 18, pl.48).
66 Cf. above p.55. See MacDowell 1995, 183 on “the character of War”.
67 E.g. Sommerstein changes his mind from “Harvest” and “Festival” (Penguin, 1978) to “Fullfruit” and “Showtime” (1985).
68 MacDowell 1995, 193: “This word (opora) means the season of late summer when fruit is gathered, and also the ripe fruit itself.”
Eirene herself, with Dike and Eunomia, in Hesiod’s alternative “political” genealogy. Between them, Opora and Theoria represent “peace in the country and peace in the city”. Vintage is appropriately married off to Trygaios, “Grape-harvester”, at the end of the play, while Festival-going is to be given back to the Boule, the body from whom delegates were chosen to attend Panhellenic festivals. Eirene’s connection with wine is emphasised by the chorus-leader’s reference to her as “greatest and most vine-loving of all goddesses”, and in Trygaios’ welcome: “O lady grape-giver, how shall I address you? Where am I to get a million-gallon word to greet you with?” As I have noted, Eirene had already been invoked in Aristophanes’ Farmers, and her close association with agriculture in general may well have been the theme of a later Peace; in a fragment attributed to this, Peace’s self-styled attendant Georgia seems to be complaining about the current lack of scope for her activities:

Georgia: Trusty nurse, housekeeper, fellow-worker, guardian, daughter and sister of Peace, friend of all mankind — all these things? she used to enjoy in me?

B: What’s your name then?

Georgia: Agriculture.

This connection with agriculture, and especially viticulture, explains why Eirene’s only three appearances in extant visual art of the fifth century are in the company of Dionysos. On a round altar at Brauron Eirene follows Dionysos in a
procession of deities, all inscribed and moving towards a female figure seated on a rock (FIG. 48). The editors of *IG I*³ date the altar to c.420-10 BC, though Fuchs puts it between 410 and 400; in either case it would post-date Aristophanes’ incarnation of Peace. Eirene is holding a flower in her left hand, between index finger and thumb, in an archaising gesture. Also in the procession are Hermes and Leto, and four figures whose inscriptions are mostly illegible; Fuchs’ suggested reconstructions [Θεόριον, Χόλος] and [Ορικόρα] are appealing, but given the fragmentary state of the altar they must remain speculative. Eirene is just one of several maenads in Dionysos’ retinue on a kalyx-krater in Vienna, of 410-400 BC (FIG. 49). While others wait on the god, she reclines on a rock, a torch leaning against her shoulder, contemplating a drinking-horn in her right hand. Eirene is more active on a contemporary pelike, formerly in Paris, where she seems to be about to embrace Dionysos as a lover (FIG. 50). In connection with this, few commentators have managed to resist the temptation of adducing a couplet from Euripides’ *Bakchae* (406 BC), in which the chorus say of Dionysos, “He loves Peace, giver of prosperity, child-nursing goddess.” What is most interesting about the line, however, is its *mis*-match with the pelike Eirene, who is iconographically indistinguishable from any other maenad. The *Bakchae* Eirene is for the first time explicitly *kourotrophos*; the vaguely maternal Peace of Bakchylides fr.4 (τίκτει δέ..., 61) and of Euripides’ *Supplices* (τέρπεται δ’ εὐπαιδίς, 490) has become the “mother-figure” to be given definite form by Kephisodotos a generation later.

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recent re-examination of the stone), but certainly does not support Simon’s fanciful claim that the inscription refers to an aulos-case carved to represent Eirene.

95 Vikelas and Fuchs 1985. A second Aristophanic *Peace* could conceivably have played further on Eirene’s vinous associations by bringing Dionysos into the plot; it is tempting to attribute this and her two other appearances in his retinue to such a precedent.

96 Cf. e.g. Artemis on *ARV*² 3, 1 (Andokides Painter, c. 525 BC); the female half of an amorous couple on *ABV* 698, under p.445, no.3 bis (Amasis Painter, c.520 BC); Aphrodite on *ARV*² 806 (follower of Douris, c.470 BC).

97 Inscription: *IG I*³ 1407 bis. On the altar see Vikelas and Fuchs 1985, fig. 1 (reconstruction of altar) and pls. 3.1 and 4.1 (Eirene).


99 Shapiro not only misses the implications of the adjective *kourotrophos*, but begs a number of questions with his “safe” assumption that Aristophanes’ Eirene must have been “closer to the youthful, seductive beauty on the pelike once in Paris than to the motherly version of Kephisodotos” (1993, 50).
OUTSIDE ATHENS

Such a universal desideratum as peace might be expected, like health, to have been recognised as a goddess beyond the confines of Athens, but we have only a little evidence for her worship in other Greek cities. The earliest issue of coinage from Western Lokroi, dating from c.380 BC, has the head of Zeus on the obverse and on the reverse a female figure with the inscription EΠΗΝΑ ΛΟΚΡΩΝ, “Peace of Lokroi” (FIG. 51). She is quite unlike Kephisodotos’ Eirene, seated on an altar rather than standing, and holding a caduceus rather than a child. The herald’s staff is a suitable symbol for a political peace, carried by both the divine go-between Hermes and human ambassadors. Hirmer comments “the goddess on the reverse may reflect some particular peace, or she may be a deity particularly worshipped at Locri, as was Nike at Terina (…); the immediate juxtaposition of the ethnic suggests that the latter is more probable.” The presence of the altar would also support Peace’s claim to divinity, although she does not appear again on the city’s coinage. Hirmer’s alternatives need not be exclusive; Peace may have been accorded a public cult at Western Lokroi in much the same way as at Athens, in response to a particular peace treaty. At the opposite end of the Greek world, a priest of Eirene is included in the Erythraian priest-list of c.250 BC, but we have no further information for her cult in Ionia.

The Roman Peace is of course best known in connection with the Ara Pacis, dedicated on the 30th January 9 BC in the Campus Martius, in honour of Augustus’ victories in Spain and Gaul. Pax may have been worshipped at Rome earlier, as a coin of 44 BC shows her head, but the cult of Augustan Peace is a radical development, linking the idea so closely with the emperor. Although the circumstances of the altar’s establishment make the cult clearly propagandistic in

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100 Kraay and Hirmer 1966, no.291, 313 pl. 101. Cf. no.293, stater of c.274 BC, Pistis crowning Roma, which Hirmer glosses as an affirmation of the Lokrians’ loyalty when Rome confirmed her independence after the defeat of Pyrrhos.
101 Dittenbergen Syll. 3 1014.140: Ειρήνης … ἐνδο(νοῦ). Other deities of note in the list are Zeus Phemios and Athena Phemia (27-8) and Ablabiai, “Freedom-from-harms” (68), which Dittenbergen suggests may be a name for the Erinyes, on the parallel of the Athenian Eumenides.
102 Hopwood draws a parallel with the fact that the Athenian Eirene’s statue stood at the foot of the Areopagos, though this was probably less deliberate than the Ara Pacis’ positioning on the Campus Martius. He also comments on the preeminence of War: “Eirene and Pax were always minor divinities, abstractions, lacking personalities. Ares and Mars, on the other hand, both had cult and a rich mythic cycle associated with them” (1986, 207).
103 Axtell 1907, 37-8.
origin, its widespread dissemination and long continuance suggest that the power to which it was addressed was felt to be effective. Elsner points out that two of the earliest accounts of the cults' founding, Augustus' own Res Gestae 12 and Ovid's Fasti 1.709-20, put emphasis on the rite of sacrifice, which accords with the sacrificial theme of the reliefs which adorn the actual altar. He also comments on the absence of a temple and cult statue: "Clearly, who the final recipient of any sacrifice at the Ara Pacis was to be, was deliberately left ambiguous. Among the candidates must have been Pax herself, Mars the patron deity of the Campus Martius, and not least the god Augustus whose remains were housed in the Mausoleum after AD 14..." Such ambiguity must make Pax a less substantial figure than the independent Eirene, but was not unprecedented, as we shall see in the next chapter. The benefits brought by Augustus' Peace are much the same as those of the Athenian Eirene: whatever the identity of the central female figure on the Ara Pacis' "Tellus relief", she is surrounded by children, animals and crops (FIG. 52). The association between peace and plenty is of course a recurrent theme in Augustan poetry, Pax and Copia themselves appearing together in Horace's Carmen Saeculare: iam Fides et Pax et Honos Pudorque/ priscus et neglecta redire Virtus/ audet, apparetque beata pleno/ Copia cornu (57-60). The "full horn of Plenty" brings us back to Kephisodotos' Ploutos, whose cornucopia is appropriated by a number of female figures in Roman art, notably Abundantia and Africa. On a cameo dating from Tiberius' reign the cornucopia-holding female must be Pax herself, as she has the Lokroiiian Eirene's caduceus in her other hand (FIG. 53).

CONCLUSION

Kephisodotos' representation of Eirene and Ploutos is of a great deal "more than dusty, aesthetic antiquarian interest". Peace as a deity in the Greek pantheon is naturally conceived of in anthropomorphomorphic terms, and that she is a woman is largely

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105 Tellus, Italia and Pax herself are the most frequently cited candidates; see Zanker 1990, 172-9.
106 See articles s.v. in LIMC I.
due to the feminine gender of ἐιρήνη.\textsuperscript{107} What is striking, however, is that she is holding the child Wealth. Stylistically the group is fairly conservative, but iconographically it stands in the vanguard of the fourth-century concern with the representation of "human" emotion and relationships; even if we did not know the names of the two figures, the group would be of interest as an early example of the "mother and child" motif.\textsuperscript{108} The explicit linking of Eirene with Ploutos is likewise innovative, going against the mythological tradition that Wealth is child of Demeter, though a logical extension of the association between the ideas of peace and prosperity. While Kephisodotos' group fulfils the basic requirements for an allegory, I would argue that its simplicity and rootedness in tradition put it in quite a different class from the more fully developed allegory of later periods.\textsuperscript{109} The Athenian Eirene seems to bear little relation to the attribute-laden Pax Augusta on a bronze sesterce of Vespasian (FIG. 54): behind her is a statue of Mars, in front an altar, before which lies a pile of armour, to which she sets light with the torch in her right hand, holding an olive branch in the other. It comes as no surprise that it is this last image which caught the Renaissance imagination, as the "Pace" illustrated in Cesare Ripa's \textit{Iconologia} shows (FIG. 55).\textsuperscript{110}

The message of Kephisodotos' group certainly does emphasise the potential political and intellectual aspects of a cult of Peace, but these do not invalidate her appeal as a real goddess. Burkert's charge that a cult of Peace is "more propaganda than religion" implies that the two categories are mutually exclusive, that a cult founded in response to particular political circumstances could not have been taken seriously. This is surely to underestimate the interdependence of religion and politics.

\textsuperscript{107} But see Pausanias 5.16.5-6 for the sixteen married women who acted as arbitrators among the cities of Eleia, a story "perhaps encoding a message that peace and family life should prosper" (Hopwood 1986, 200). See above pp.45-55 on the gender question.

\textsuperscript{108} La Rocca 1974, 130: "Secundo alcuni studiosi la novità dell' Eirene sembra riconnettersi in principal modo a fattori contenutistici che non a fattori formali". La Rocca can only adduce one sculptural "mother and child" group earlier than Kephisodotos', an Eileithyia and child from Knossos, of the end of the fifth century (132-3, fig. 26).

\textsuperscript{109} Shapiro outlines three main criteria for defining an allegory: the characters concerned are usually personifications, there must be some interaction between them, and some sort of message should be conveyed (1986, 6).

\textsuperscript{110} "Donna, che nella sinistra mano tiene un Cornucopia, pieno di frutti, fiori, frondi, con un ramo d'olivo, e nella destra una facella, con la quale abbrucci un montone d'Arme" (Ripa 1603, s.v. Pace).
in classical Athens, however. As we have seen, the public cult of Eirene instituted in 375/4 was founded in honour of a goddess already familiar to the people of Athens, not only from literature but from visual representations and especially from Aristophanes’ play(s). The large-scale annual public sacrifice being observed in the 330s suggests that Peace was regarded as a very real power, her worship essential to the city’s welfare; if we dismiss this as mere propagandistic display, we call into question the religious credibility of all Athenian festivals.

111 “Political motives” can be adduced for the introduction of most of the “new cults” of the sixth and fifth centuries; the bringing back of the bones of Theseus to Athens and of Orestes to Sparta are conspicuous examples, and no one questions the “reality” of these heroes to the people who worshipped them. See Garland 1992, and Parker 1996, 152-98.
Chapter 7

ELEOS: THE ATHENIAN “ALTAR OF PITY” AND ITS GOD

To Mercy, Pity, Peace and Love,
    All pray in their distress...
William Blake

Of all the figures I have considered so far, only Hygieia is quite without mythological roots in archaic literature; Eirene does have such a pedigree, but her fourth-century incarnation has intellectual overtones, which come to the fore in the more abstract power associated with the Roman Ara Pacis. For an extreme example of such an insubstantial figure in a Greek context I turn finally to Eleos, Pity or Mercy personified, who is one of the best attested of Greek deified abstractions due to the large body of references to the Athenian “Altar of Pity”. A passage from Philostratos’ Lives of the Sophists goes so far as to suggest that the altar’s fame was on a par with that of the Olympic Games and the Delphic oracle: a Greek slave boy writes from Babylon telling his father how he entertains the Persian king’s harem “telling stories about the fine things of Greece, how the Eleans hold their festivals, how the Delphians give oracles, what the altar of Pity at Athens is”.

Identification of the altar among the physical remains of the Athenian Agora, however, presents some problems. The only viable candidate so far discovered is an altar and enclosure near the northern edge of the Agora, built in the late sixth century BC, rebuilt in the last quarter of the fifth, and further altered in the fourth century. The major problem with accepting this as the altar of Pity seen by Pausanias, our main witness for its location, is that it is fairly securely identified as an altar of the Twelve Gods. There are basically three hypotheses which have been advanced to explain this anomaly: i) the altar in the Classical Agora was originally dedicated to the Twelve Gods, but their cult was later usurped by that of Eleos; (ii) the altar of Pity was elsewhere altogether, perhaps in the area of the Roman market; (iii) the Agora

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1 A preliminary version of what follows was given as a paper at the Classical Association AGM at Exeter, April 1994.
2 “The Divine Image”, from Songs of Innocence.
3 See below for Thompson’s theory that the Ara Pacis was modelled on the Altar of Pity (1952, 79-82).
altar remained dedicated to the Twelve Gods throughout, but was popularly known as the “altar of mercy”. A fresh look at the literary and epigraphic sources in relation to the archaeological remains may help to answer the question: was Eleos ever really worshipped as a god, and if so where, or was ἔλεος rather merely the response sought by suppliants at an altar sacred to more conventional deities?

**LITERARY SOURCES**

An “altar of Pity” at Athens is attested by many writers from the mid-first century BC on, usually as a place of asylum for suppliants and as symbolic of Athens’ widely acknowledged philanthropy; I shall consider these before turning to the question of Eleos’ absence from earlier literature. Almost invariably the deification of ἔλεος is connected with the Athenian altar, very rarely appearing in any other context; once or twice ἔλεος seems to be referred to as Φιλανθρωπία in Greek, and in Latin the deity is called *Clementia* or *Misericordia*. Traditionally the altar has been referred to as that of “Pity”, but this translation can be misleading. In modern English there is a distinction between “pity” and “mercy”: “pity” is a feeling, the reaction of a sympathetic but powerless bystander, whereas “mercy” suggests a more active response, usually implying a certain power relationship between the seeker and giver of mercy, and often used in a religious context. A brief survey of the usage of the word ἔλεος and its cognates in Greek literature, however, suggests that this distinction was not felt in ancient Greece. ἔλεος is both the practical “mercy” sought by a suppliant, either from a god or from a fellow mortal in a position of power, and

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5 For bibliography, see below nn.64 and 81.
6 See above pp.45-55, on the gender question.
7 My own understanding of ἔλεος is almost certainly coloured by Christian usage of the word. ἔλεος appears passim in the *Septuagint* as God’s “mercy”, as regularly implored in the liturgical response “Shew us thy mercy, O Lord, and grant us thy salvation” (Ps. 84:7; cf. v.10 for a lightly personified Mercy). In the *New Testament* the noun and cognate forms are common, indicating the very practical “mercy” of giving to the poor (Matthew 6:2-4, Luke 11:41, 12:33; the English “alms” is a corruption of ἐλαμπόμενον, or appearing in the context of people begging Christ for mercy (Mark 10:47-8), or in injunctions to the faithful to “have mercy” (Matthew 18:33, 5:7). The prayer “Kyrie eleison” is the only part of the liturgy to have escaped Latinisation in the Western Church.
8 In the *Iliad* and, to a lesser extent, the *Odyssey*, comrades “have pity” for one another by retrieving their corpses or avenging their deaths (ll. 5.561, 610; cf. 17.346, 352); victors may or may not “have pity on” suppliants (ll. 20.485, 21.74, 22.123-4, 24.44-5, 24.207; Od. 14.279, 22.312, 22.344); the gods may be asked to “have mercy on” suffering mortals, although more often they do so of their own accord (ll. 6.94, 275, 309, 9.172, 8.350, 15.12,
the "pity" aroused in an audience by a tragedy, or in a jury by a skilful orator. Given the lack of an exact English equivalent, I shall use both "pity" and "mercy" for variety, but the range of meanings of ἐλεος should be borne in mind.

The earliest reference is in a speech in Diodoros (fl. 60-30 BC), put in the mouth of Nikephoros speaking in the debate on the fate of the Athenian prisoners taken at Syracuse in 413 BC. In a passage on showing generosity to others amid one's own good fortune, he boasts that Syracuse has outdone Athens not only in military strength but even in philanthropy, concluding: "those who were first to establish an altar of Mercy will find mercy in the city of Syracuse." This is a good example of the frequent rhetorical use to which Athens' supposed generosity is put. Diodoros could, of course, have invented the altar which allows him such an elegant turn of phrase for his argument, but the lack of elaboration with which it is

44; cf. 16.431, 17.441, 19.340, 24.332; Od. 4.364, 5.336, 13.182, 9.349). See Crotty 1994 on eleos and supplication in Homer. In Sophokles' Philoktetes (307-8, 501, 967) ἐλεος always appears in the mouth of the suffering hero begging to be rescued. ἐλεος occurs once in Thucydides, in a speech, as the "mercy" that should be shown to the vanquished Mytilenians (3.40.2-3). In Aristophanes the audience are upbraided for showing no pity to the aging, drunken Kратinos now that he has lost his comic talent (Knights 531), but ἐλεος generally appears in the context of supplication (Lys. 880-2; Wasps 393, 572, 880, 967); cf. Peace 425 for a Hermes "always merciful (ἐλεήμον) towards gold plate". Likewise in Menander Parphile calls on the gods to "have mercy" on her (Epir. 855), though elsewhere the verb is used of characters feeling less active "pity" for one another (Aspis 285, Perik. 518, Misoun. 316-7). Cf. AP 12.42.5-6 and 232.6 for erotic epigrams burlesquing the heroic values of αἰδος and ἐλεος.

9 In Euripides' IA (491-2) ἐλεος appears as Menelaos' reason for urging Agamemnon not to kill Iphigeneia, but most use of the noun is made in the Orestes, where it seems to mean "tragedy" (i.e. object of pity), as well as "mercy" or "pity" (333-4, 567-8, 831-3, 968-70); the helpless "pity" of the Chorus in Phoinissai (1284-7), when Jokasta tries to intervene between her warring sons. Plato contrasts τα ἐλεα with το γελοιον as the subjects represented by tragedy and comedy respectively (Rep. 606c5) and comments on the use of such means as bringing forward children in order to arouse a jury's pity (Apol. 34c.4); men can "show pity" towards one another rather than treating the failings of others too harshly (Prot. 323d3, Rep. 415c1, 518b2), and gods can show pity for men's shortcomings (Laws 665a.4, 877a.4, Symp. 191b.5). Aristotle employs ἐλεος and its cognates in the contexts of ethics, rhetoric and literary theory. The faculty of feeling pity is a καθος της ψυχης, a virtue if felt for the right people and for the right reasons (Nik. Eth. 1105b.23-5, 1106b.19; cf. 1109b.32, 1111a.1, 1114a.27 and On Virtues and Vices 1250b.324). ἐλεος is also the regular technical term for the art of arousing pity in a jury, a skill essential to the good orator (Ars Rhet. 1419b.25, 135a.17, 1378a.21, 1385b.1-20, 1390a.18-21; he cites Thrasymachos' treatise ἔλεοι, 1404a.15). In a literary context, ἐλεος and φθος are the two main emotions aroused by tragedy (Poetics 1449b.27, 1452a.3 and 38-b1, 1453a.1 and b.1, etc.).

10 Diod. 13.22.6-7: τοὺς Ἀθηναίους ἐνίκησαν οὐ μόνον τοὺς ὀπλικοὺς, ἀλλὰ καὶ τῇ φιλανθρωπίᾳ... οἱ πρώτοι βαΣιν ἔλεον καθιστούσιν τοῦτον ἐν τῇ πόλει τῶν Συρακοσίων εὐφήσιουσιν.
introduced surely suggests that the idea of the altar was already current, whether or not such an altar actually existed at the time. \footnote{Diodoros is a prolific user of ἔλεος and its cognates: ἔλεος appears as a rhetorical effect (1.76.2, 12.18.4, 12.24.5), as an emotion like anger (3.18.5), a feeling towards kin or friends (8.8.3, 11.56.5), as "mercy" towards conquered enemies (11.32.5, 13.23.1-5).} From later writers it seems that the Athenian Ἑλέου βομὸς became quite a rhetorical topos, explicitly recommended by Apsines (third century AD) in a chapter on how to arouse a jury's ἔλεος, in his Ars Rhetorica. If speaking to Athenians, we can say: "You have an altar of Pity, and universal philanthropy for all is thought to be a god. You have a good reputation for this among all other men, so do not change your disposition now." \footnote{Apsines Ars Rhet (Spengel I ii 307): Ἐκεῖνον βομὸς ἔστι παρ' ὑμῖν, θεὸς εἶναι δοκεῖ παρ' ὑμῖν ἢ κοινὴ πάντων φιλανθρωπία, ἐπὶ τούτων παρὰ τοῖς ἄλλοις εὐδοκιμεῖτε πάσον μὴ σον ἄλλοις εἴητε νῦν.} If speaking to others, we can hold up the Athenians as a praiseworthy example; instances of successful suppliants can also be adduced, such as the Herakleidai. \footnote{On the use of the Heraklid/Adrastos topos, see Thomas 1989, 211-2.} Quintilian had already noted the usefulness of the Athenian example for Roman orators, though not mentioning the altar as such: "Or if I am recommending mercy to a judge, will it be of no assistance that the Athenians, the wisest people, understand mercy not just as a state of mind but as a god?" \footnote{Quint. Inst. Or. 5.11.38: Aut si misericordiam commendabo iudici, nihil proderit, quod prudentissima civitas Atheniensium non eam pro affectu sed pro numine accipit?} Various mythological suppliants had become associated with the altar by the second century AD, most frequently the children of Herakles, then Adrastos. Our main sources are the Bibliotheca attributed to Apollodoros, which may have been written at any time between the mid first century BC and the second AD, and Zenobios' Proverbs, of the early second century AD. Both works are compilations of stories taken from earlier writers, but unfortunately the sources for the passages we are interested in are not cited, so the age of the material cannot be established with any certainty. The Bibliotheca tells how, after the death of Herakles, his children were pursued by their father's old enemy Eurystheus: "Being pursued they came to Athens, and sitting at the altar of Pity they claimed assistance. The Athenians did not surrender them but supported a war against Eurystheus." \footnote{Bibliotheca 2.8.1: διωκόμενοι δὲ ἦλθον εἰς Ἀθήνας, καὶ καθεσθεντες ἐπὶ τὸν Ἑλέου βομὸν ἠξίουν βοηθεῖσθαι. Ἀθηναῖοι δὲ οὐκ ἐκδιδόντες αὐτοὺς πρὸς τὸν Εὐρυσθέα πόλεμον ὑπέστησαν...}
story appears almost verbatim in Zenobios, and the association of the Heraklids with the altar is recorded by Statius and his scholiast Lactantius, and in scholia on Demosthenes and Aristophanes.\textsuperscript{16} Philostratos claims that the Athenians received the Heraklids “at the time when they established the altar of Mercy as of a thirteenth god, not pouring libations of wine and milk but of tears and of respect towards suppliants”.\textsuperscript{17}

The \textit{Bibliotheke} also has Adrastos, leader and only survivor of the ill-fated Seven against Thebes, making supplication at the altar in the course of seeking Athenian help in retrieving the bodies of his fallen comrades: “When he arrived at Athens, Adrastos took refuge at the altar of Pity and, placing a suppliant’s branch, asked that the dead be buried.”\textsuperscript{18} Zenobios again records the same story, though at greater length; interestingly, he puts it under the heading 'Αδράστεια Νέμεσις, deriving this cult title of Nemesis from the “fate of Adrastos”.\textsuperscript{19} Adrastos is the speaker in the latest source to mention the altar, the twelfth-century Nikephoros Basilake: “I shall go to the city of Athena, I shall make my way to the altar of Pity, I shall make a libation of tears and persuade that philanthropic people.”\textsuperscript{20} He goes on to call the Athenians οἱ θεόν εἰδότες τοῦ ἔλεον, “those who know Pity as a god”.

The women of Argos, without Adrastos, are the suppliants at Statius’ altar of \textit{Clementia} in a passage of the \textit{Thebaid} which gives a history of the altar’s foundation and a long list of previous suppliants, as well as the lengthiest description of the sanctuary (see below). Statius dismisses the story that the Heraklids set up the altar as falling short of the truth, as it was the gods themselves who established the

\textsuperscript{16} Zenobios 2.61, Schol. Demosth. \textit{Olynth.} 2.6, Lactantius on Statius \textit{Theb.} 12.487. Cf. Lysias for an early reference to the Heraklids’ supplication at Athenian altars, although unfortunately no particular altar is specified: ἀφικόμενοι εἰς τὴν πόλιν ἰκέται ἐπὶ τῶν βομῶν ἐκαθέζοντο (2.11).

\textsuperscript{17} Philostratos \textit{Epist.} 39/70: ὅταν καὶ τὸν Ἑλέον ἐστήσαντο βομῶν, ὡς τρισκαϊδέκατον θεοῦ, οὐκ οίνοι σπένδοντες αὐτῷ καὶ γάλακτος ἀλλὰ διακρύνων καὶ τῆς πρὸς τοὺς ἱκετεύοντας αἰδώς. The orator Demades is said to have proposed two candidates as “the thirteenth god”: Philip in 338 BC after Chaeroneia (Apsines \textit{Ars rhet.}, Spengel 1853, 333-4/1894, 221) and Alexander in 324 BC (Aelian \textit{VH} 5.12). Elsewhere Philostratos has the Heraklids being dragged away ἀπὸ τοῦ βομῶς (\textit{Vit. Soph.} 2.1.8).

\textsuperscript{18} \textit{Bibliotheke} 3.7.1: Ἀδράστος δὲ εἰς Ἀθηνᾶς ἀφικόμενος ἐπὶ τὸν Ἑλέον βομῶν κατέφυγε καὶ ἱκετεύοντας θεῖς ἧξιοι θάπτειν τοὺς νεκροὺς: see below p.218-19 on .space_
shrine.21 Countless people have found refuge there: those defeated in war, the exiled, kings who had lost their realms, those guilty of terrible crimes, including Oedipus and Orestes.22 It is noteworthy that the famous suppliants cited for the altar are nearly always mythological, the only historical people represented as availing themselves of it appearing in late sources, for whom their subjects seem to have taken on quasi-mythical status. Philostratos has the Athenians receiving Aristeides, Xenophon, Alcibiades and Demosthenes, but in the same breath mentions Demeter, Dionysos and the children of Herakles as suppliants.23 Libanios bases a rhetorical exercise around the proposition that Demosthenes had been torn from his position as suppliant at the altar of Eleos and surrendered to Philip; later released, Demosthenes proposes to the Athenians that the altar be done away with.24

But are these rhetorical flourishes and myths based on any real altar of Pity? Our best source is the indefatigable Pausanias, who tells us all about the altar and its god (1.17.1):

Among other things not well known to everyone in the Athenian Agora is the altar of Pity; the Athenians alone of Greeks pay him honour, although he is an especially useful god in human life and its vicissitudes. Not only are institutions for philanthropy established among the Athenians, but they worship gods more than others do; they even have an altar of Respect, and of Rumour and Impulse. Quite obviously, for those who have a greater share of piety than others, there is a proportionate measure of good fortune.25

This passage seems clear enough, but it does raise a number of problems. Firstly, the phrase οὐκ ἐς ἀπαντας ἐπίσημα has most often been interpreted as "not well

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21 Stat. Theb. 12.499-505: caelicolas.../ sic sacrasse loco commune animantibus aegris/ confugium, unde procul starent iraeque minaequ/ regnaque...

22 Il. 506-18. The other name Statius associates with the altar is Olynthus (Theb. 12.510), whose identity has so far eluded editors (none of the proposed emendations is convincing). Melville and Vessey can only suggest the eponymous hero of the city Olynthos, "but he has no recorded connection with Athens as a place of sanctuary" (1992, 365, n.320). I wonder whether a link might be made with the "Olynthian" of the Elder Seneca’s Controversiae (10.5.34, on which see below), though this seems fairly tenuous.

23 Philostr. Epistolai 39/70.

24 Lib. Declam. 22; see further below.

25 Paus. 1.17.1: Ἀθηναίοις δὲ ἐν τῇ ἱγορᾷ καὶ ἄλλα ἐστὶν οὐκ ἐς ἀπαντας ἐπίσημα καὶ Ἐλέος βομός, ὦ μάλιστα θεόν ἐς ἀνθρώπινον βίον καὶ μεταβολάς πραγμάτων ὄντι ὀφελίμῳ μόνον τιμᾶς Ἑλλήνων νέυσιν Ἀθηναίοι. τούτοις δὲ οὐ τὰ ἐς φιλανθρωπίαν μόνον καθέστηκεν, ἄλλα καὶ θεοὺς εὐσεβοῦσιν ἄλλον πλέον, καὶ γὰρ Αἴδης σφις βομός ἐστὶ καὶ Φήμης καὶ Ὀρμῆς δήλα τε εὐαργῶς, ὄσοις πλέον τι ἐτέρων εὐσεβείας μετέστιν, ἰσον σφις παρὸν τύχης χρηστῆς.
known to all”, but Wycherley raises the valid objection that the mass of literary evidence suggests, on the contrary, that the altar was very well known indeed, even beyond Greece. He prefers to translate “not easily distinguishable for everyone”, emphasising the root meaning of ἐπισημος. As he is identifying the altar of Eleos with the altar of Twelve Gods, he links the phrase with the problem of Pausanias’ route in the Agora, and comes up with the idea that Pausanias had failed to notice this “difficult to distinguish” altar earlier because it was surrounded by trees, and he only caught sight of it when taking a final look round before leaving the Agora.26

Neither interpretation is entirely satisfactory, but the meaning of the phrase can perhaps be elucidated by linguistic parallels. Pausanias uses three similar expressions, all of which concern how well a thing is known: οὐκ ἐς ἀπαντας κεχώρηκεν ἡ φήμη (“the report has not spread to everyone” of all the Gauls’ campaigns, 1.4.6); τούτους οὐκ ἐς ἀπαν τὸ Ἑλληνικὸν ἐπιφανεῖς νομίζω γενέσθαι (“I do not believe that these men were famous to all the Greeks”, 5.23.7); ἔστι μὲν οὐκ ἐς ἀπαντας γνώριμα (“there are other things not well-known to everyone”, e.g. the ritual of the Arrhephoria, 1.27.3). Given such parallels we should accept the translation “not well known to everyone”. It is perhaps not necessary to read too much into the phrase, which could simply be a formulaic linking device, the kind of thing one says when telling a story.27

That the Athenians alone worship Eleos is not strictly true. A small cylindrical altar found near the temple of Asklepios at Epidauros, along with several others, all marble and inscribed in the same schema, is inscribed: “Hierokles (dedicated) this altar of Mercy in obedience to a dream”.28 This is, however, probably later than Pausanias, late second or third century AD, and is the only trace of any cult of Eleos outside Athens. Most commentators have relegated this altar to

26 Wycherley 1959, 42-3. See further below.
27 Papachatzes (1974, 256) likewise adduces the parallel of οὐκ ἐς ἀπαντας γνώριμα (Paus. 1.27.3) to dismiss argument about the phrase. Pausanias, who is one of the first to speak explicitly of Eleos as a god, uses the abstract ἔλεος a few times: Demeter “has mercy on” the childless Plemnaios by rearing a son for him (2.5.8); the Romans “were changed to mercy” for Greece and relaxed the harsh terms imposed after Mummius' sack of Korinth (7.16.10); the heartless Kallirhoē finally relents and kills herself, out of pity for Koreos and shame at the way she has treated him (7.21.5); the Gauls are characterised as “men devoid of pity and love in their natures” (10.22.4).
28 IG IV2 513 (= SIG 1149): Ἐλέους/ βομόν/ ἱεροκλής/ κατ' ὀνόματι.
a footnote, dismissing it as dependent upon the Athenian cult, or as a poetic expression of thanks for some “mercy” received.  

Another altar at Epidauros, which may have been erected by the same Hierokles, is dedicated to the rather idiosyncratic deity “Pantheios”. Little can be established firmly from the Epidaurian altar, but it does suggest that someone outside Athens found Eleos sufficiently effective a power to merit a personal altar.

It is important here to distinguish between what Pausanias says he actually saw and the comments it prompts. What he saw in the Agora was α/τοι τού Ελέους, the rest of the passage is an enlargement on the theme taken from his own stock of general knowledge. We have other evidence to substantiate his claim that the Athenians worshipped Aidos and Pheme (though no other references for Horme), and for Athens’ general reputation for philanthropy and piety. But that the Athenians worship a “very useful” god called Eleos is not clearly established. Out of the thirty-seven passages which refer to Eleos at all, only ten speak explicitly of Eleos as a god, rather than just of the Ελέους, and of these six are later than Pausanias. Quintilian’s comment that Athens “regarded (Misericordia) not just as a state of mind but as a god” could well be a mere turn of phrase, the kind of hyperbole allowed by rhetorical licence, and the other references to an independent Eleos, are just as problematic. Only once in extant literature is mention of Eleos made entirely outside the context of the altar.

For a more evocative description of the precinct we might go back to Statius, writing at the end of the first century AD:

29 Thompson 1952, 49 n.6; Zuntz 1953, 75 n.18. Wycherley 1954, 147 gives the altar a whole four lines of text, making the rather unnecessary comment: “The dedicator no doubt had the Athenian altar in mind — indeed it apparently haunted his dreams.” As it was standard procedure at Epidauros for anyone seeking healing to expect instructions about his cure via a dream while asleep in the abaton, it is hardly surprising that a dedication should contain the phrase κατ᾽ ἐναπόκρυπτο.  

30 IG IV² 549.  

31 On Pausanias and autopsy, see above pp.42-3.  


33 See below on Karneades, Statius, Philostratos, Apsines, Sopatros and Libanios.  

34 See below on Timokles. For a complete list of ancient sources for the altar of Eleos, conveniently presented in alphabetical order of author and with English translations, see Wycherley 1957.
In the middle of the city there was an altar sacred not to one of the mighty gods, but gentle Clemency had her seat there, and the wretched made it holy; she was never without a new suppliant, no prayers did she turn away or condemn. Whoever asks is heard; day and night it is possible to come and win over the goddess with complaints alone. Her rites are modest; no incense flame nor deep-welling blood are accepted; her altar is wet with tears, and above it hang sad offerings of cut hair and clothes left there when luck changed. Around the altar is a gentle grove, and the mark of venerable worship, garlanded laurels and the suppliant olive tree. There is no image, the goddess’ form is entrusted to no metal; she likes to live in hearts and minds. She always has frightened people about her, the place is always swarming with needy crowds; only to the prosperous is her altar unknown.

Although this takes the form of an evocation of a *locus amoenus*, it is likely to be more than just a literary exercise. Statius’ father travelled in Greece, by his son’s account, winning prizes in poetic contests at Delphi, Nemea and the Isthmos, and Statius himself is likely to have visited Athens; the lapse into the present tense at 1.485 certainly suggests that the description is based on observation of a real location, however rhetorically elaborated. The most immediately obvious point the passage raises is the question of the gender of “Pity”. The fact that Statius can happily effect such a sex-change should raise our doubts about the reality of this deity, as should references to the absence of sacrifices and a cult statue. David Vessey points to the Stoic understanding of *clementia* as a personal quality (outlined in Seneca’s De

35 Theb. 12.481-496:  
 URBE FUIT MEDIA NULLI CONCESSA POTENTUM  
 ARA DEUM; MITIS POSUIT CLEMENTIA SEDEM,  
 ET MISERI FECERE SACRAM; SINE SUPPLICE NUMquam  
 ILLA NOVO, NULLA DAMNAVIT VOTA REPULSA.  
 AUDITI QUICUMQUE ROGANT NOCTESQUE DIESQUE  
 IRE DATUM ET SOLIS NUMEN PLACARE QUERELIS.  
 PARCA SUPERSTITIO: NON TREA FLAMMA, NEC ALTUS  
 ACCIPitur SANGUIS: LACRIMIS ALTARIA SUDANT,  
 MAESTARUMQVE SUPER LIBAMINA SECTA COMARUM  
 PENDENT ET VESTES MUTATA SORTE RELICTAE.  
 MITE NEMUS CIRCA, CULTUQUE INSIGNE VERENDO  
 VITTATAE LAURUS ET SUPPLICIS ARBOR OLIVAE.  
 NULLA AUTEM EFFIGIES, NULLI COMMissa METALLO  
 FORMA DEI, MENTES HABITARE ET PECTORA GAUDET.  
 SEMPER HABET TREPIDOS, SEMPER LOCUS HORRET EGENIS  
 COETIBUS, IGNOTAe TANTUM FELICIBUS ARAE.

36 Statius Silvae 5.3.141-5. Ahl 1986 argues that the passage is Statius’ “thank you” to Athens for the honour accorded to him or his father by the Council of the Areopagos attested by an honorary inscription dedicated at Eleusis around the middle of the first century AD (IG II² 3919). He points to Athena’s speech instituting the court of the Areopagos in Aischylos’ *Eumenides* (681-705) as “the prototype for Statius’ Altar of Mercy, open day and night: clemency dissociated from power, and from despotism or anarchy” (2891).
Underlying the passage, one of the facets of Statius' Stoicism which made Dante and others think he must have been a Christian: "Clementia is not a goddess, but a symbol of the highest virtue that can inspire humanity in a harsh and troubled world." Clementia's dwelling "in hearts and souls" strikes a particularly suspicious note, suggesting "a spirit akin to that of Christianity", with its emphasis on faith over works, rather than the externalising which is characteristic of Greek religion. 37

After Statius and Pausanias, evidence for a late sighting of the altar, by no less a person than the emperor Julian, is apparently supplied by Libanios. In the Embassy to Julian (AD 363), asking the emperor to show mercy on Antioch by continuing to use the city as his seat of government, he invokes the usual example of Athenian philanthropy towards the unfortunate: "It was not for people who in their city considered Eleos a god — whose altar you have seen in Athens, emperor — to remember the wrongs of those who called upon them and begged their help; they had either to overturn the altar or be reconciled." 38 Julian had a brief period of study in Athens in AD 355 when he might be supposed to have seen the altar, but this raises a problem which is relevant to all our post-third century sources: much of the Agora was destroyed in the Herulian sack of Athens in AD 267, and afterwards Athens retreated behind defences which excluded the area. 39 This obviously throws doubt on the location we are to assume for the altar, which is not explicitly mentioned. In the "Demosthenes" speech cited above, however, Libanios does specifically give the altar

37 Vessey 1973, 310. He also makes a distinction between mercy and pity: "Mercy must, however, be distinguished from pity, which is a fallible emotion. For mercy is inseparable from justice ..." (311). On Statius and clementia, see Burgess 1972, who argues the case for Statius having deliberately redefined the concept in response to the contemporary political situation, reinstating clementia as an admirable quality for a Roman emperor, applicable to a benevolent dictatorship rather than an arbitrary tyranny (348). Susanna Moreton-Braund kindly drew my attention to this aspect of Statius' description. Evidence for the deification of clementia at Rome is confined to the Caesarian and imperial periods, clementia always being closely associated with the ruler in question. In 44 BC the Senate decreed an altar to Clementia Caesaris (Appian B.C. 2.106, Plut. Caes. 57), set up statues representing Caesar and Clementia standing hand in hand, and instated Antonius as flamen dialis over the priesthood of the temple (Cassius Dio 44.6.4); again in AD 28 an ara Clementiae was erected in honour of Tiberius (Tacitus Ann. 4.74); a yearly sacrifice to Calligula's φιλανθρωπία was voted by the Senate (Dio Cassius 59.16.10). See Axtell 1987, 35 on the cult at Rome; on Clementia on coins of Tiberius and Vitellius, see Levick 1975.

38 Lib. Or. 15.39: σῶν γὰρ οίκοι τῶν Ἐλεον ἤγομένοιν θεον, οὐ τὸν βασιλέα κόσμον ἠθήνασιν, ὁ βασιλέα, μεμνήθηκε τῶν τοῖς καλοῖς καὶ δεομένοις ἐμπερημένοιν οὐκ ἦν, ἀλλ' ἡ τὸν βασιλέα ἀνατρέπειν ἑχρήν ἡ δημοκρατία.

39 For a brief history of the post-Herulian Agora, see Thompson and Wycherley 1972, 208-19.
of Eleos a location in the Agora: as Demosthenes was being led away from the altar he covered his face, “for I could not bear to look upon the statues of Harmodios and Aristogeiton, nor the Bouleuterion or the Metroon, the places where my speeches were made and my propositions voted on”. The Bouleuterion and Metroon are of course on the west side of the Agora, and the Tyrannicides group stood somewhere between the temple of Ares and the Odeion, all being fairly obvious landmarks by which to designate not only the Agora but also the democratic and religious values which the character “Demosthenes” feels were being violated by his forcible removal from sanctuary (FIG. 58).

The level of destruction caused by the Herulian invasion is a matter for some discussion. Frantz summarises the literary evidence, based on which earlier scholars had, in her view, underestimated the damage done; against this, excavation of the Agora had shown that the impact was “catastrophic”. Recent work on the period, however, is tending once more to downgrade the degree of devastation caused by the Herulii in a number of regions, and even on a more pessimistic reading of the Athenian situation, the buildings of the north half of the west side of the Agora escaped serious damage. It is not impossible, then, that an altar situated in this area might have remained reasonably intact, nor that a tourist with such an interest as Julian’s in “pagan” religion might have been shown it. Libanios may be using much rhetorical licence in his speech to Julian in general, but such a parenthetic appeal to the latter’s own experience would make little sense if the incident were entirely imaginary.

The one piece of apparently hard evidence for the physical existence of an “altar of Mercy” is a second-century AD votive relief dedicated by a Thracian family: “Supreme ruler on high, father of fruitful Peace,/ we are suppliants at your altar of Mercy ...” Only part of the relief survives, showing the lower half of a man

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40 Lib. Declam. 22.11: οὐ γὰρ ἔφεσεν βλέπειν εἰς τὰς Ἀρμοδίου καὶ Ἀριστογείτονος εἰκόνας οὐδεὶς εἰς τὸ βουλευτήριον οὐδεὶς εἰς τὸ μιτρίδον, τὰ χωρία τῶν ἐμὸν λόγων καὶ ψυχοσμάτων. Cf. FIG. 58.
41 Tyrannicides: Paus. 1.8.5; see Wycherley 1957, 93-98 for testimonia.
42 Frantz 1988, 1-3. Literary view: e.g. Judeich 1931, 104.
43 Frantz 1988, 4 and 53-6, where she highlights the danger of attributing any signs of Late Antique destruction to the Herulii, and presents the evidence for associating much damage in the Agora with the arrival of Alaric and the Visgoths in 396.
44 On Julian and Athens, see Frantz 1988, 20-4.
45 IG II² 4786: ὑπημέδων ὑπάτε, πάτερ Ἐιρήνης βασιλαρπίου; σὸν Ἑλαίου βοσίων ἰκετεύομεν ἡμεῖς...
standing at an altar and the feet of a boy. This was found in the Odeion of Herodes, and is the only text suggesting an association between Eleos and another god, in this case Zeus. Unfortunately, it is not clear to what altar the inscription refers, as the relief had been moved to its find-spot from elsewhere. An altar identified by some as that of Zeus Agoraios is situated between the Odeion and the monument of the Eponymous Heroes, and another in front of the Stoa of Zeus is likely to be the altar of Zeus Eleutherios, but too little is known about them to establish a link with the inscription or our altar. Papachatzes interprets the inscription as simply describing Zeus' altar as "merciful", rather than making it a candidate for the altar of Mercy. Wycherley uses the inscription as evidence for his suggestion, to which I shall return, that in the phrase 'Ελάιον βωμός, 'Ελάιον is "a kind of descriptive genitive" rather than the possessive. The strange spelling of 'Ελαίον has been dismissed as a Thracian aberration, or explained by parallel evidence which indicates that at and e were pronounced as if the same at this period, as they are in Modern Greek. No one has made the obvious suggestion that οί Ελαίον (the wild olive) or το Ελαίον (olive oil) is actually intended: "Zeus, we are suppliants at your olive-altar". This interpretation is not as far-fetched as it might at first appear, since Zeus, with Athene, is protector of olive trees, olive oil was used for libations, and the holding of an olive branch is specifically associated with supplication. The link between such a supplicatory olive-branch and the altar of Mercy is explicitly made by a scholium on Aischines explaining the word ικετηρία: "The suppliant's branch was like this: a suppliant wreathed a stick with olive shoots and sat holding it on the altar of Mercy.

47 Wycherley 1954, 146: "These people could neither write hexameters nor yet spell Greek ...,; ibid. 1957, 74 no.190: "The misspelling of Eleos indicates a time when the pronunciation of ai had changed". Zuntz dismisses the second line of the inscription as "hopelessly corrupt" (1953, 76 n.19). For the equivalence in pronunciation of at and e from about AD 150, see Creaghan and Raubitschek 1947, 18 with n.103.
48 Blech (1982) comments on various cases of the placing of wreaths and boughs in Greek tradition (278-94), and specifically on their use in supplication (288-92). A "suppliant's branch" is carried by Adrastos at the altar of Mercy in the Bibliotheka (above p.211), and in Statius Juno equips the Argive women with "branches of olive and suppliant chaplets" for their mission: ipsa manu ramosque oleae vittasque precantes/ tradit (Theb. 12.468). See below (n.52) for references to the suppliant's olive branch in tragedy.
until he obtained his rights". Here the domestic olive (ἡ ἐλαιότι) is specified, admittedly, rather than the oleaster (ὁ ἐλαιοτιος), but it is easy to see how confusion between an altar of supplication, indicated by ἡ ἐλαιότι/ὁ ἐλαιοτιος, and an altar of Mercy might have arisen.

So far all our sources have postdated Athens’ fall to the Romans. The altar’s association with the children of Herakles and Adrastos, though, suggests that it was regarded as of some antiquity, and provides an indication of where earlier references to an altar of Pity might be expected. The theme of Athenian φιλανθρωπία towards suppliants appears in several fifth-century dramas, and scholiasts commenting on them sometimes mention the altar of Pity. Nowhere, however, does the altar appear in the play itself, despite its obvious dramatic potential.

50 Schol. Aisch. 2.15: ἰκτενεία δὲ ὡς ἐγίνετο: ῥάβδον θαλλὸν ἐλαίας στένας καθήσω κατέχον εἰς τὸν Ἐλέους βομίων, μέχρις ὀφθαλμός ἔτυχε τῶν δικαιῶν.
51 According to Plutarch, on the 6th Mounychion a procession of girls would walk to the Delphinion carrying hiketeria (Thes. 18.1); Simon (1983, 79-81) suggests that this festival was possibly called Hiketeria, corresponding to the Roman supplicatio.
52 Parallels from various tragedies based around a scene of supplication, with a group of people seeking asylum from persecutors or help against their enemies, may throw some light on what would have happened at the altar of the Twelve Gods/Eleos. Zeus seems to be the god most frequently associated with supplication, but he by no means has a monopoly. Olive branches usually play a part in the ritual, which takes place at various altars. Aischylus’ Suppliant Women: daughters of Danaos, at Argos, seeking protection against the sons of Aigyptos, with “wool-bound shoots of suppliants” (21-2), at an altar of Twelve Gods (? “the common altar of these lords” 222-3, plural wooden images 428-30 and 465; references to Zeus Aphiktor 1, Zeus Hikesios 347, Zeus Hiktaios 385, Apollo, Athena, Poseidon, Hermes, Themis Hikesia 360). Euripides’ Suppliant Women: Argive widows of the Seven against Thebes, seeking Athens’ help in retrieving the bodies for burial, at an altar of Demeter and Persephone at Eleusis, “suppliant bough” (10); see Collard’s commentary on this line for an account of supplication procedure, with references (1975, 258-62). Madness of Herakles: Amphitrion, Megara and the sons of Herakles, Thebes, seeking refuge from Lykos, altar of Zeus Soter (48). The Children of Herakles: Iolaos and the children of Herakles, Marathon, altar of Zeus; see Wilkins 1993 for literary sources for the Heraklids’ flight to Attika (xiv-xv), Marathon’s associations with Herakles (xxvii), and visual representations of the suppliant Heraklids (twice at anonymous altars, once at an altar of Apollo, xxxi-xxxiii). Sophokles’ OC 466-99: although the play does not have a supplication scene at an altar as such, Oidipous clearly falls into the category of asylum-seekers, and is one of the suppliants cited by Statius for the altar of Clementia. When he has accidentally incurred the wrath of the Furies by trespassing in their grove, the chorus give Oidipous detailed instructions on the ritual he must perform to placate them (466-99). He must pour a libation of water and honey on the ground, then strew the damp earth with olive branches: “Lay upon [the earth] thrice nine olive sprays with both hands, and offer up this prayer.” (483-4). Burkert (1985b) deals with the passage among other examples from Sophokles which he thinks reflect contemporary religious practice. The holding of branches, apparently, can be seen in Indoiranian art, where priests have branches in their hands or spread them on the ground (12). Blech (1982) comments on various cases of the placing of wreaths and boughs in Greek tradition (278-94), and specifically on their use in...
A scholium on Sophokles' *Oidipous at Kolonos* explains why Oidipous sought asylum there: “Because an altar of Mercy is established at Athens”. All that appears in Sophokles, though, is a reference to Athens’ famous philanthropy: “they say that Athens is most god-fearing, and alone has the power to save the wronged stranger and to help him.” Similarly, a scholium on Aristophanes’ *Knights* tells the story, by now familiar, of the suppliant Heraklids, prompted by the word μακαρία. According to some, Makaria was the daughter of Herakles. When Eurystheus marched against Athens, and the Athenians refused to hand over the Herakleidai who had taken refuge at the altar of Pity, she killed herself, because an oracle had said that the Athenians would win if one of the Herakleidai gave himself up to a voluntary death — “as Euripides says in the *Herakleidai*”. But in fact Euripides makes no mention of the altar of Pity, and the play is actually set at Marathon, not Athens, the place of asylum being a shrine of Zeus Agoraios, not an altar of Mercy. A possible link between the Heraklids and Athens is provided by a line in Aristophanes’ *Ploutos*: Blepsiades jokingly conjures up a vision of Chremylos and Wealth surrounded by suppliants “like the Heraklids of Pamphilos” (on l.385). The scholium explains the reference as being to a painting of the suppliant Heraklids “in the Athenian stoa”, but the site of their actual supplication is not mentioned.

The only appearance of Eleos in literature before Diodoros, and the only one totally independent of a reference to the Athenian altar, is a two line fragment of the fourth-century Timokles’ comedy *Συνεργικά*: “Mercy is a suitable god for the dead, but to the living Envy [...] a most unholy other”? Stobaios quotes the lines in supplication (288-92). On sanctuaries in general as places of refuge, see Sinn 1995; figs. 5.1-3 show vase representations of suppliants sitting on altars, holding olive branches.

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supplication (288-92). On sanctuaries in general as places of refuge, see Sinn 1995; figs. 5.1-3 show vase representations of suppliants sitting on altars, holding olive branches.

53 Schol. Soph. OC 260: ἐπεὶ καὶ ἔλεος βοής ἐν Ἀθηναῖς ἱδρύται. 54 Soph. OC 260-62: ... τάς Ἀθηναίς φοιαθεσιοστάτας/ εἴναι μόνας δὲ τὸν κακοδιέσκευον
ξένον/ σούζειν οίες τε καὶ μόνας ἔχειν. In support of Athens' reputation for being
φιλοκύρμος and ἱκεταδόκος, the scholiast quotes a line of Kallimachos’ *Aitia*: “She alone of
cities knows how to pity” (Schol. OC 258 = Kall. fr. 51 Pfeiffer: οὔκενεν οἰκτείρειν οὔδε μόνη
πολίων). Hollis suggests that Book Two of the *Aitia* may have ended with a tribute to
Athens for its compassion and willingness to receive suppliants, indicated by the altar of
Mercy” (1992, 6).


56 This is the only evidence apart from the Thracian dedication for a possible association
between the altar of Eleos and that of Zeus Agoraios in the Athenian Agora.

57 Timocles fr.33 PCG VII: τοὺς μὲν τεθνεώσιν ἔλεος ἐπετικής θεός/ τοὺς ζωσὶ δ' ἔτερον
ἄνοστατοιν φθόνος.
support of the statement “that one should not maltreat the dead”.\textsuperscript{58} Theophilos has just the first line, to illustrate “that (the) god cares even about the dead”.\textsuperscript{59} The second line as we have it is obviously corrupt, and a number of emendations have been suggested, the most straightforward being simply to make \textit{$\alpha$νοσιώτατον} masculine: “for the living, on the other hand, Envy is most unholy”. It is difficult to make anything of the couplet out of context, but at any rate, Eleos and Phthonos seem to be being set up as a contrasting pair: perhaps the living should feel \textit{eleos} for the dead, while the dead feel \textit{phthonos} for the living? That \textit{έλεος} can be called a \textit{θεός} in the context of comedy certainly need not imply the existence of a cult, but Timokles may be parodying fourth-century innovations with cults of abstractions such as Eirene.\textsuperscript{60}

A final reference to Eleos, originating with the second century BC philosopher Karneades, is an interesting passage quoted by Sextus Empiricus. It is part of a \textit{sortites}, a type of “chain-argument” which Karneades was apparently wont to employ in criticising Stoic theology, using relentless logic to prove belief in the gods to be self-contradictory. This particular example of Karneades’ method reads: “If we declare that Aphrodite is a goddess, Erōs, being the son of Aphrodite, will be a god; but if Erōs is a god, Eleos will be a god too; for both are states of the soul, and Eleos has been worshipped in the same way as Erōs; at any rate, the Athenians have some altars of Eleos. And if Eleos is a god, so also is Phobos... And if Phobos, then all the rest of the soul’s states. But these are not gods; neither, then, is Aphrodite a goddess, though if they had been gods, Aphrodite too would have been a goddess. Therefore gods do not exist!”\textsuperscript{61} There are all sorts of objections we could raise to this argument, but for present purposes we can abstract the important aside:

\textsuperscript{58} Stob. 4.57.8: \textit{διτι οὐ χρῆ παροινεῖν εἰς τοὺς τετελευτηκότας}.

\textsuperscript{59} Theoph. in Autol. 2.38: \textit{διτι φρονεῖται θεός} καὶ τῶν τεθνεόταν.

\textsuperscript{60} See above ch.6.

\textsuperscript{61} Adv. Math. 9.186-8: \textit{εἰγε μὴν τὴν Ἀφροδίτην θεάν λέγομεν εἰναι, ἔσται καὶ ὁ Ἐρως υἱὸς ὄν Ἀφροδίτης θεός, ἀλλ′} εἰ ὁ Ἐρως θεός ἔστι, καὶ ὁ Ἐλεός ἔσται θεός: ἀμφότερα γὰρ ἔστι νυμφικὰ πάθη, καὶ ὁμοίως ἀφαιρεῖται τῷ Ἐρωτι καὶ ὁ Ἐλεός: παρὰ Ἀθηναίοις γοῦν Ἐλέου βομβι μίνει εἰσίν. εἰ δὲ ὁ Ἐλεός θεός ἔστι, καὶ ὁ Φόβος... εἰ δὲ ὁ φόβος, καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ τῆς νυμφικῆς πάθη, οὐχὶ δὲ γε ταῦτα: οὔδὲ ἢ Ἀφροδίτη ἄρα θεός ἔστιν. εἰ δὲ γε ἡ σαν θεόι, καὶ ὁ Ἀφροδίτη θεὸς ὑπήρξεν· οὐκ ἄρα εἰσὶ θεοὶ.
The plural altars are puzzling, as nearly all our other references are to the one altar of Mercy. Wachsmuth suggested the implausible solution of there having been several altars in the one enclosure; Wycherley more sensibly posits that several Athenian altars were "known as ἐλέους βωμοί" in the second century BC. We might note that Statius also has plural altars on two occasions, although this could just be poetic licence; also, one manuscript of the Apsines passage quoted above has Ἐλέους βωμός (s.) but goes on to give examples of suppliants who had taken refuge ἐπὶ τῶν βωμῶν (pl.).

The statement that ἐλεος is a "state of the soul" is like Quintilian's, and suggestive of Aristotle's categorisation of pity as one of the πάθη τῆς ψυχῆς.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVIDENCE AND IDENTIFICATION OF THE ALTAR

The enclosure which has most often been associated with the Athenian altar of Pity is situated in the north-west quarter of the Agora, beside the Panathenaic Way. It was first discovered in 1891, short lengths of two walls being exposed during the digging of a deep trench for the southern retaining wall of the Athens-Piraeus electric railway. In the course of American excavations in the Agora in 1934 the area immediately south of the retaining wall was dug, uncovering the south west corner of the enclosure and a statue base inscribed with a dedication by Leagros to the Twelve Gods (FIG. 56); several pits were dug within the railway course, establishing the outline of the peribolos, but as the train service could not be interrupted extensive excavation was not possible. Further investigation of the enclosure and its immediate vicinity was carried out in 1946, and in 1949 Margaret Crosby published a full report of the installation, identifying it as the altar of the Twelve Gods. Three years later, Homer Thompson took Crosby's work further, positing an identification between the Altar of the Twelve Gods and the altar of Pity and suggesting a reconstruction of the parapet decorated with a group of four three-

62 Wachsmuth 1890, 436 n.3; Wycherley 1954, 145.
64 Wilamowitz was the first to suggest an identification between the two altars, if only in passing (1880, 201 n.4). The fundamental articles are Thompson 1952, Zuntz 1953 (contra), Wycherley 1954; cf. Travlos 1971, 458.
65 Crosby 1949.
Zuntz was quick to reply to Thompson’s article, pointing out several major problems with both the identification of the altar and the suggested reconstruction. At the same time Wycherley provided a more literary assessment of the identification, but was happy to follow Thompson in all but his early date for the altar’s change of name. In their jointly written history of the Agora (1972) his position was restated with slightly more emphasis on the artificial nature of Eleos. No alternative identification of the altar of Pity has been suggested since then, although more doubts have been aired, and attempts have been made to locate the altar elsewhere, following Vanderpool’s argument about Pausanias’ route in Athens (below). This has found wide acceptance, and consequently the identification of the two altars seems largely to have been dropped, even by Thompson, two recent works to be published on the Agora under the auspices of the American School make no mention of Eleos in the context of the altar of the Twelve Gods, or indeed at all.

Since no entirely satisfactory alternative has yet been suggested, however, the case for identifying the Agora installation as the altar of Pity deserves reassessment. The identification of the altar as that of the Twelve Gods is firmly established by the Leagros dedication: “Leagros son of Glaukon dedicated this to the Twelve Gods”.

Thucydides tells us that “Peisistratos son of Hippias the tyrant... set up an altar of the Twelve Gods in the Agora during his archonship” and this archonship can be dated probably to 522/1 BC from a fragmentary archon-list found elsewhere in the Agora.

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66 Thompson 1952.
67 Zuntz 1953.
68 The 1976 edition of the tourist guide to the Agora excavations, edited by Thompson, shows the influence of Vanderpool’s argument, though the wording carefully avoids exactly equating Pausanias’ Agora with the Roman Agora. The entry under “Sanctuary of the Twelve Gods” briefly explains the sanctuary’s alternative identity as the altar of Pity, but concludes “It now seems more probable, however, that Pausanias came upon the Altar of Pity after he had left the area with which we are concerned... and that by ‘Agora’ he meant the commercial district including the Market of Caesar and Augustus to the east of our area.” (98).
69 Camp 1990 (ed.) and 1992, 40-2, although the artist’s impression of the altar which he reproduces in both (infra FIG. 57) follows Thompson’s reconstruction.
70 Agora I 1597: [Λέαγρος ἀνέθηκεν Γλαῦκονος δώδεκα θεῶν]. The Leagros dedication was dated to 490-80 BC by Crosby, but Francis and Vickers argue for a post-Persian date, in their revised chronology for Leagros’ life (1981, 113-8), and Gadbery wants to give the base a later date on stylistic grounds, a proposition she promises to discuss in a forthcoming study (1992, 474).
71 Thuc. 6.54.6-7: Πεισίστρατος ὁ ἵππιον τοῦ γυναικοῦ ἐναντίον τῶν δώδεκα θεῶν βωμὸν τὸν ἐν τῇ ἁγουρῇ ἱερων ἀνέθεκε. Archon-list: Agora I 4120. The Thucydides passage goes on to mention that “on the the altar in the Agora the people of Athens later covered up
Other literary and epigraphic sources characterise the altar of the Twelve Gods as the central point in Athens from which all distances were measured and as a place of asylum for suppliants (see below). Two fourth-century decrees order worship of the Twelve and two inscriptions record dedications to the Twelve, one by the Boule, one by a private individual. Crosby notes as "striking" the lack of dedications later than the mid fourth century BC, but that the cult continued thereafter is firmly established by the presence of a seat "for the priest of the Twelve Gods" in the theatre of Dionysos. The chronology established by Crosby from the archaeological evidence is consistent with this picture: in its first form the peribolos dates from the archaic period, and the moulding on fragments of the actual altar suggests the latter part of the sixth century; it was destroyed by the Persians in 479 and not rebuilt until c.430-20, after which it remained intact until the Herulian sack of AD 267; the parapet's posts and orthostats were carefully removed at some point after the sack, perhaps to be used in the construction of the Valerian Wall or transferred to a place of safety within the new defences. Recently Laura Gadbery has challenged the traditional chronology, on the grounds that it is not supported by the ceramic evidence, a problem previously explained away with the plea of disturbed stratification. She suggests that the Peisistratid parapet was only renovated, not replaced, in the last third of the fifth century, with blocks from the lower sill being shifted, the interior pavement laid and the Leagros base moved to its present location. This solution allows for a later date for the building of the second parapet, agreeing with the fourth-century stratification around the upper sill, previously thought to be intrusive, and Gadbery argues for the mid fourth century, on the analogy of the monument of the Eponymous Heroes and other parallels. This date would also

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72 Central point: Hdt. 2.7.1-2, IG II² 2640 (fifth century); cf. Pindar fr.75 SM. Shear (1994, 231) comments on the altar's place on the early development of the Agora.

73 Decrees: IG II² 30a.2-3 (386/5 BC); IG II² 112.6-9 (362/1 BC). Dedications: by the Boule, IG II² 2790, (357/6 BC); by Philippus of Kolone, IG II² 4564 (first half 4th cBC).

74 IG II² 5065; see Maass 1972, 132. Cf. topographic mention of the altar of Twelve Gods in connection with a statue of Demosthenes [Plutarch] Vit. X Orat. 847a. See Nünlist (1993, 250) on swearing με τοὺς δόξανα Θεούς in comedy; apparently "Der Schwur ist in Griechenland noch heute gebräuchlich (Hinweis T. Gagos)."

75 Crosby 1949.
accord with some evidence which suggests that the Twelve Gods were especially popular in Athens following the battle of Mantinea in 362 BC. I have already suggested that the altar may have survived the Herulian sack, perhaps falling to Alaric at the end of the fourth century AD; any vestiges of the altar remaining would have been subsumed at the beginning of the fifth century with the erection on the site of a large square building with a colonnaded central court, possibly to be associated with the large gymnasium complex built at the same time in the southern part of the Agora.

The desire to identify this altar and precinct as that of Eleos stems largely from the Pausanias passage, taking in combination the fact that Pausanias omits the famous altar of the Twelve Gods and that the altar we have roughly fits the topographic requirements of his description. The fact that Pausanias does not mention the altar of the Twelve Gods ought to be significant. Of course, he omits such major buildings as the Stoa of Attalos, but that is consistent with his general dislike of the new and preference for older monuments. The altar and enclosure we have are late sixth century, so within the class of things likely to attract Pausanias' interest, although he does not set out to be comprehensive, and may simply not have thought this altar worthy of note. The omission would be more satisfactorily explained, though, by the hypothesis that Pausanias' altar of Eleos is in fact one and the same as the altar of the Twelve Gods. The altar of Eleos is the last monument Pausanias mentions in the Agora, after the statues of Solon and Seleukos in front of the Stoa Poikile and before going on to the gymnasium of Ptolemy and the Theseion.

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77 See Long 1987, 174. Euphranor's painting in the Stoa of Zeus Eleutherios dates from around 360 BC, opposite his painting of Theseus with Demos and Demokratia (Paus. 1.3.3-4, Pliny NH 35.40.128-9; Valerius Maximus 8.11.5). The Twelve are mentioned in several decrees of the 380s and 360s, and various inscriptions record dedications to them between the late fifth and the mid fourth centuries. Both the juxtaposition of the Euphranor paintings and the inscriptions indicate a perceived link between the Twelve Gods, military victory and the flourishing of Athenian democracy. In the Laws (c.347 BC) Plato suggests a rationalisation of the Twelve, by assigning a tribe to each and proposing monthly sacrifices (745d-e, 828b-d). Oaths "by the Twelve Gods!" are sworn in mid-fourth century comedy by Amphipolis, as they had been in Aristophanes, and are again in Menander (see Long 62-83 for a full collection of references).
78 Above pp.216-17; Thompson and Wyckerley 1972, 212.
79 On Pausanias' opinion of modernity, see Arafat 1996, 36-42.
By analogy with his usual practice, it is fair to assume that he recorded these monuments in the order in which he saw them, so we would expect to find the altar just south of the Stoa Poikile — see FIG. 58 (Dinsmoor’s Agora in the 2nd cAD), and compare FIG. 59 (Wycherley’s Route of Pausanias). The altar of the Twelve Gods is indeed south of the Stoa, though a little way away and the other side of the Panathenaic Way; there are more obvious points where Pausanias might have introduced the altar, especially at 1.8.5, his description of the temple of Ares and various statues nearby. As previously mentioned, Wycherley accounts for this by his interpretation of οὐκ ἐς ἀπαντάνει ἐπισήμα as “not easily distinguishable by everyone” 80. That this altar was difficult to make out is inherently fairly implausible because of its position right next to the Panathenaic Way, at Athens’ Hyde Park Corner. As for its being obscured by trees, the whole Agora was planted with trees, as it is today, which do not seem to have prevented Pausanias from seeing the rest of the Agora’s monuments; Statius’ mite nemus (Theb. 12.491) need not indicate an impenetrable forest. There is no real problem, as the distance between the Stoa Poikile and the altar of the Twelve Gods is not great, and the ground in between would have been open in Pausanias’ time, being mostly taken up by the Panathenaic Way. Even today, all that prevents a clear view of the peribolos from the site of the Stoa just north of Adrianou is the railway wall.

The most serious objection raised to this location for Pausanias’ altar of Eleos is based on the fact that 1.17 is the only passage where Pausanias uses the word ἀγορᾶ as a point of reference. Vanderpool points out that Pausanias consistently uses the name “Kerameikos” to designate what we know as the Classical Athenian Agora, as do some other late writers, and argues that therefore by “Agora” he must mean something else: “I have no doubt that the commercial market is meant, whether this be the Market of Caesar and Augustus, the old ‘Eretria’ market, or some other area”. 81 If the altar of Eleos were to be located actually in the Roman Agora, we would have a slight problem of chronology. The Roman market, 150m to the east of the old Agora, was begun with money provided by Julius Caesar some time in the late

80 Wycherley 1959, 42-3.
81 Vanderpool 1974, 308. See Wycherley 1957, 221-4 on uses of the name “Kerameikos”.

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50s BC, and completed under Augustus around 11-9 BC; as we have seen, the earliest literary source for the altar of Pity is Diodoros (fl. 60-30 BC), where it is referred to as though already a familiar rhetorical trope. We might suppose that the altar was situated in the open area which preceded the Roman Agora, but it must have pre-dated the construction of the peristyle colonnade. The assumption that the area was previously an open market is based primarily on the placement of the Tower of the Winds (c.150-25 BC), which was presumably designed to be seen by a large number of people, and such a situation would not be unsuitable for our altar of Mercy. The area’s pre-second century history is unclear, however, whereas literary and archaeological evidence give a picture of trading activities carried out rather chaotically in and around the Classical Agora rather than in any clearly defined market area. The altar of Mercy we have seen described as refuge of the Herakleidai and of Adrastos ought to be located somewhere more immediately accessible and of more obvious political centrality than such a vague general trading space. In any case, sources besides Pausanias strongly suggests a location for the altar in the Agora, the political heart of the city. Statius places it urbe media, and the Argive women step from the altar of Clementia to watch Theseus’ triumph, which surely would have been envisaged as processing in through the Dipylon Gate and along the Panathenaic Way towards the Akropolis. Libanios’ Demosthenes clearly places the altar in the Agora, within view of the Bouleuterion and the Tyrannicides, as we have seen. Sopatros, another fourth-century orator, also depicts Demosthenes as saying to Philip: “You see how the Athenians worship Eleos along with Athena Polias, you see how they build an altar of Philanthropy on the Agora.” Vanderpool does not look into the dramatic context of the Statius passage, merely commenting that the market area “could be fairly described as ‘in the middle of the city’”, and does not consider the two later sources at all. While his interpretation may make Pausanias’ route easier, placing the elusive gymnasium of Ptolemy and sanctuary of

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82 On the early history of the Roman Agora, see Hoff 1989.
83 Hoff 1989, 1 and nn.2-3.
84 For references and discussion, see Thompson and Wycherley 1972,170-3.
85 Theb. 12.481 and 519-544.
86 Sopatr. Διαίρεσις Ζητημάτων 377: ὁρᾶς ὡς Ἀθηναίοι μετὰ τῆς Πολιάδος προσκυνοῦσι τὸν Ἐλεον, ὁρᾶς ὡς οὐκ θύμοι ἐπί τῆς ἄγορᾶς φιλανθρωπίας ἀνακαλύπτοντες.
87 Vanderpool 1974, 309.
Theseus (1.17.2) in the area of the Roman market, the altar of Eleos is more of a stumbling block than he allows. Neither does Vanderpool’s solution do justice to Pausanias’ phraseology, which suggests that he is merely resuming his description where he left off, i.e. in front of the Stoa Poikile, rather than moving on to a new area: ’Αθηναίοις δὲ ἐν τῇ ἄγορᾳ καὶ ἀλλὰ ἔστιν...

Apart from Pausanias, a strong link between the two altars is their common function as places of refuge for suppliants. We have already seen much supplication at the altar of Eleos, but there are also a number of events associated with the altar of the Twelve Gods characterising it too as a place of asylum. Herodotos tells us that the Plataians made supplication there in 520/19 BC when asking for Athens’ help against Thebes. Diodoros relates that “Some of Pheidias’ fellow-workers, harassed by the enemies of Perikles, sat on the altar of the gods”; Plutarch records that Menon, one of the said “fellow-workers”, was persuaded to sit as a suppliant ἐν ἄγορᾷ. Incidentally, Plutarch also tells us how the Athenians failed to take note of the “manifest and obvious signs” which should have warned them against the Sicilian expedition — these bad omens being the notorious mutilation of the Herms, and “the incident at the altar of the Twelve Gods: a man suddenly leapt up onto it, then, astride it, castrated himself with a stone.” Lykourgos, writing in 330 BC, cites a “justified” violation of the altar supposed to have taken place a couple of decades earlier: “Who of the older men does not remember, and of the younger men has not heard, how Kallistratos, whom the city condemned to death, fled; but when he heard from the god at Delphi that if he came to Athens he would be treated according to the laws, he returned and took refuge at the altar of the Twelve Gods, but was

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88 See Shear 1994, 228 and fig. 1 on the location of the Theseion.
89 See Fehling 1989, 231 on the significance of the figure 12 in Herodotos.
90 Diod. 12.39.1: τὸν δὲ συνεργασμένον τῷ Φείδιᾳ τινὲς διενεχθέντες ὑπὸ τῶν ἐχθρῶν τοῦ Πειρικλέους ἐκάθισαν ἐπὶ τῶν θεῶν βαμών.
92 Plut. Nikias 13.2: τὸ προσθέτει περὶ τῶν βαμῶν τῶν δώδεκα θεῶν. ἄνθρωπος γάρ τις ἐξαιρετικῆς ἀναποθέσεως ἐπ’ αὐτῶν εἶτα περιβάζει ἀπέκοψεν αὐτὸν λίθο τὸ αἰδώλιον. Given the altar of the Twelve God’s establishment by a Peisistratid and its function as a central milestone, there may well have been a perceived association between it and the Herms, said to have been set up by Hipparchos (Pseudo-Platonic Hipparchos); if so, the desecration of both at the same time time would be rhetorically appropriate. See Osborne 1985 for a full discussion of our meagre evidence on the Herms.
nevertheless put to death by the city.” 93 Lykourgos tells this story as an illustration of how the gods make sure wrongdoers are punished in the end: the oracle acted rightly in telling Kallistratos that he would "τεῦξεται τῶν νόμων, "for fair treatment according to the laws, in the case of wrongdoers, is punishment". 94 The oracle's advice may have been a little misleading, but it would not be fitting for malefactors to receive the same revelations as good men. This similarity of function of the two altars, of the Twelve Gods and of Eleos, adds weight to the idea that they were in fact one and the same thing. I do not think our evidence can be taken as conclusive either way, but the case for the identity of two altars is certainly strong, stronger, I would suggest, than Vanderpool's case for relocating Pausanias' ἁγορά and hence pushing the altar of Eleos into some other marketplace.

Thompson's article remains the fullest attempt to identify the two altars with one another, so I shall summarise it briefly. His identification of the altar with that of Eleos is based on a positive evaluation of the literary sources already discussed. He takes the Heraklid story as suggesting that the altar of Eleos was generally considered to be of great antiquity, and supposes that an original ancient altar was transplanted from elsewhere to the peribolos designed for the Twelve Gods; as a date for the introduction of Eleos' cult he suggests the last quarter of the fifth century, when the enclosure was rebuilt. Having established the identification, Thompson goes on to propose an ingenious reconstruction of the parapet. Combining the requirements of dimension, style (concordant with a late fifth century date), and thematic appropriateness, he builds up a case for associating the monument with the four three-figure reliefs identified as a group by Götze (FIG. 60). He finds the Sicilian disaster of 413 BC a suitable occasion for the erection of the parapet, agreeing with the reliefs both in date and in "reversal of fortune" theme. Finally he

93 Lyk. Leok. 93: τίς γὰρ οὐ μέληται τῶν πρεσβυτέρων ή τῶν νεωτέρων οὐκ ἀκηκοε Καλλιστρατος, οὐ θεαντον ἡ πόλις κατέγνω, τοῦτον φυγόνα καὶ τοῦ θεοῦ τοῦ ἐν Δέλφοις ἀκούσαντα διὸ ἐν Ἑλήθ 'Αθήναξε τεῦξεται τῶν νόμων, ἀρισκόμενον καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν βασιλῶν τῶν δώδεκα θεῶν καταφυγόνα, καὶ οὖδεν ἦτον ὑπὸ τις πόλεως ἀποθανόντας: This seems to be the only account of the death of Kallistratos of Aphidna, who fell from favour and was condemned to death in absentia in 361. He returned to Attika from reorganising the finances of Macedonia for Perdikkas II in 356/5 BC, which is presumably when his sentence was carried out.
94 Lyk. Leok. 93: τὸ γὰρ τῶν νόμων τοῖς ἡδικηκόσι τυχεῖν τιμωρία ἔστιν.
points out a number of correspondences between the altar of Pity and the Roman *Ara Pacis*, suggesting that the latter may have been modelled on the former.

This is quite compelling at first reading, but there are problems with Thompson's argument. Among other ideas, he suggests that the Twelve Gods, usurped from their altar, received "compensation" in the shape of Euphranor's mural depicting them in the Stoa of Zeus; but surely a wall-painting would hardly make up for the loss of a full-scale cult.\(^95\) He defines the Athenian conception of pity as "comparatively simple and close to our own: compassion inspired by the misfortunes common to human life, and philanthropy, especially towards strangers in distress."\(^96\)

The literary sources, he claims, stress pity aroused at situations caused by a reversal of fortune (this seems to be based on Pausanias' \( \text{μεταβολής πραγμάτων} \) and Statius' *mutata sorte*, 1.490); and the themes of the reliefs can all be fitted in to the reversal of fortune pattern (though some ingenuity is needed with the Hesperides panel). But as Zuntz objects, the reversal-of-fortune theme is essentially tragic, and has little to do with suppliants obtaining mercy; the victims on the reliefs may deserve pity, but the whole point of the four stories would be lost if they had actually got any. My earlier point about mercy and pity not being synonymous is valid here: Zuntz suggests that Thompson "is the victim of his native language", and should try substituting the word "merciful" for "pitiful" in describing the reliefs' themes to demonstrate the difference.\(^97\)

At the beginning of her article on the Orpheus relief, Lori-Ann Touchette usefully gives a synopsis of theories advanced so far about the three-figure reliefs.\(^98\) That they form a group is generally agreed, but what edifice the originals adorned and how the scenes represented should be interpreted has been much disputed. Thompson's attribution of the reliefs to the altar of the Twelve Gods/Pity has been criticised on technical as well as iconographic grounds. Langlotz argues that the

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\(^{96}\) Thompson 1952, 67.

\(^{97}\) Zuntz 1953, 82. He objects even to the identification of the altar as that of the Twelve Gods, which he thinks was too important to be "hidden away in a small precinct on the edge of the Agora" (71-2). This suggests he has not noticed that the altar is situated just inside the main entrance to the Agora, right beside the Panathenaic Way, a position ideal for drawing attention.

\(^{98}\) Touchette 1990.
foundations of the second parapet would not have been strong enough to support
relief slabs and suggests, more convincingly, that the panels belonged to a four-sided
funerary monument to an Attic tragedian. Touchette agrees that the altar of Pity is
an unlikely candidate for their provenance, but suggests that more work needs to be
done on the individual reliefs before the significance of the group can be understood
and a monument identified as their home.99 In this connection a passage from the
elder Seneca's *Controversiae* is interesting. In an imaginary case, the Athenian
painter Parrhasios has acquired as slave an old man captured when Philip sacked
Olynthos (348 BC), and tortured him to death, as a model for a painting of
Prometheus. Having put the painting up in the temple of Athena, Parrhasios is being
prosecuted for harming the state. One of the prosecutors ironically suggests "If you
think it right, decorate the altar of Pity with such gifts!"100 Thompson fails to note
the irony and cites this as support for the idea that reversal-of-fortune pictures are
suitable decoration for an altar of "Pity".101

Putting aside the matter of the reliefs — which is interesting, but incidental to
the main issue of identifying the altar — there are a number of problems with the very
idea of an altar sacred to the god Eleos. That there should be an altar to a deified
abstraction in the Athenian Agora is not inherently unlikely, as we have already seen.
Demos and Demokratia featured in paintings and sculpture of the fifth and fourth
centuries in the Agora, and actual worship of abstractions is attested from the fourth
century with the Eirene, Demokratia and Agathe Tyche of the Lykourgan skin-sale
records.102 Eleos, however, is a rather different case from the figures we have
considered so far: "Ελέος is not known as the cult title of any other god, nor is he
generally associated with any one Olympian, he has no mythological role, and even as

99 Apparently Thompson himself no longer believes the three-figure reliefs to belong to the
altar. Shapiro (1989, 133-141) accepts the reconstruction, with the modification of
Harrison's (1964) explanation of the reliefs as all linked by the theme of "the quest for the
eternal good". For a survey of "Orpheus in art", see Jesnick 1992, 29-73
100 Seneca *Contr.* 10.5.34: *Si videtur tibi, istis munieribus aram Misericordiae orna.* On
Parrhasios' place in the history of erotic art, see Myerowitz 1992.
101 Thompson 1953, 57-8.
102 Thompson cites Nemesis at Rhamnous as a parallel for a fifth century sanctuary
devoted to a "pure abstraction" (1952, 67); cf. above pp.96-100 on Nemesis' mythological
inscription, see above p.189.
a literary figure he has virtually no precedent. No dedications to Eleos have been found at Athens, and literary sources make no mention of any trappings of cult apart from the altar; indeed, Statius, Philostratos and Nikephoros make a virtue of the fact that Eleos has no priest, no cult statue, and receives no sacrifice but the "libation of tears". Should we take it that all our literary sources are indulging in poetic/rhetorical licence, speaking of an altar that never existed? Zuntz suggests that the stories of supplication at the altar of Pity might have been canonised by some authoritative version, like Kallimachos Aitia II, cited by the OC scholiast (above). But if Kallimachos had specifically mentioned the altar, surely the scholiast would have quoted those actual words rather than the general statement that Athens "knows how to pity". The sheer weight of evidence and the variety of contexts in which the altar appears makes it seem unlikely that its existence depends solely on a single literary source. If nothing else, Pausanias' account certainly suggests that all the other references are based on something more tangible than literary tradition.

If we are to believe in Eleos as a real god actually worshipped in the Agora, we have two options. We might postulate the existence of another altar as yet undiscovered, most likely in the north-eastern part of the Agora, around the Stoa Poikile and immediately to the south, much of which lies under Adrianou and the railway area. This is not impossible, although for two cults so similar in function to exist side by side in such a small area seems something of a coincidence, and does not explain Pausanias' omission of the Twelve Gods. Alternatively, we might argue that Eleos took over from the Twelve Gods, in which case we would have to find a new home for their cult and find a date and occasion for the change. Thompson's suggestion of the Sicilian disaster fits very well with his conception of the nature of the altar, shaped by his hypothesis about the three-figure reliefs, but if we agree that mercy is not the same as pity, the occasion seems singularly inappropriate: the Athenians certainly did not find mercy in the city of Syracuse, whatever Diodoros says. We might look instead for some outstanding instance of Athenian φιλανθρωπία towards a conquered enemy, or towards an unfortunate individual or

103 The Thracian dedication (above pp.217-18) mentioning Zeus' "altar of mercy" is exceptional.
104 Zuntz 1953, 79.
group who had sought Athens' help. The city might have dedicated an altar to Eleos to congratulate itself, or the recipients might have financed the altar by way of thanks for the help received.\textsuperscript{105} But in such a case why conjure up a completely new god rather than make a dedication to Athena as embodiment of Athens, or to Zeus Ίκέσιος?\textsuperscript{106}

Wycherley's view of the problem, based on a more critical consideration of the literary sources than Thompson's, provides an alternative solution, though his evident admiration for Thompson's hypothesis sometimes leads him to obfuscation. He begins by accepting Thompson's identification of the altar and attribution of the reliefs as "both attractive and convincing", and though wanting to set a much lower date for the name "altar of Pity", he compromises with the idea that "the altar may well have been in spirit an ἐλέου βομός long before it was in name ὁ τοῦ Ἐλέου βομός." Inspired by the Sextus Empiricus quote (above), he suggests that several altars in second century BC Athens were known as ἐλέου βομοί, as a general term for altars much frequented by suppliants, and that the altar of the Twelve Gods simply became the preeminent ἐλέου βομός by the time of our earliest sources. So "of mercy" should be thought of with a small m, and is "a kind of descriptive genitive. But from the beginning the possessive sense would inevitably suggest itself"; perhaps this is how Eleos "gained his somewhat nebulous divinity".\textsuperscript{107} While postulating that "altar of mercy" is only a name, however, Wycherley is unable to rid himself of the idea that Eleos has a cult and some claim to divinity: "undoubtedly the

\textsuperscript{105} Alan Griffiths suggests that, given the Plataians' early association with the altar of the Twelve Gods as the first recorded suppliants to take refuge there, later dealings between the two cities might have provided the occasion for the altar's change of name. Suitable occasions for the Plataians to make some sort of gesture involving the altar of the Twelve Gods might be: i) Gratitude for the safe haven provided by Athens, and especially the granting of Athenian citizenship, c.428 BC. ii) On their return to Plataia in 386, "thank you for having us". iii) On coming once more as refugees in 373 — "We keep coming and supplicating at this altar, and this is now the third time you've taken pity on us: it should be called the altar of Pity!" iv) After the battle of Mantineia (362 BC), when presumably the Plataians were among Athens' allies against the Boiotians and their allies, coinciding with Gadbery's chronology and Long's idea of the Twelve Gods' popularity at this period. See Hammond 1992 for an outline of Plataia's "special relationship" with Athens from 520/19 to 338 BC.

\textsuperscript{106} See Farnell (1896-1909, I 67) for Zeus as god of suppliants; the only references for a Zeus Ίκέσιος at Athens are Aisch. Suppl. 385, 413, 479 and Pollux 8.142.

\textsuperscript{107} Wycherley 1954, 143-5.
later Athenians considered Eleos a god”.\textsuperscript{108} In a later article Wycherley is more explicit, stating that the name "altar of Eleos" is "a somewhat artificial title given to another cult", i.e. that of the Twelve Gods; that Pausanias "failed to observe the true nature of the cult and the history of the altar" can be paralleled by his apparent ignorance of the remarkable history of the nearby temple of Ares.\textsuperscript{109} By the time of his joint publication on the Agora with Thompson, Wycherley feels able to make the relatively bold statement: "It has been generally recognised that 'Altar of Eleos' is merely a name attached to an earlier shrine. Eleos appears in our numerous authorities as a poetical and sentimental abstraction, a rhetorical metaphor, rather than a genuine old deity."\textsuperscript{110}

CONCLUSION

Literary sources from the fifth century on, then, establish an Athenian reputation for \textit{φιλανθρωπία}, expressed particularly in the helping of suppliants seeking "mercy". But, with the exception of the Timokles and Karneades fragments, Eleos is only personified from the mid first century BC, and always in the context of an "altar of Eleos". The only altar so far discovered which could possibly be that of Eleos dates from the late sixth century, and is reasonably identified as belonging to the Twelve Gods. Further excavation may yet reveal an alternative candidate for the altar of Mercy, but the contradictory material is already quite plausibly explained by a version of Wycherley's hypothesis. I suggest that Eleos was never a "real" god at all, a god actually worshipped, receiving sacrifices and dedications from historical people, and is regarded as a deity only within the confines of rhetoric. The enclosure and altar beside the Panathenaic Way in the Agora remained sacred to the Twelve Gods from its dedication by Peisistratos in 522/1 BC until its destruction probably in the late fourth century AD. This altar acquired the name "altar of mercy" because of its function as a place of supplication, and the name stuck, being a useful shorthand

\textsuperscript{108} Wycherley 1954, 147. Zuntz 1953, 78 touches on the same idea, that "altar of Pity" was an alternative name for an altar "where pity was sought", but he does not elaborate.
\textsuperscript{109} Wycherley 1959, 41.
for the rather longwinded τῶν δυώδεκα θεῶν βωμῶς, and providing a focus for
expositions of Athens’ philanthropic reputation. It is even possible that the change
of name was facilitated by the morphological proximity of ἔλεος and ἔλαοιο: what
started out as the altar “of supplication”, symbolised by the olive branch, became the
altar “of mercy”, the object of supplication. It would be impossible to put an exact
date on what may anyway have been a gradual process, but the striking lack of
reference to the name “altar of mercy” in Lykourgos’ description of a merciless
violation of the altar of the Twelve Gods could certainly be taken to indicate that the
name was not yet current by 330 BC, and the silence of our sources before the mid
first century BC would generally suggest a relatively late date for the development.
By the time we have unequivocal references to Eleos as a god, rather than the phrase
“altar of eleos”, allegory had become highly sophisticated both as a mode of
expression and as a tool for interpretation. Orators and other writers seized on the
idea of the altar of Mercy and exploited its emotive potential in seeking to arouse
their audience’s sympathy or gain a judge’s mercy; if they sometimes call Eleos a
god, they do not necessarily mean any more than that mercy is a “divine” quality.

The Athenians are merciful, I maintain. When? And towards whom? Whenever a
city seeks an alliance, or a stranger comes as a suppliant, they believe Mercy to be a
god towards these people.  

111 As a parallel for this kind of suppression of a deity’s original name in favour of what was
at first an epithet, we might note the modern Greek usage of Παναγία and, appropriately
here, Ελεοσάς as names for the Virgin Mary.
112 Cf. Philostratos Epist. 13/59 for a very metaphorical altar of Eleos: “Do not burn me
then, but save me, and keep the altar of Pity in your heart” (μὴ καὶ ἐὰν οὐ, ἄλλα σῶζε, καὶ
113 Lib. Declamatio 16.47: ἐλεήμονες Ἅθηναίοι, κάτω ληψί. πότε; καὶ πρὸς τίνας; ἂν ποτε
συμμαχίας δήπαι πόλις, ἂν ἰκετεύῃ ξένος, πρὸς ἐκείνους θεὸν τὸν Ἐλεον νομίζουσι.
CONCLUSION

Let me now, finally, return to the general questions about Greek cults of
deified abstractions as a class with which I began. Each of my six case-studies has
examined the origins and early development of the cult in question, and attempted to
assess the particular personification’s place in the local pantheon and her “reality” for
the worshipper. In every case except that of Eleos this enquiry has been facilitated by
the figure’s appearances in literature and the visual arts, appearances for which, in
turn, the demonstrable existence of a cult has implications. Underlying the
investigation has been the constant question of how the balance is struck in each
character between the “mythological” and “rational” elements inherent in the very
existence of the cult of a deified abstraction. Perhaps the first thing which should be
said is that no single model can be universally applied to explain the workings of all
Greek personification cults, and even a single figure may follow different patterns of
development in different places and at different times. Some generalisations can be
made, however, although these conclusions must remain provisional until more cults
have been studied in detail.

The most vexing question remains that of the origins of personification cults.
In its simplest form the “epithet theory” cannot be demonstrated to work for any of
our figures in a single location. Even where cult titles including a personification are
attested, the direction of development is seldom straightforward — at Athens Themis
appears long before a Ge Themis, and Athena Hygieia continues to be worshipped
after the arrival of an independent Hygieia. A looser version of the theory might be
applied, however, in cases where a personification has a consistently close affiliation
to a particular Olympian deity. This can be seen most clearly with Peitho and
Aphrodite, the former rarely appearing in cult, art or literature without the latter,
lending credibility to the theory that Peitho began life as an aspect of Aphrodite’s
influence, gaining independence as that aspect increased in importance for her
worshippers. This does not mean, though, that Peitho was ever literally a cult title of
Aphrodite in Athens, where she is first relatively securely attested, or that once
“liberated” she took on a fully independent role all over the Greek world, as the
existence of Hellenistic Aphrodite Peithos on Lesbos and Knidos demonstrates. The
similarly close association maintained between Hygieia and Asklepios in cult suggests that Health was seen as an aspect of the hero-deity’s influence, but the relationship was expressed as a father-daughter one rather than in terms of a cult title. Mark’s hypothesis¹ that Athena Nike represents the annexation by Athena of an earlier cult of Nike cannot, unfortunately, be supported by any parallel from the current study, which rather tends towards the more traditional view that Victory, like Health, was seen as one of Athena’s many areas of competence — although the ubiquitous presence of Nikai in art from the archaic period on suggests that this particular aspect of the goddess’ power had extraordinary prominence. Nemesis, Eirene and Eleos have no particular Olympian associate from whom they might plausibly be derived, while the hypothesis that Themis somehow emanated from Gaia is not only unsubstantiated, but also undermined by her alternative associations with Zeus and Nemesis.

Another way in which a personification might be “eased into” cult is offered by Burkert’s proposed progression from the literary appearance of a figure via visual representation to worship in a particular locality.² Certainly the mythological roles played by Themis and Nemesis in archaic literature make their appearances in cult more readily explicable; Peitho’s place in myth is slighter, but her role as Aphrodite’s assistant is given substance by her appearances in art from the beginning of the fifth century, and even Eirene has some literary and visual existence before her entry into cult. However, Burkert’s case relies on the assumption that the personifications of epic are creations of poetic imagination, rather than figures known to the poet from cult. As I have argued, some sort of case can be made for Themis’ cult in Thessaly pre-dating her earliest literary appearance in Homer, and for Nemesis’ worship at Rhamnous giving rise to her appearance in the Kypria. These cases are difficult to substantiate because of their potential antiquity, but, in a better-documented period, Hygieia is certainly a significant exception to Burkert’s rule: she is only portrayed in Attic literature and art after the introduction of her cult to Athens.

This direct entry into cult may perhaps be explained by the more personal impact of the concept Hygieia personifies, bringing us back to the “great power

¹ Above pp.60-1.
² Above p.62.
theory” put forward by Cicero’s Balbus: such things as Health are so strong they must have inherent godhead.3 If Themis and Nemesis were not simply products of a poet’s imagination, their cults require some such explanation too, although since neither represents a concept which is so obviously a universal desideratum as health, they need to be understood in the context of particular historical circumstances. Quite why Themis should be deemed so important in archaic Thessaly is difficult to reconstruct, or Nemesis in sixth-century Rhamnous, but the flourishing of the Attic sanctuary in the last third of the fifth century can clearly be associated with Persian-War-related propaganda, to which the concept Nemesis embodies is so apposite. Nemesis is one of a number of personifications who seem to have been particularly popular at Athens during the Peloponnesian War. This apparent proliferation of figures must in part be due to the amount of drama we have preserved from the period and the predilections of the Meidias Painter and his school, but the latter can in turn be explained as part of a general escapist trend in vase-painting. The popularity of personifications in the period can also be seen in the context of a search for “new” deities to compensate for the poor performance of the traditional gods. Clinton cites Thucydides’ description of the Athenians’ despair in the face of the apparently incurable plague in 430 — “All the supplications at the sanctuaries and all inquiries at the oracles and such things were of no help, and finally the people gave them up, overcome by the evil” — and suggests this might account for the Eleusinian officials’ interest in importing Asklepios’ cult, to revive the Two Goddesses’ reputation; the adoption of Hygieia certainly makes sense as a response to the doctors’ inadequacy in finding a cure.4 Similarly, Eirene’s portrayal in the drama and art of the period is demonstrably a response to the political circumstances, facilitating her further step into cult in the early fourth century when peace was still badly needed. As Alexandri-Tzachou declares, commenting on Demokratia’s place in fourth-century iconography and cult: “Each generation personified the concepts of greatest significance to its age.”5

3 Above p.57.
4 Thuc. 2.47.4: ὅσα τε πρὸς ἱεροῖς ἱκέτευσαν ἢ μαντεῖοις καὶ τοῖς τοιούτοις ἐχρῆσαντο, πάντα ἀκοφελὴ ἢν, τελευτῶντές τε αὐτῶν ἀπέστησαν ὑπὸ τοῦ κακοῦ νικόμενοι. Clinton 1994b, 32.
5 Alexandri-Tzachou 1993, 149. Stewart (1997, 148-51) sees the War period as when Athens really adopted the personification as “a mode of figuring the body politic".
If the origins of personification cults can generally be seen to lie in the importance of the concepts embodied to particular communities at particular times, we need to ask whether their obvious narrow connection to a particular abstract idea affected their status as gods. For those personifications who have a mythological role, or a close association with an Olympian, the answer must surely be that they were thought of as existing in the same sphere as the gods, even if they were subordinate in the hierarchy — how else could Themis be Zeus' adviser and Nemesis object of his desires, or Peitho be in Aphrodite’s retinue and Hygieia Asklepios' daughter? As we have seen, all of these appear in the visual arts looking much like any other goddess of the appropriate period, and, when it comes to votive reliefs, where a distinction of size is made between mortals and deities, on the divine scale. In a number of cases in literature, too, a personification is explicitly designated θεός, or invoked in hymn form, with no suggestion that this attribution of divinity is in any way problematic. Above all, though, the religious “reality” of personifications is demonstrated by the practical elements of cult activity with which they were honoured. Private dedications to Themis, Nemesis and Peitho certainly suggest that these figures were taken very seriously as deities by ordinary worshippers, as does the performance context of Aripbron's hymn to Hygieia. At a different level, the publicly-financed festivals of Nemesis at Rhamnous and Eirene at Athens are incontrovertible testimony of these goddesses’ significance for the community, that of Eirene being listed alongside two of the Athens’ most major annual events, the Panathenaia and the City Dionysia. State approval can also be seen in the presence of seats for the cult personnel of Themis, Nemesis and Peitho in the Theatre of Dionysos. This is not to say that no one in the ancient world recognised a distinction between personifications and the Olympian gods — we have seen the comments of Cicero, the Elder Pliny, Juvenal, and especially Lucian on the subject. But it remains remarkable that earlier criticisms of traditional religion do not appear to have recognised personifications as a separate class — a lack of categorisation apparent in the very term, prosopopoeia. Veyne’s question “Did the Greeks believe in their myths?” has basically to be answered “Yes”, with due allowance for different modes

6 Above pp.56-8.
7 Above pp.23-5.
of belief, and I would argue that personifications were "believed in" in just the same way as the rest of the Greek pantheon — rationally by the analytically inclined, perhaps, but respected as powerful by the vast majority.\(^8\)

I have already questioned Burkert's assumption of the primacy of literature and suggested that the presence of a personification cult in a particular location might sometimes be what prompts an author to represent the figure in a literary or visual medium (Nemesis and the Kypria, Hygieia and the Meidias Painter's name vase). Individual cases are likely to remain inconclusive, as our evidence for cult only rarely coincides with a locationally-specific representation, but it must always be worth asking which came first. The more general question remains, moreover, of how our knowledge of personification cults might affect our late-twentieth-century understanding of the Greek art and literature in which so many personifications appear. If we are aware, for instance, of the significance of the sanctuary at Rhamnous, do occurrences of the abstract nemesis in Attic literature take on more significance? Or if we know that Eirene would soon be in receipt of a large-scale state sacrifice, does the plot of Aristophanes' Peace strike us as less ridiculous? And what of Burkert's "profusion of robed female statues of an allegorical character" — does the thought that at least some represent real goddesses of cult not give them more than "dusty" interest? It seems more than likely that our superficial familiarity with personification as a mode of literary and artistic representation leads us to draw a much sharper distinction between the categories of abstract, personification and goddess than would have been felt by most ancient Greeks.

Looked at from a different angle, the same question brings us back to the "myth into logos" debate, and whether personification cults can be taken as evidence of an increasingly rationalising trend in Greek religion. A striking feature noted in this study is the degree to which personifications of a "rational" character appear in archaic literature. Our earliest allegorical narrative (Ate and the Litai) appears in the Iliad, and dozens of personifications are linked in meaningful relationships in the

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\(^8\) See Veyne 1988 passim; Buxton 1994, 145-65 (with criticism of Veyne). Cf. Harrison (1995, 316-9): "In some areas of [Herodotus'] religious belief... a degree of scepticism actually helps to maintain belief... we can suggest that a presumption of (at least a degree of) belief would be a healthier position, when approaching Herodotus and other Greek writers, than a presumption of scepticism."
Theogony, where Order is mother of Justice and Peace, Night of Sleep and Dreams. Some of our characters demonstrate a "double identity", as both dramatis personae of myth and allegorical figures, from their earliest appearances: Themis in the Iliad is at once a fully-personalised goddess and a facilitator of themis, just as Nemesis in the Kypria is both a shape-changing nymph and characterised by nemesis, while Hesiod's Peitho adorns the first bride Pandora with no other gift but peitho. It is true that more complex forms of both compositional and interpretational allegory develop from the mid-fifth century on (Prodikos' Choice of Herakles, the Heimarmene Painter's amphoriskos) and an increasing interest in expressing the rational "meaning" of personifications can be seen in the attributes which they acquire during the Hellenistic period (the measuring-rod and bridle of the two Nemeseis of Smyrna). But this seems largely a question of a more explicit spelling-out of messages previously left implicit than a radically new development. Similarly with personification cults, although they may increase in number from the fourth century and into the Hellenistic period, we can see that the phenomenon has well-established precedents in the fifth and even sixth centuries BC.⁹

One might even question whether it is inherently more "logical" to worship personified abstractions rather than the traditional gods. The one thing which does distinguish a personification from an Olympian goddess is her relatively restricted sphere of influence — Hygieia presumably only has power to grant health, whereas a goddess like Athena has a whole range of gifts at her disposal. The appearance of new personification cults in the later fifth and fourth centuries which Humphreys notes, and of more "rationalising" cult titles for existing gods, may reflect a trend which can be seen in secular contexts for increasing specialisation, e.g. with the development of the class of professional orators. Might not the worship of a personification be seen as the equivalent to consulting a specialist in a particular field? In any case it would be of interest to have more information on the identity of those who took part in rituals for our figures, to see whether they appealed particularly to the more intellectually minded. The small amount of epigraphic evidence we have, especially from dedications, unfortunately does not allow us to identify many

individuals in connection with personification cults, and most remain no more than names.\textsuperscript{10} That no particular erudition attached to such cults, however, can possibly be inferred from the fact that they can be served by priestesses — rationality is, after all, hardly a quality usually associated with women in the ancient world.\textsuperscript{11}

As I said at the outset, my approach here has been something of a compromise, adopted in order to make an attempt at answering some general questions on personification cults as a class, but based on more than a cursory look at the evidence for half-a-dozen sample figures. Two possible directions for future investigation strike me as equally valid, the choice between the two depending to some extent on the amount of evidence available for any given case. (i) Detailed study of individual figures, bringing together the iconographic material already collected in \textit{LIMC} with a study of the abstract term and literary references to its personification, alongside a proper evaluation of the evidence for cult, especially epigraphic, all in the context of the historical circumstances of the places where the cult appears. This is of course no light undertaking, but Thériault’s study of Homonoia gives some idea of what can be achieved. (ii) The better integration of personifications into studies of local cult systems. This second approach has the advantage of perhaps allowing a more sophisticated consideration of the social circumstances in which individual cults arose, and conversely might shed light on what values were deemed particularly important in a particular society at any given time. Amy Smith’s consideration of fifth- and fourth-century political personifications provides an excellent basis for such an approach to Athenian cults, while Nicolas Richer’s examination of a group of Spartan cults is suggestive of ways in which such studies may shed light on broader issues of social history. Further

\textsuperscript{10} Dedications to Themis: by a woman in Thessaly, an \textit{agoranomos} in Lindos, Sostratos and Megakles at Rhamnous. To Nemesis: by "the Rhamnousians in Lemnos" and by Hierokles son of Aristoneae at Rhamnous, by the priestess Artemisia and her husband at Mylasa. To Peitho: by three \textit{agoranomoi} at Olynthos. To Hygieia: potsherd by Kallis, and by the state to Athena Hygieia, clothes and hair by women at Titane (Paus.). Cf. privately-financed sacrifices to Nemesis by Dikaiarchos at Rhamnous, and to Hygieia and Asklepios by the physicians at Athens.

\textsuperscript{11} Themis: priestesses Alexis at Thespiai, Philostrate and Kallisto at Rhamnous; an olephoros, two hersephorai and a priestess at Athens. Nemesis: priestesses Kallisto, Pheidostrate and Aristoneae at Rhamnous, Artemisia at Mylasa; a priest at Athens. Peitho: priestess Hegesipyle and a singer-priestess at Athens; priest Menippos at Mylasa.
work on personification cults should make these figures more intelligible still, but I hope the current study has gone some way towards elucidating why personifications of abstract ideas "should be held to possess divine power":

\[ \textit{quarum omnium rerum quia vis erat tanta ut sine deo regi non posset,} \\
\textit{ipsa res deorum nomen obtinuit.} \]

Cicero, \textit{De Natura Deorum} 2.23.61
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