Ancient Greek ekphrasis: Between description and narration
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Ancient Greek Ekphrasis: Between Description and Narration

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1. Introduction: Ekphrasis, Narration, and Description

1.1 The ‘Problem’ of Ekphrasis: To Narrate or to Describe?
In book 18 of the *Iliad*, Hephaestus forges a new shield for Achilles, which is elaborately decorated. One of the decorations concerns a herd of oxen (18.573-83):

Ἐν δ’ ἀγέλην ποίησε βοῶν ὀρθοκραιράων·  
αἳ δὲ βόες χρυσοῖο τετεύχατο κασσιτέρου τε,  
575 μικημῆμι β’ ἀπὸ κάπρου ἐπεσσεύοντο νομόνδε  
πὰρ ποταμὸν κελάδοντα, παρὰ ροδανὸν δονακῆα.  
χρύσειοι δὲ νομῆες ἀμ’ ἐστιχόωντο βόεσσι  
tέσσαρες, ἐννέα δὲ σφι κύνες πόδας ἀργοί ἔποντο.  
577 σμερδαλέω δὲ λέοντε δύ’ ἐν πρώτῃσι βόεσσι  
ταῦρον ἐρύγμηλον ἐχέτην· ὃ δὲ μακρὰ μεμυκὼς  
580 ἕλκετο· τὸν δὲ κύνες μετεκίαθον ἠδ’ αἰζηοί.  
τὼ μὲν ἀναρρήξαντε βοὸς μεγάλοιο βοείην  
ἔγκατα καὶ μέλαν αἷμα λαφύσσετον (…).

On it he made a herd of straight-horned cattle. And they, the cattle, had been made of gold and tin, (575) and with lowing they were hurrying from the farmyard to the pasture beside the sounding river, beside the waving reed. Golden herdsmen were marching with the cattle, four in number, and nine swift-footed dogs were following them. Two fearsome lions among the foremost cattle (580) were grasping a loud-lowing bull: and he [the bull], bellowing mightily, was being dragged away; and the dogs and young men followed after him. And the two [lions], after having torn open the hide of the mighty bull, were devouring the innards and black blood.

The narrator first recounts how Hephaestus makes a herd of oxen on the shield (573). He next relates the metals of which the cattle are made, gold and tin (574). The cattle are made of precious metals, just as the shield itself. The herdsmen, too, are made of gold (577). The image on the shield is, however, no still life: something is happening. The cattle are said to be moving from the farmyard to the pasture, while lowing (575). They are followed by herdsmen and dogs (577-8). At the front of the herd, two lions are holding a bull and are dragging him away, while being pursued by dogs and youths (579-81). The narrator also recounts how both lions are devouring the bull’s carcass, after having mauled him (582-3).
These lines are part of the earliest ekphrasis in ancient Greek literature, the shield of Achilles. Due to their hybrid character ekphraseis are interesting passages. The narrator first narrates how Hephaestus creates a herd of oxen on the shield. He then describes the metal of which the cattle have been made. Thus, the narrator switches from the narration of an event (ποίησε, “he made”, 573) to the description of an object (αἳ δὲ βόες…τετεύχατο, “the cows...had been made”, 574). Yet in line 575, the narrator relates how the very same cows are speeding from one place to another. The two lions are first said to be holding a loud-lowing bull (579-80), but later to be devouring him (582-3). Should we continue to regard these lines as description of the shield? Or should we rather conceive of these lines as a narration of what is happening in the images on the shield? In all ekphraseis that are concerned with objects that tell a story a certain tension exists between description and narration. It is herein that lies the problem – and the challenge – of ekphrasis.

The problem has been formulated before, but to date no satisfactory solution has been offered. In order to formulate an answer, a number of preliminary issues must first be addressed. First, the term ekphrasis requires definition (section 1.2). Second, I will reformulate the problem of ekphrasis by making use of the terminology introduced in section 1.2, and review current scholarly views on this problem (section 1.3). As we shall see, one of the reasons why the problem of ekphrasis has persisted is due to difficulties with the concepts of narration and description. Therefore, the next two sections will work towards definitions of narration (section 1.4) and description (section 1.5). In the next chapter, I will set forth a model that will be used throughout this study to tackle the problem of ekphrasis.

1.2 A Definition of Ekphrasis
There is no scholarly consensus on a definition of the concept of ekphrasis. Rather, ekphrasis can designate a variety of concepts. It seems therefore best to regard ekphrasis as an umbrella term which subsumes a whole range of related concepts. Most, though not all, of these concepts are concerned with various forms of interaction

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1 Throughout this study, I use the Greek spelling ekphrasis, and not the Latin ecphrasis (as in the OED).
2 For an overview of the history of the meaning of ekphrasis from antiquity to today, see Schaefer and Rentsch 2004.
3 I have borrowed the phrase “umbrella term” from Yacobi 1995: 600. Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 156 speak of a “(…) Spektrum, einem Von-Bis möglicher ekphrastischer Realisationsformen.”
between the verbal and the visual. As such, ekphrasis is a central concept in studies that deal with the relation between word and image, and between literature and art. Ekphrasis is thus a specific form of intermediality. It is in the light of ekphrasis as an intermedial phenomenon that its definition has been expanded: rather than referring to verbal-visual interaction only, ekphrasis has come to include any form of intermedial interaction, such as, for example, the interaction between music and painting.

The present study is concerned only with ekphrasis as a form of interaction between the verbal and the visual, more precisely with the rendering of the visual in a verbal text. Verbal-visual interaction is covered by two definitions of ekphrasis. On the one hand, there is the late-antique definition of ekphrasis, which is sometimes referred to as the broad definition of ekphrasis. On the other hand, there is the modern definition, sometimes referred to as the narrow definition of ekphrasis. The main difference between these two conceptions is that in the late-antique definition ekphrasis is characterised by its effect, whereas according to the modern definition it is the reference to an artefact that characterizes ekphrasis. The difference between the two conceptions of ekphrasis is thus one of the how versus the what.

In its late-antique sense, ekphrasis is found in the area of rhetoric. Ekphrasis can be defined as text that brings the subject matter vividly before the eyes. The literature on ekphrasis is substantial. In general, I cite only those studies which are relevant for the research question of the present study. Comprehensive general overviews of the existing literature are Wagner 1996, Klarer 2001: 2-18, Wandhoff 2003: 2-12, and Schaefer and Rentsch 2004. Within the field of classics, extensive overviews are found in Fowler 1991 and Squire 2009: 139-46. See also the special issues of Ramus (2002, Vol. 31:1-2) and Classical Philology (2007, Vol. 102:1).

4 See Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 134. Intermediality can be defined as “a particular relation (...) between conventionally distinct media of expression or communication” (Wolf 1999: 37). Intermediality has also been studied in the field of narratology, for which see Wolf 2005a. For some further reflections on the notion of medium, see section 1.3.1 below.

5 For the expansion of the definition of ekphrasis, see Sager Eidt 2008: 16-21.

6 Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 137.


effect of vividness (ἐνάργεια) which characterises ekphrasis: “[w]hat distinguishes ekphrasis is its quality of vividness, enargeia, its impact on the mind’s eye of the listener who must (...) be almost made to see the subject.” The intended effect of an ekphrastic speech is, then, to bring about seeing through hearing – to turn the listener, as it were, into a viewer.” In intermedial terms, ekphrasis aims at reproducing the effect of one medium, the visual, by using another medium, the verbal. The nature of the subject matter only plays a secondary role in the antique concept of ekphrasis.”

Whereas late-antique ekphrasis is situated in the field of rhetoric, ekphrasis in its modern sense is mostly found in the domain of literary studies. Modern ekphrasis is defined not by its effect, but by its subject matter, which usually concerns an object, and more specifically a work of art. One of the earliest definitions of ekphrasis in its modern sense was formulated by Spitzer in 1955, when he stated that Keats’ “Ode on a Grecian Urn” belongs “to the genre (...) of the ekphrasis, the poetic description of a pictorial or sculptural work of art, (...) the reproduction through the medium of words of sensuously perceptible objets d’art (ut pictura poesis)”.

In Spitzer’s definition, ekphrasis is no longer a type of speech, but a genre. Whether ekphrasis as a genre of writing about works of art existed as such in antiquity is debated. According to Webb,

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9 Webb 1999: 13. More recently, Webb has defined ekphrasis as “a type of speech that worked an immediate impact on the mind of the listener, sparking mental images of the subjects it ‘placed before the eyes’” (Webb 2009: 193).

10 In the words of Pseudo-Hermogenes, one of the authors of the Progymnasmata: “the virtues of ekphrasis are, most of all, clarity (σαφήνεια) and vividness (ἐνάργεια): for the expression should almost (σχεδὸν) bring about seeing through hearing” (ἀρεταὶ δὲ ἐκφράσεως μάλιστα μὲν σαφήνεια καὶ ἐνάργεια· δεί γὰρ τὴν ἑρμηνείαν διὰ τῆς ἀκοῆς σχεδὸν τὴν ὀψιν μηχανᾶσθαι, Patillon 2008: 203).

11 The Progymnasmata mention four categories of subject matter for ekphrasis: persons, places, times, and events, for which see Webb 2009: 61-86.

12 For the difference between late-antique and modern ekphrasis, cf. Goehr 2010: 397: “[w]hereas modern ekphrasis, especially from the late nineteenth century on, focuses on artworks and their mediums, ancient ekphrasis focused on speech and written acts performed within a wide range of practices necessary for the education of citizens. Modern ekphrasis focuses on works that bring other works to aesthetic presence; ancient ekphrasis focused on speech acts that brought objects, scenes, or events to imaginary presence” (emphasis in the original).


14 These are but two of the many possible identities of ekphrasis, for which see Scholz 1998: 73-6 and Zeitlin 2013: 17.
Ekphrasis as a genre was more or less invented by Spitzer. Others, however, do argue for the existence in antiquity of a specific literary genre of describing works of art. Whether in antiquity ekphrasis was a genre or not, it is a fact that many ancient texts refer to works of art. Ekphrasis in its modern sense has proven to be a fruitful concept to study these texts.

In this study, I adopt the following definition of ekphrasis: “ekphrasis is the verbal representation of visual representation”. This definition, formulated by Heffernan in 1993, has become very influential. I use Heffernan’s definition, and not that by Spitzer, for two reasons. Firstly, Heffernan uses the neutral phrase ‘verbal representation’ rather than description. This suits the purpose of this study, the aim of which is to find out whether such a verbal representation is description, or something else. Secondly, Heffernan’s definition limits ekphrasis to works of representational art. This means that the work of art represented in an ekphrastic passage must itself also represent something. As such, ekphrasis is a form of double representation. According to

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Webb 1999: 10-11 (though the view that Spitzer first “reinvented” ekphrasis is controversial, for which see Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 139-40). For Spitzer’s predecessors, see Koeb 2006: 1-5 and Webb 2009: 28-35; they have missed, however, the following reference in Headlam and Knox 1922: xliii: “Greek writers, from Homer and Hesiod down to Eumathius delighted to introduce ecphrases or descriptions of works of art” (italics in the original). Of Spitzer’s predecessors, Friedländer 1912: 1-103 has proven to be the most influential. Friedländer’s survey includes all major ekphraseis from Antiquity, in the sense of descriptions of works of art and architecture, which he called Kunstbeschreibungen. Friedländer did not define these descriptions as members of a single genre, and used the term ekphrasis but rarely (for which see Webb 2009: 31).


As is clear from the large body of Greek and Latin text that refer to works of art in Friedländer 1912: 1-103. Palm 1965-6 contains an overview of Greek texts only.


Heffernan 1993: 3; see also his earlier definition of ekphrasis as “the verbal representation of graphic representation” (Heffernan 1991: 299).

Heffernan 1993: 4: “ekphrasis (...) explicitly represents representation itself. What ekphrasis represents in words, therefore, must itself be representational” (emphasis in the original).

In the words of Kafalenos 2012: 27: “ekphrasis (...) is the re-representation in words of a prior visual representation”. Similarly Webb 2009: 186, who while working with the broad concept of ekphrasis nevertheless speaks of meta-ekphrasis when it comes to descriptions of works of art:
Heffernan, William Carlos Williams’ poem “The Red Wheelbarrow” is not ekphrastic, since the wheelbarrow itself does not represent anything – it is simply a wheelbarrow.23 Heffernan’s restriction of ekphrasis to works of representational art has met with criticism.24 Be this as it may, Heffernan’s definition is pre-eminently suited for the purpose of this study, as the following section will make clear.

1.3.1 Ekphrasis: Description and/or Narration? Preliminaries
Ekphrasis, as a verbal representation of visual representation, is doubly mimetic. This means that an ekphrastic text embodies two layers of representation, each of a different medium: a primary verbal layer, and a secondary visual layer.25 It was Lessing, in his Laokoon (1776), who firmly separated the verbal from the visual medium.26 While “[e]mphasising the differences between word and image, i.e. between time and space, Lessing attacked the idea that literature was ‘painting with words’ and painting ‘narration with colour’. He saw the two media as predisposed to the representation of different meanings: description for painting, narration for language, and he was sceptical of attempts by one medium to invade the territory of the other”.27 Poetry, according to Lessing, is a temporal art and should narrate, whereas painting as a spatial art should describe. The characterisation of poetry as a temporal and painting as a spatial art was, and still is, very influential. Even today, many scholars assume that Lessing’s distinction between the two media holds true.28 Yet there are many narrative paintings, and poetry is full of descriptive passages – Lessing himself admitted as much.29 Lessing’s distinction between poetry and painting has more to do with what

“[i]f all ekphrasis, of whatever subject, is like a painting or sculpture in its aim to ‘place before the eyes’ [cf. Webb in note 10 above], an ekphrasis of visual representation is doubly ekphrastic”. 23 Heffernan 1993: 4.
24 See Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 142-7, who refer, among others, to Clüver 1998: 45: “[t]here is no reason why the non-verbal texts re-presented in ‘re-written’ form must themselves be representations of the phenomenal world (examples: non-figurative sculpture, absolute music) (...)”.
25 Ekphrasis is thus as much a verbal as a visual phenomenon (Squire 2009: 145-6). I elaborate this point in section 1.3.3 below.
26 Of course, thinking about painting and poetry goes right back to antiquity, as witness the famous phrase ut pictura poesis (for which see e.g. Squire 2009: 146-9).
27 Baetens 2005: 236.
28 For which see Squire 2009: 104-6.
each medium *should* do, rather than with any limits imposed by nature on either medium.  

This is not to deny, however, that there are real differences between verbal and visual media, between a representation by a text and by an image. This difference does not so much lie in *what* each medium represents, but rather *how* it does so. Verbal and visual media share an ability to narrate, and to describe, but each medium does so in its own particular way. If visual and verbal representations can be narrative as well as descriptive, the representation of the visual in the verbal – i.e. ekphrasis – can *a priori* have the following forms:

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30 Lessing is thus making an ideological and political distinction (Mitchell 1984; for a summary of this article see Squire 2009: 105-6).

31 Mitchell 1994: 161: "(...) there is, *semantically* speaking (that is, in the pragmatics of communication, symbolic behavior, expression, signification) no *essential* difference between texts and images; the other lesson is that there are important differences between visual and verbal media at the level of sign-types, forms, materials of representation, and institutional traditions" (emphasis in the original). The idea that the verbal and the visual are both mimetic arts, but differ in their means of expression, was recognised in antiquity too, as witness both Plato and Aristotle (for a short overview on *mimesis* see Lucas [1968] 1972: 258-72). The thought is succinctly expressed by Aristotle at the beginning of his *Poetics*: ὥσπερ γὰρ καὶ χρώμασι καὶ σχήμασι πολλὰ μιμοῦνται τινες ἀπεικάζοντες (οἱ μὲν διὰ τέχνης οἱ δὲ διὰ συνηθείας), ἔτεροι δὲ διὰ τῆς φωνῆς (...), "some people, whether by art or by practice, can represent things by imitating their shapes and colours [visual medium], and others do so by the use of the voice [verbal medium]" (1447a8-20, translation by Dorsch and Murray [1965] 2000: 57). For a discussion of this passage that includes notion of medium, see Ryan 2004: 22-3.

32 See Stansbury-O'Donnell 1999: 10. I deal with the differences between verbal and visual narrative below in 1.4.3.

33 For a narrative visual image, we may think of any visual representation that depicts a story – such as the image on the shield of Achilles in section 1.1 above, or Michelangelo's *Last Judgement*. A descriptive visual image, on the contrary, does not depict a story – we may think of a landscape or still life.
In this study, I want to explore the nature of the verbal representation in the case of a narrative visual representation. In other words, when a text (the primary, verbal layer) refers to a narrative image (the secondary, visual layer), does that text automatically become narrative, too (1a)? Or are we dealing with a descriptive text of a narrative image (1b)? Or should we think of a mixed type, and can a text be both narrative and descriptive at the same time (1a and b)?

In the case of a narrative text (1a), does such an ekphrastic narrative text differ from other, non-ekphrastic narrative texts? Is it at all possible to make a distinction between a text that is narrative and an image that is narrative, seeing that it is through the verbal text that the visual image is evoked?

Before I review current scholarly views on some of these questions, three preliminary issues must be addressed. First, the ekphraseis that have been selected for this study are not representations of objects that still exist, or have ever existed. The represented objects are imaginary, and do not have a separate existence outside the text. At the same time, ekphrastic passages are often so powerful that the object is released, or so it seems, from the text and acquires an independence of its own. Scholars speak of “the shield of Achilles” as if it were a tangible object – as if the shield was lying somewhere in a museum in Greece. Throughout this study, I will frequently refer to ekphrastic objects, though in the full awareness that such objects are textual and hence fictional.

Second, ekphrasis as an intermedial phenomenon is the representation of one medium in another medium. This means that the narrator of an ekphrastic passage

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Table 1.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the visual representation (image)</th>
<th>Nature of the verbal representation (text)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) narrative</td>
<td>(a) narrative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) descriptive</td>
<td>(a) narrative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) descriptive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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34 Ekphrastic texts may have forms other than narration or description. See further section 5.3.2.

35 These ekphraseis are called *notional*: “the verbal representation of a purely fictional work of art” (Hollander 1995: 4, see also Hollander 1988: 209). The idea of notional ekphrasis has been criticised (e.g. Mitchell 1994: 157-8, note 19) and defended (e.g. Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 145-6, note 81).

must overcome the differences between visual and verbal media. He has to solve the problem of "how to represent something that exists, or might exist, in an order different from that of the medium of representation". This is not a problem of ekphrasis only, but of representing the visual in a text *tout court*. Scholars speak of the linearization problem: when wanting to represent a visual scene, the narrator must decide the *order* in which he will represent the visual details in the text. This is not to say that a narrator, in the case of a sequence of events (a *fabula*), must not also decide on the order in which to present these events (a *story*). The point is that a sequence of events can be presented in a seemingly natural order: the first event forms the beginning, and the last event the end of the sequence. Yet the representation of an object in a text – e.g. a house – has no such natural order: the narrator may choose to mention the door first, or the roof, or a window. In other words, "[t]here is no neutral, zero-focalized way of linearizing a visual scene: a point of view is necessarily inscribed".

Seeing that a narrator always imposes a point of view on an object represented in a text, it follows that ekphrasis is necessarily *interpretation*. Since the object has no existence of its own outside the text, we should rather say that in an ekphrastic passage the object is always represented through an interpretation of a narrator. This interpretation is always partial (in both senses of the word): an ekphrastic text can never present an object in its totality. Of course, the presence of the narrator as

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37 Bal 2004: 368, emphasis mine. As Bal notes, this is a "general problem inherent in description as such" (ibid).
38 Levelt 1981: 305: "[w]henever a speaker wants to express anything more than the most simple assertions, requests, commands, etc., he or she has to solve what I shall call the *linearization problem*: the speaker will have to decide on what to say first, what to say next, and so on" (emphasis in the original). I owe this reference to Fowler 1991: 29.
39 For the terminology employed here, see note 206 below.
40 This order is iconic, and therefore less conspicuous or marked. See further Bal 1982: 102 and Wolf 2008: 205.
41 Fowler 1991: 29. In the case of ekphrasis, the presence of another level of representation complicates the matter: visual art may also inscribe a point view, especially when it has a narrative character (see ibid.: 30-1).
42 For the view that ekphrasis necessarily entails interpretation, see e.g. Cheeke 2008: 19 ("the act of describing art is always an act of interpretation") and Kafalenos 2012: 29 ("ekphrasis is an interpretation").
43 In a similar vein, Becker 2003: 8 has proposed to view ekphrasis as "(...) an *experience* of viewing an actual or imagined work of art" (emphasis in the original). Cf. also Zanker 2004: 7-16.
interpreter can be more or less conspicuous. What is important for now, however, is that one must not create a false antithesis between interpretation on the one hand, and description or narration on the other. What I mean to say is that in an ekphrasis one cannot distinguish between interpretation and description, since ekphrasis is by definition interpretation.

Third, scholars often conceive of ekphrasis as a struggle between the visual and the verbal arts. In the words of Heffernan: “(...) the most promising line of inquiry in the field of sister art studies is the one drawn by W.J.T. Mitchell’s *Iconology*, which treats the relation between literature and the visual arts as essentially *paragonal*, a struggle for dominance between the image and the word”. The conception of ekphrasis as a struggle for dominance between the image and word has become very influential. In this study, I will not regard ekphrasis as a struggle between the verbal and the visual. I find such a single view on a phenomenon that stretches from antiquity until today too limited. Rather, in many ancient ekphraseis the verbal and the visual can be seen in a complementary relationship.

1.3.2 Ekphrasis: Description and/or Narration? State of the Art
In 1991, Fowler published an article titled “Narrate and Describe: The Problem of Ekphrasis”. Soon, however, the problem of ekphrasis turns out to be the problem of

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44 I quote here *exempli gratia* Gow [1950] 1952: 9 on the ekphrasis of the goatherd’s cup in Theocritus’ *Idyll* v: “[Theocritus] is interpreting rather than describing, since a work of art can only suggest, not depict, successive action (...)”. See also Laird 1993: 22: “(...) Gow begs the question of what the difference is between description and interpretation”.

45 Heffernan 1993: 1 (emphasis in the original), see also ibid.: 1-8. Klarer 2001: 21 rightly draws attention to the fact that distinctions between the visual and the verbal are culturally and historically dependent. On the concept of *paragone*, see further e.g. Squire 2009: 104.


47 Cf. Squire 2009: 190: “[w]here modern orthodoxy has tended to privilege text over image, often assuming a bipartite separation between the two media, ancient artists and writers tended towards a more playful, less rigid, and more engaged attitude towards visual and verbal relations, exploring and exploiting the many ways in which an image might take up, embellish and even change outright the meaning of a text, and, conversely, the ways in which a text might do the same with an image”.

48 To my mind, Becker 2003: 3 has convincingly demonstrated that in antiquity “the visual and the verbal arts can be considered in a complementary relation, in concert not contest”. Similarly, Belsey 2012: 190 argues that in Shakespeare’s *The Rape of Lucrece* the “two modes work together”.
description. Fowler, on account of his definition of description, assumes that ekphrasis is description, and then goes on to investigate the relation between ekphrasis/description and the surrounding narrative. This also explains the title “to narrate and to describe”: ekphrasis/description is inserted into the narrative, which means that both phenomena are mutually exclusive.

Indeed, the basic assumption of most classical scholars seems to be that ekphrasis results in a descriptive text (option b in table 1.1): the narrator interrupts the flow of the narrative and describes an object. It would seem that the definition of ekphrasis as a verbal representation of a visual representation renders the term ‘description’ superfluous. Nevertheless, scholars often assume that ekphrasis is description. Others work from the premise that ekphrasis should be description. For example, Laird’s

49 Fowler 1991: 26, 27: “[b]ut I want to go on talking of the problem of description (...)” and “(...) we can attempt to deal with the problem of description (...)” (emphasis mine). Fowler is, however, not unaware of the fact that there exists a tension between narration and description within every ekphrasis, since he speaks of “(...) an underlying narrative element in the visual representation [which is] being described” (ibid.: 31). Cf. also Paschalis 2002: 132, who writes that “(...) the ‘tension’ between description and narrative has existed not only in relation to the surrounding narrative but also within the ekphrasis. This last point has not received proper attention” (emphasis in the original).

50 This is argued by Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 152-3: “[g]rundsätzlich scheint in weiten Teilen der Forschung stillschweigendes Einvernehmen darüber zu herrschen, dass sich der heutige Ekphrasis-Begriff insofern von der antiken descriptio-Tradition losgelöst hat, als Beschreibung nur noch als mögliche, nicht mehr als notwendige Realisationsform von Ekphrasis gilt. Ein Grund für diese Entwicklung könnte darin liegen, dass das Kriterium der doppelten Repräsentation so stark an Einfluss gewonnen hat: Wendet man nämlich dieses Kriterium an, erübrigt sich eine Definition über den Deskriptionsbegriff”.

51 These are mostly classical scholars; I give some examples (emphasis mine): Barchiesi 1997: 271 (“[i]n modern criticism the term ‘ecphrasis’ (‘description’) is used specifically to refer to a literary description of a work of art”), Zanker 2003: 59 (“[e]kphrasis’ is now the standard term for ‘a description of a work of art’”), Chinn 2007: 265 (“[n]owadays the word ekphrasis is frequently used to denote the rhetorical or literary description of works of visual art”), Francis 2009: 1 (“the modern definition of ekphrasis, i.e., the literary description of a work of visual art”), Faber 2012: 417 (“ekphrasis, that is, a literary description of a building, weapon, or work of art”), Brown 2013: 51 (“[t]he poetic ekphrasis (...) is typically a digressive (though thematically integrated) description of a work of art”). Outside the field of classics, ekphrasis has ceased to be viewed as description, though there are exceptions (such as Sabor 1996: 215, on which see Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 153).
distinction between obedient and disobedient only makes sense if one assumes that ekphrasis is obedient when it conforms to the rules of description, and disobedient when it tries to break free from those rules. Because most classical scholars assume that ekphrasis is description – presumably since ekphrasis involves an object, and objects are usually described – they refrain from giving reasons why this should be the case. Ekphrasis as description must largely do without theoretical foundation.

The view that ekphrasis results in a purely narrative text (option a in table 1.1) is not held by many scholars. As far as I know, only Heffernan holds this position. He writes that "[f]rom Homer’s time to our own, ekphrastic literature reveals again and again this narrative response to pictorial stasis, this storytelling impulse that language by its very nature seems to release and stimulate". Ekphrasis converts the action which is only implied in an image into a sequence of events, into a narrative. However, Heffernan’s definition also suggests that language is narrative by its very

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52 Cf. Becker 2003: 6-8. For the terminology, see Laird 1993: 19: "obedient ekphrasis limits itself to the description of what can be consistently visualized. (...) Disobedient ekphrasis, on the other hand, breaks free from the discipline of the imagined object and offers less opportunity for it to be consistently visualized or translated adequately into an actual work of visual art" (emphasis in the original).

53 Cf. Belsey 2012: 192 on the ekphrasis in The Rape of Lucrece: "(...) Shakespeare describes a narrative picture that includes separate episodes within a single frame". While acknowledging the narrative nature of the picture – Belsey thus holds position 1b in table 1.1 – she does not elaborate on this statement.

54 Some theoretical reflections on why the shield ekphrasis in Iliad 18 can be regarded as description are found in Byre 1992. For discussion of this article, see section 3.2.


56 Heffernan 1993: 4-5: he also states that "ekphrasis is dynamic and obstetric; it typically delivers from the pregnant moment of visual art its embryonically narrative impulse, and thus makes explicit the story that visual art tells only by implication" (ibid.: 5, emphasis in the original). Similarly Heffernan 1991: 304: "(...) ekphrasis is narrational and prosopopoioelal; it releases the narrative impulse that graphic art typically checks, and it enables the silent figures of graphic art to speak".

57 Cf. Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 154, who further refer to Heffernan 1991: 301 ("turning the picture of a single moment into a narrative of successive actions (...)").
In my view, Heffernan attaches too much importance to the narrative nature of the verbal medium, but too little importance to the narrative properties of the visual medium.

The two foregoing views are problematic, firstly, because they take insufficient account of the fact that ekphrasis is doubly mimetic. Those who see ekphrasis as a descriptive text (b, table 1.1) make light of the fact that the visual image is narrative (1, table 1.1). Heffernan assumes that a narrative image (1, table 1.1) automatically leads to a narrative text (1a, table 1.1), but this is by no means necessarily the case. Since the narrative image is depicted on an object, the narrator can also describe that object, narrative included. Secondly, the assumption that all ekphraseis are either narrative or descriptive takes no account of the variation that may exist between different ekphrastic passages. Thirdly, variation between narration and description may also occur within one and the same ekphrastic passage.

The view that ekphrasis results in a narrative and descriptive text (1a and 1b) seems to be the most promising line of enquiry. It allows for the fact that ekphrasis is concerned with objects (a priori associated with description) that tell a story (a priori associated with narration). Many scholars adopt this view, but it is not without problems. Firstly, the concepts of narration and description are in themselves not unproblematic. Scholars writing on ekphrasis usually leave narration and description undefined or have views on these concepts that are out of date. Secondly, most scholars are still working with a Lessingesque opposition between the visual and the verbal, which usually means that they overlook or even deny the narrative potentiality of the secondary visual layer.

Scholars who hold the position that ekphrasis is narrative and descriptive often start from the idea that ekphrasis is essentially description into which a number of narrative elements are inserted. In such cases, they regard as descriptive those...

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58 For criticism of this position, see Yacobi 1995: 613, note 10 and Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 154-5.
59 He is well aware of the fact that pictures can be narrative, for which see Heffernan 1993: 193, note 13.
60 Other forms may also be envisaged (see e.g. Yacobi 1995: 618). Such forms are rare in the corpus of this study; see sections 5.3.2 and 6.2.2.
61 See also Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 153-5.
62 E.g. Ravenna 1974: 6-7 ("che l'ekphrasis quasi per sua natura ammette l'impiego di componenti estraneo alla logica descrittiva stricto sensu (...)", emphasis mine), and Bartsch and Elsner 2007: ii
elements that are characteristic for pictorial art, i.e. elements which are visible and representable. Elements which are alien to pictorial art, i.e. those which are non-visible and cannot be represented by pictorial art, are regarded as narrative.\(^6\) As such, sounds, feelings, and movements are often regarded as narrative elements.\(^6\) This position, however, fails to take into account the following points. First of all, ekphrasis is not a scientific account of a pictorial work of art, but an imaginative response or interpretation of that work of art by a narrator, as I have stated in section 1.3.1 above. I shall give an example from the shield of Achilles (quoted in section 1.1 above) to clarify this point. The narrator relates that “two fearsome lions (…) / were grasping a loud-lowing bull; / and he, bellowing mightily, was being dragged away” (18.579-81). The narrator includes sound (ἐρύγμηλον, “loud-lowing”; μακρὰ μεμυκώς, “bellowing mightily”, 580) and movement (ἕλκετο, “he was being dragged away”, 581). Of course, the bull is depicted on a shield and thus cannot low or move. Yet the visual representation on the shield suggests sound and movement, and it is precisely this on which the narrator focuses. In other words, the narrator is interested in what the work of art represents, rather than merely registering its physical qualities or properties.

This important observation holds true for almost every ancient ekphrasis: the narrator focuses mainly, though not solely, on what the images on the object represent.\(^6\) Becker, who distinguishes four elements which play a role in ekphrasis, speaks in such cases of a focus on the res ipsae, the events and characters represented. The other elements on which the narrator may focus are the opus ipsum (the physical

\(^6\) E.g. Ravenna 1974: 7: “[s]i tratta quindi (...) di fornire indicazioni atte a distinguerne narrazione e descrizione, ciò che è rappresentato e visibile da ciò che è aggiunta narrativa ed immaginabile” (emphasis mine), and Schmale 2004: 108-9: “[d]ie Beschreibung geht nämlich über das hinaus, was auf einem unbeweglichen Bild dargestellt werden kann; der Beschreiber wird zu einem olympischen Erzähler (...)

\(^6\) Ravenna 1974: 7 and Laird 1993: 20 (“[s]ound, movement and temporality are characteristically open to verbal narrative, but closed to visual media”); de Jong 2011: 5 lists, among other things, sounds and indirect speech.

\(^6\) This point has often been made. For example, in connection with the shield of Achilles, Palm 1965-6: 119 remarks that the narrator does not describe things, but events or happenings (“(...) überall ereignet sich etwas, mehr Vorkommnisse als Dinge sind beschrieben”); similarly Byre 1976: 38, who states that the poet will “describe the representations as representations” (emphasis in the original).
medium of the object), the *artifex* (creator) and the *animadversor* (the eyewitness who reacts to the object). The narrator can focus on any of these elements in an ekphrasis, as the example cited in section 1.1 above makes clear. In 573, for example, the narrator focuses on the *artifex* (“he made”), in 574 on the *opus ipsum* (“the cattle had been made of gold and of tin”), and in 575-6 on the *res ipsae* (“and with lowing they were hurrying from the farmyard to the pasture / beside the sounding river, beside the waving reed”).

When the narrator includes sound, movement, or feeling – or in other cases when the narrator focuses on the *res ipsae* – it does not automatically follow that the text becomes narrative. This misunderstanding perhaps arises (1) from equating the non-pictorial with narration, (2) from failing to recognise that a visual narrative layer can be represented in a descriptive textual layer, or (3) failing to recognise the possibility of a narrative visual layer in the first place. At any rate, I shall demonstrate in sections 1.4 and 1.5 below that whether a text is regarded as narrative or descriptive does not depend on the nature of its subject. Sound and movement, for example, are found in both description and narration.

Another narrative element in ekphrasis is time. It is perhaps the most conspicuous narrative element in ekphrasis and can have various forms. For the purpose of my argument, one issue must be discussed here, the representation of different moments of time. First, it can be the work of art itself – the secondary visual layer – on which different moments of time are represented. A famous example from the *Aeneid* is the temple ekphrasis in 1.453-93, where Aeneas looks at various phases from Trojan war. Second, the primary verbal layer may also contain different moments of time, even when the work of art represents only one moment of time. This is the case when the narrator refers to events which are not depicted, but which are prior or subsequent to depicted moment. This begs the question, however, how to distinguish between what is depicted and what is not depicted, i.e. whether an event is only part of the primary

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67 Other approaches to time in ekphrasis can be found in Goldhill 2012 and Guez 2012.

68 Ravenna 1974: 7 (“riferire fatti non rappresentati (antefatti e/o conseguenze) (…)”). Similarly, Kafalenos 2012: 31-3 argues that an ekphrastic scene is narrativized when the narrator supplies events prior and subsequent to the event depicted. Cf. also Hühn 2007: 43-61, who has investigated the ways in which lyric poems can either narrativize a visual scene or resist its narrative impulse (although the question whether lyric poems can be regarded as narrative is contested).
1.3.3 Ekphrasis: Description and/or Narration? Concluding Remarks

It has been demonstrated that most classical scholars assume that ekphrasis is description, but that thorough reflection on this position is lacking. Heffernan alone regards ekphrasis as pure narration, a position that is untenable. Seeing ekphrasis a priori as a mixture of narration and description appears to be the most promising line of enquiry, though in this case, too, solid theoretical reflection is missing. A reason for the lack of theorisation could be that narration and description are concepts that are thought to be self-evident, and therefore not in need of definition or explanation. Yet it is precisely because of the many possible meanings of these concepts that ekphrasis cannot be easily classified as narration and/or description. This problem is further complicated by ekphrasis’ doubly mimetic nature. What is required, then, to tackle the problem of ekphrasis is a precise demarcation of both narration and description. In other words, one must clearly define what it means for a text (and a picture, for that matter) to be narrative and/or descriptive. The following sections contain such a definition of narration and description (sections 1.4 and 1.5).

I briefly want to dwell on why the problem of ekphrasis merits attention at all. What does it mean for an ekphrasis to be narration, description, or a combination of both? The exploration of an ekphrastic passage from this point of view will provide insight in how such a passage works, i.e. which techniques a narrator uses to render the visual in the verbal. Furthermore, it will provide material to compare different ekphrastic passages, not only with each other but also with non-ekphrastic passages. In addition, by addressing the problem of ekphrasis one can shed light on a number of other issues, too. For example, I hope that this study will also contribute to further our understanding of the relation between the visual and the verbal in antiquity.

I should also make clear that this study assumes that ekphrasis is as much a visual as a verbal phenomenon. Since the strict Lessingsque opposition between the verbal

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69 This is no problem for Kafalenos (see previous note), who works with novels that juxtapose ekphrasis and image. For classical examples of ekphrasis that are attached to an artwork, see Squire 2009: 197-293.

70 The narrator can explicitly express these temporal relationships in a text by using temporal adverbs, for which see Ravenna 1974: 7, 26-8.
and the visual is alien to antiquity, this might have been the way ekphrasis was approached in antiquity, too. Thus, Squire suggests:

that part of the preconditioning that ancient readers brought to their reading of texts, especially ekphrastic ones, derived from their visual experiences. Within the collaboration and competition between words and images, ekphrasis forced its readers to contemplate the verbal evocation of a typified picture in parallel with a visual tradition of images; indeed, it was partly by applying that visual tradition to the text at hand that readers could shed light on the focalising lens through which an ekphrastic description was cast.71

It follows from Squire’s words that the reader of an ekphrastic passage must turn the text back into an image – he must create a mental image of the work of art by using the verbal cues in the text.72 I am thus not following Heffernan, when he denies that the shield of Achilles is visualizable: “[a]ll we can see – all that really exists in this passage – is Homer’s language, which not only rivals but actually displaces the work of art it ostensibly describes and salutes”.73 I want to counter such views, and demonstrate that objects in ekphraseis can be visualized, and that this is, actually, the very point of ekphrasis. Just as the narrator has done his very best to render the visual in the verbal, the reader must translate the verbal back into the visual.

1.4.1 Narration: Introduction

Narration and description are subjects that are studied in the field of narratology. It is thus to narratology, “the science of narrative”, that one has to turn for theories of narration and description.74 In informal usage, as well as now and then in narratological

71 Squire 2009: 146.
72 Just as “[t]he describer acts (…) as sympathetic audience, willing to respond to the images both with engagement and with a more detached appreciation” (Becker 2003: 6), the narratee must be a sympathetic audience too, and willing to (re)create the images by using the text.
73 Heffernan 1993: 14; cf. also ibid.: 13: “[t]he picture or pictures said to be wrought on the shield at this point [Il. 18.497-508] have been turned so thoroughly into narrative that we can hardly see a picture through Homer’s words”.
74 This is the definition of narratology adopted by Prince 2003: 1, after Todorov 1969: 10 (“la science du récit”). For a brief history and overview of narratology, see Meister 2009. For an overview of narratological studies in the field of classics, see Grethlein and Rengakos 2009: 1-2. Important, too, is the series Studies in Ancient Greek Narrative (SAGN), which have appeared
studies, narration and narrative are used indiscriminately. In this loose sense, narration and narrative are synonyms, and refer to things that are narrated or recounted, such as stories (oral or textual). In most narratological studies, on the other hand, narration and narrative designate different concepts. Usually, narration is regarded as the *production* of narrative. Thus, in order to understand narration one must define the concept of narrative. In this section, I will work towards a definition of narrative that will be used throughout this study.

1.4.2 Narration, Narrative and Narrativity
In 1969, Genette defined narrative as follows: “[i]f one agrees, following convention, to confine oneself to the domain of literary expression, one will define narrative without difficulty as the representation of an event or sequence of events, real or fictitious, by means of language and, more particularly, by means of written language”. Forty years later, Prince stated that “an object is a narrative if it is taken to be the logically consistent representation of at least two asynchronous events that do not presuppose or imply each other”. Although there are many differences between these definitions, they have one element in common, the *event*. The occurrence of at least one event –
something must be happening – is a basic requisite for narrative in almost all definitions.\textsuperscript{80}

According to the definition by Prince, an object either is or is not a narrative. Only when an object fulfils all six criteria of his definition – in other words, it is the (1) logically consistent (2) representation of (3) two (4) asynchronous (5) events (6) that do not presuppose or imply each other – Prince regards that object as a narrative.\textsuperscript{81} From this perspective, narrative is a binary predicate: something either is or is not a narrative. Scholars speak of narrativehood, a term which concerns those properties necessary for an object to qualify as a narrative.\textsuperscript{82} Narrativehood can be contrasted with narrativity, a scalar predicate which refers to those properties by which something is more or less readily processed as a narrative.\textsuperscript{83} As such, narrativehood is a matter of kind, but narrativity is a matter of degree.\textsuperscript{84} Whereas narrativehood differentiates between the narrative and the non-narrative, narrativity identifies whether a certain object is more or less narrative in comparison with another object.\textsuperscript{85}

In this study, I will not use the concept of narrativehood. In practice, it is often very difficult, if not impossible, to decide whether an object is a narrative or not. It is more productive to work with the concept of narrativity, the more so because narrativity can fruitfully be combined with a prototype approach. Narrativity is defined by Herman as "[t]hat which makes a story a story; a property that a text or discourse will have in greater proportion the more readily it lends itself to being interpreted as a narrative,\

\textsuperscript{80} Some theories of narrative do away even with this requirement (see e.g. Fludernik in note 128 below). Essential overviews of narrative are Ryan 2005b, Herman 2007, Ryan 2007, Prince 2008, Abbott 2009, and Aumüller 2012.

\textsuperscript{81} See Prince 2008: 20-1.

\textsuperscript{82} I follow the terminology in Herman 2002: 90-1. Prince 2008: 20 uses slightly different terminology.

\textsuperscript{83} I again follow Herman; Prince 2008: 20 uses different terminology. I further explain the concept of narrativity below.

\textsuperscript{84} Page 2003: 45. Cf. also Herman 2002: 91: "[n]arrativehood can thus be conveniently paired with narrativity to suggest the contrast between, on the one hand, the minimal conditions for narrative sequences and, on the other, the factors that allow narrative sequences to be more or less readily processed as narratives".

\textsuperscript{85} The flexibility and convenience of this approach is demonstrated by Abbott 2009: 310 (adapted from Ryan 2007: 30): "if we ask: ‘Does Finnegans Wake have more or less narrativity than Little Red Riding Hood?’ we will get much broader agreement than if we ask ‘Is Finnegans Wake a narrative?’".
i.e., the more prototypically narrative it is.86 Herman follows a prototype approach towards narrative.87 A prototypical approach is based on the assumption that narrative texts form a fuzzy set that allows for variable degrees of membership, but which is centred on prototypical cases which are easily recognisable as narratives.88 Herman speaks of prototype effects, which concern the relationship among categories. Firstly, instances of the same category may be more or less prototypical examples of that category.89 For example, robins and sparrows are prototypical examples of birds, but emus or penguins are not.90 Similarly, a given narrative may be a more or less prototypical example of the category narrative. Secondly, the boundaries between categories are permeable, so that less standard cases of neighbouring categories can be situated only with difficulty in either one or the other category. Herman provides the example of certain non-prototypical instances of the category tree versus exemplars of the category shrub.91 Similarly, non-prototypical examples of the category narrative may share certain features with exemplars of the category description, argumentation or explanation.

86 Herman 2009a: 190; cf. also Ryan 2007: 347 (= Ryan 2006: 10-11), who conceives of the difference between narrative and narrativity in cognitive terms: "[t]he property of 'being' a narrative can be predicated of any semiotic object, whatever the medium, produced with the intent to create a response involving the construction of a story. More precisely, it is the receiver's recognition of this intent that leads to the judgment that a given semiotic object is a narrative (...), even though we can never be sure if sender and receiver have the same story in mind. 'Possessing narrativity', on the other hand, means being able to inspire a narrative response, whether or not the text, if there is one, was intended to be processed that way, and whether or not an author designs the stimuli". For the concept of narrativity, see further Audet 2007: 24-7, Pier and García Landa 2008, and Abbott 2009.
90 Of course, what is regarded as prototypical varies across different contexts and cultures (see Herman 2009a: 6).
91 Herman 2009a: 81. These prototype effects are called centrality gradience ("the idea that members (or subcategories) which are clearly within the category boundaries may still be more or less central") and membership gradience ("the idea that at least some categories have degrees of membership and no clear boundaries", Lakoff 1987: 12, quoted in Herman 2009a: 85).
The advantages of a prototype approach are as follows. Firstly, it allows for *degrees* of narrativity, which means that some stories can be regarded as more narrative than other stories. This, in turn, means that narratives can be compared with each other qua narrativity.\(^92\) Secondly, it better accommodates the fact that there are different kinds or types of texts, such as narrative, descriptive, or argumentative texts. For this study, it is important to note that some texts can be easily classified as narrative or descriptive – they are prototypical examples of their category – but that for other texts it can be difficult, if not sometimes impossible, to decide whether they are descriptive or narrative. In such cases, it is more productive to investigate which features prototypically associated with either category are present in the text under scrutiny.\(^93\)

In this study, I follow Herman in his 2009 *Basic Elements of Narrative* in distinguishing four basic elements of narrative.\(^94\) Herman defines these basic elements as follows:

A prototypical narrative can be characterized as:

(i) A representation that is situated in – must be interpreted in light of – a specific discourse context or occasion for telling.

(ii) The representation, furthermore, cues interpreters to draw inferences about a structured time-course of particularized events.

(iii) In turn, these events are such that they introduce some sort of disruption or disequilibrium into a storyworld involving human or human-like agents, whether that world is perceived as actual or fictional, realistic or fantastic, remembered or dreamed, etc.

(iv) The representation also conveys the *experience* of living through this storyworld-in-flux, highlighting the pressure of events on real or imagined consciousnesses affected by the occurrences at issue (...).\(^{95}\)

\(^{92}\) Ryan 2006: 10 and 232, note 4. For such a comparison, see Ryan 1992.

\(^{93}\) The prototypical features of description will be discussed in section 1.5 below.

\(^{94}\) Another approach that I find appealing, too, is Ryan 2006: 6-9 (= Ryan 2007: 28-31), who distinguishes eight conditions of narrativity and organizes them into three semantic dimensions (a spatial, a temporal, and a mental dimension), and one formal and pragmatic dimension. I make use of Herman’s *Basic Elements of Narrative*, because his approach is more wieldable, and better suited for the purposes of this study. Nevertheless, the conditions for narrativity which both studies stipulate seem to be, to a large extent, similar. For an assessment of the usefulness of Herman’s approach, see Hyvärinen 2012: 26-7.
Herman abbreviates these elements as (i) situatedness, (ii) event sequencing, (iii) worldmaking and/or world disruption, and (iv) what it's like.\(^9\) In what follows, I shall discuss each element separately.

Herman’s first element, situatedness, concerns the relationship between narrative texts and their communicative contexts. With this first element, Herman draws attention to the fact that it is impossible to understand a narrative text without taking its context into consideration.\(^{97}\) Context refers to both the communicative environment in which a narrative text is interpreted, and the environment in which a narrative text is produced.\(^9\) In oral storytelling, for example, the recognition of the fact that a speaker is telling a narrative (and is not explaining how something works, or describing what something looks like), is crucial for understanding that narrative by the listener. As for narrative texts, narratological theory has developed a model for the process of narrative communication. This model conceives of narration as the communication of a narrative message by a narrator to a narratee.\(^9\) In this study, the element of situatedness will not be used. The reason for this is that all ekphraseis of this study are part of larger texts that are situated in a narrative context. In other words, these texts have been created to convey a story.\(^{100}\)

\footnote{Herman 2009a: 1, emphasis in the original. Storyworld is the world evoked by a narrative (see ibid.: 193).}

\footnote{Herman has drawn on a large body of previous scholarship, which I cannot reproduce here; I therefore refer to Herman’s chapters dealing with the elements in question.}

\footnote{Herman 2009a: 17: “(…) insofar narratives are also communica\textit{tively situated} representations, making sense of them requires attending to how they are geared to particular communicative contexts. In other words, interpreters seeking to use textual cues to reconstruct a storyworld must also draw inferences about the communicative goals that have structured the specific occasion of the telling (…)” (emphasis in the original).}

\footnote{Herman 2009a: 39: “narrative occasions (…) as communicative environments shaping how acts of narration are to be interpreted and, reciprocally, as contexts shaped by storytelling practices themselves (…)”.}

\footnote{Herman 2009a: 64-5: “[i]n the narratological framework, narration can be conceived as a communicative process in which information about the story level is conveyed by a particular kind of narrator to a particular kind of narratee”. For an overview of these terms, see de Jong 2004.}

\footnote{We may compare Odyssey 5.242-60, when Odysseus builds his boat. The narratee will assume that this episode forms part of a larger narrative, and will interpret it as such. If the narratee
Herman’s second element of narrative, *event sequencing*, has traditionally been regarded as the hallmark of narrative. Event sequencing forms the core of the definitions by Genette and Prince quoted above.⁴⁹ Yet whereas Genette is content with merely stating that narrative is a representation of an event or sequence of events, Prince stipulates a number of conditions for a sequence of events to be narrative: the events must be at least two in number, they must be asynchronous, and they must not imply or presuppose each other. Thus, it has been recognised even in the field of structural narratology that the representation of a sequence of events *only* is not enough for a text to be called narrative.⁵⁰

Herman, by distinguishing four different basic elements of narrative, explicitly acknowledges that a mere sequence of events is not prototypical for narrative representations. Moreover, Herman also further qualifies his second element of narrative. He defines it as “a structured time-course of particularized events”. With this definition, he sets off narrative from explanation (particularity) and description (structured time-course), two other text types.⁵¹ Both description and explanation may also feature a sequence of events. Yet prototypical instances of narration have a specific mode of event sequencing that is not found in prototypical instances of description and explanation. Herman distinguishes two features in which prototypical narrative representations of events differ from representations of events in explanation and description: particularity, and the presence of a structured time-course of events. As for particularity, “the degree to which represented events are particularized provides a parameter along which narratives can be distinguished from explanations. Whereas stories are prototypically concerned with particular situations and events, it can be argued that explanations by their nature concern themselves with ways in which, in were to approach this text as an explanation of how to build a boat, he would be disappointed. See for a discussion of this example also Ryan 2007: 25-6.

⁴⁹ Genette requires only one event; Prince requires at least two. See for a brief discussion of this issue Schmid [2003] 2010: 2-3.
⁵⁰ Cf. Rudrum 2005: 198: “(...) it seems that the representation of a series or sequence of events is not, in and of itself, enough to provide a full definition of narrative. Perhaps such a representation is a necessary condition for narrative, but it does not appear to be a sufficient one. Something more is needed to make a text a narrative”.
⁵¹ A text type is “a kind of text” (Herman 2009a: 194). I briefly revisit the notion of text type in section 2.2.2.
In other words, narrative representations focus on what happened to particular people in particular situations; explanation focuses on general patterns and trends.

Description forms an indispensable part of narrative texts. Prototypical passages of description are easily separated from prototypical passages of narration – because these lack a sequence of events – but this is not the case in less prototypical passages, which is mainly due to the fact that descriptive passages may also feature a (particularized) sequence of events. This has led some scholars to question the validity of the distinction between narration and description. Yet here the advantages of a prototype approach are apparent: rather than arguing that there exists no essential difference between narration and description, it is more productive to view the boundary between description and narration “as porous and variable, rather than as impermeable and fixed”.

Herman finds the difference between narrative and descriptive sequences of events in narrative’s distinctive method of sequencing events. He makes this clear with the following example: "Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays I have toast for breakfast, but on Tuesdays and Thursdays I have cereal". Prince would regard this small passage as a narrative, because it is the logically consistent representation of two asynchronous events that do not presuppose or imply each other. I, for my part, consider it to be a description of someone’s breakfast habits. It is not a narrative sequence of events, because a narrative sequence of events "(...) traces paths taken by particularized individuals faced with decision points at one or more temporal junctures in a

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104 Herman 2009a: 92. Herman also notes that "[p]articularity is (...) a scalar, more-or-less notion, with context determining whether a text or discourse counts as more or less particularistic" (ibid.).
105 I discuss this issue below in 1.5.2.
106 Herman 2009a: 91. Similarly Beaujour 1981: 33 (who speaks of “description’s seemingly uncheckable tendency to turn into micro-narratives”), Coblentz 1986: 397 (“[a] clear distinction between narration and description is of course untenable (...)”), Mosher 1991: 426, and passim (who already distinguished between mixed modes, which he called descriptized narration and narratized description; for the sake of euphony, Herman 2009a: 197, note 12 adds an extra syllable and speaks of descriptivized narration and narrativized description), Schmid [2003] 2010: 5 (“the boundaries between them are fluid”), and de Jong 2012: 6.
107 Herman 2009a: 92-3.
108 Prince’s definition could also apply to, for example, a recipe (Wolf 2011: 162), which is clearly not narrative.
storyworld; those paths lead to consequences that take shape against a larger backdrop of consequences in which other possible paths might have eventuated, but did not.109 Narrative, then, has a time-course which is structured in the sense that events that have happened earlier in a narrative make the occurrence of later events both possible as well as impossible – in other words, the temporal order in which the events happen is significant.110 This is evidently not the case with the example at the beginning of this paragraph – if one were to eat cereal on Mondays, this has no consequences whatsoever for what one can or cannot eat on the other days.111

Herman’s third element of narrative actually consists of two slightly different elements, world making and world disruption, the latter of which is closely related to event sequencing, as I will make clear below. To my mind, the element of world making functions on a higher level than world disruption, and refers to the fact that narrative texts evoke storyworlds.112 Narrative worlds are usually populated by humans who are able to act intentionally. Storyworlds do not only have a temporal, but also a spatial dimension.113 As such, world making applies to a narrative as a whole. It would seem, furthermore, that descriptive passages contribute to a large extent in creating a picture of what a storyworld looks like – for example, when a character is described, or the location in which the events take place. As such, I conceive of world making as applying to a narrative text in its entirety.

World disruption, however, can be situated on the same level as event sequencing. It is, in fact, a further specification of what constitutes a prototypical sequence of events, namely one that introduces some sort of disruption or disequilibrium into a

109 Herman 2009a: 96. Herman does not refer to causality here, although this seems to be implied when he speaks of consequences. Causality is an important concept in narrative theory (see the overview in Richardson 2005) and sometimes stipulated as a necessary condition for narrativity (some scholars who do so are listed in Abbott [2002] 2008: 13).
110 This concerns, of course, the level of the fabula (in Bal’s terminology, for which see note 206), not that of the story (events can, after all, be related in an arbitrary order).
111 Herman 2009a: 94-6 also discusses Sternberg’s narrative universals, viz. suspense, curiosity, and surprise (Sternberg 2001: 117), which are particularly associated with narrative, but not with description or explanation. See also Kittay 1981: 232-3 and Chatman 1990: 32.
112 See Herman 2002: 9-22, Herman 2005: 569-70, and Herman 2009a: 105-8. This is also Ryan’s first condition, namely that “[n]arrative must be about a world populated by individuated existents (Ryan 2006: 8 = Ryan 2007: 29).
113 See e.g Herman 2009a: 128-32.
storyworld. In the words of Herman, "stories place an accent on unexpected or noncanonical events – events that disrupt the normal order of things for human or human-like agents engaged in goal-directed activities and projects within a given world (…)." This is also a reason why the example quoted on the previous page is not a prototypical narrative, because it lacks world disruption. It rather describes the storyworld as it is.

Herman draws attention to the fact that "that what counts as normal or canonical will vary from world to world, narrative to narrative – as will, therefore, what counts as disruptive, disequilibrium-causing, noncanonical." Herman refers to Bruner's notion of canonicity and breach: in order for a narrative "to be worth telling, a tale must be about how an implicit canonical script has been breached, violated, or deviated from in a manner to do violence to (…) the ‘legitimacy’ of the canonical script". The concept of script, mainly used in the field of cognitive narratology, can help us to understand what counts as disruptive or noncanonical. A script is conceived of as a type of schema. Schemata, in turn, can be defined as cognitive structures which represent general knowledge. They are used by readers to make sense of events and descriptions by providing default background information for understanding a text. Texts do not need to spell everything out in order to be understood; if details are omitted, schemata can compensate for any gaps in the text. Schemata are usually subdivided into frames and scripts. Frames are mental representations of objects, settings, and situations, and are static. Scripts, on the other hand, are dynamic, and refer to stereotypical sequences of events. For example, a restaurant frame contains information about what a restaurant

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44 Herman 2009a: 133. Hühn 2009: 90 draws attention to the fact that "we must distinguish the expectations of protagonists from the scripts of author and reader. What for a hero is an unpredictable event can for the reader be a central part of a genre’s script".
45 Herman 2009a: 133; similarly Hühn 2009: 90: "[t]he extent to which a change in the narrated world qualifies as significant, unpredictable, momentous, or irreversible depends on the established system of norms, the conventional ideas about the nature of society and reality, current in any given case, but also on literary, e.g. genre-specific, conventions, and can therefore vary historically between different mentalities and cultures". Thus, what counts as disruptive in the twenty-first century may not have been perceived as such in ancient Greece.
46 Bruner 1991: 11, emphasis mine. For a summary of Bruner's main points, see Hühn 2009: 89.
47 For cognitive narratology see section 1.4.3 below.
looks like and the kind of objects that are found in a restaurant. A restaurant script contains knowledge about the actions and sequence of entering the restaurant, ordering food, paying the bill, etc.\textsuperscript{119} Whereas frames are relevant for the study of descriptions (when a narrator describes a restaurant, he need not specify every detail, because a reader already knows what a restaurant looks like), scripts are useful for the understanding of narrative.\textsuperscript{120}

A text which contains a narrative that follows a script – i.e. a story with a fixed order – is low in narrativity, because it contains no disruptive or noncanonical events.\textsuperscript{121} Such a text would make a rather boring story. A narrative which deviates from a script – i.e. a story in which something unexpected or out-of-the-ordinary occurs – has more narrativity, i.e. is more prototypically narrative-like.\textsuperscript{122} It is at the same time more interesting to listen to or to read. World disruption is a crucial element in distinguishing between a narrative and descriptive sequence of events.\textsuperscript{123} I regard world

\textsuperscript{119} Emmott and Alexander 2009: 411-2.
\textsuperscript{120} Within the field of classics, Minchin 2001: 32-72 combines the notion of script and Homeric type scenes; see also Allan 2010: 215-7. Minchin 2001: 39 argues that typical scenes can be regarded as expressions of scripts: "(...) I submit that Homer's narrative patterns, namely those typical scenes or themes noted by Parry and Lord (which replay in more or less detail everyday situations, procedures, and speech acts), may be identified as the expressions of cognitive scripts". This does not mean that the \textit{Iliad} or \textit{Odyssey} is low in narrativity: the narrator constantly varies his type scenes by selection and elaboration of elements (see Edwards 1980: 1-3). In section 2.4, I discuss the narrativity of a type scene.
\textsuperscript{121} See also Hühn 2009: 93.
\textsuperscript{122} Cf. Minchin 2001: 18-9: "(... we do not make stories of everyday happenings which follow the predictable course. Such stories contain no surprises; they are not interesting to us. We expect a story to include events which interfere with the normal, or, in cognitive terms, the scripted, course of events. We expect to hear about an individual who cannot attain his or her goals simply by following a script, or individuals whose goals are in conflict, or everyday sequences which have been disrupted by an unexpected and therefore remarkable event".
\textsuperscript{123} Herman 2009a: 135: "(...) the degree to which a representation foregrounds a more or less marked (and thus noteworthy or tellable) disruption of the canonical or expected order of events is itself one of the factors or properties explaining how readily the representation can be interpreted as an instance of the text-type category \textit{narrative}, versus (...) \textit{description}" (emphasis in the original).
disruption as the most important feature which distinguishes narration from description.  

Herman’s fourth and last element of narrative, ‘what-it’s-like’, indicates that narrative is concerned with what it is like for someone to experience the events of the storyworld. Herman argues that narrative is, too, “a mode of representation tailor-made for gauging the felt quality of lived experiences”. As such, “the less a given representation registers the pressure of an experienced world on one or more human or humanlike consciousnesses, the less central or prototypical an instance of the category ‘narrative’ that representation will be – all other things being equal”. When the element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is pushed to the background, the passage under scrutiny will be bordering between narration and description – Herman refers to a chronicle or report. Fludernik, for her part, has even argued that it is experientiality, and not a sequence of events (of whatever form) that defines narrativity.

So far, I have discussed narrativity by referring to verbal texts. Narrativity is, however, not confined to the verbal medium only: a film, a play, or a painting may possess narrativity, too. In the following section, I will discuss the differences between verbal and visual narrative representations. A correct understanding of visual narrative is called for, since ekphrasis is a verbal and a visual phenomenon. Seeing that visual

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124 Cf. Ryan’s second condition for narrativity: a narrative world “must be situated in time and undergo significant transformations” (Ryan 2006: 8 = Ryan 2007: 29, emphasis mine). Important, too, are Hühn 2009: 80-98 (who distinguishes between a mere event (which he calls event I) and an event which satisfies certain additional conditions (event II)) and Schmid [2003] 2010: 8-12.

125 Herman 2009a: 137-8. In similar vein Grethlein 2010: 319 notes that narratives not only represent experience, but also lead to experience – in his words, that “narratives are crucial to letting us re-experience the past (…)” (ibid: 315).

126 Herman 2009a: 138. Cf. also Ryan’s fourth condition of narrativity: “[s]ome of the participants in the events must be intelligent agents who have a mental life and react emotionally to the states of the world” (Ryan 2006: 8 = Ryan 2007: 29, emphasis mine).

127 Herman 2009a: 138.

narratives have their own way of narrating, the question arises if – and if so, how –
ekphrastic texts may differ from other narrative texts that are non-ekphrastic. In other
words, do ekphrastic texts have a way of narrating (or describing, for that matter) which
is perhaps more similar to visual than to verbal narratives?

1.4.3 Verbal and Visual Narrative
For the most part, classical narratology has been concerned with verbal narrativity.
Recent developments in narratological theory have made the investigation of visual
narrativity possible, too. Two approaches are particularly relevant: (1) cognitive
narratology, and (2) transmedial narratology. Cognitive narratology is based on the
assumption that narrative is a form of mental representation, a cognitive construct. This
means that any object that evokes a story to the mind can be investigated. Another
important insight in cognitive narratology is that narrative can be fruitfully
comprehended by making use of a prototype approach. Such an approach works
especially well in the case of visual narrativity. Visual narratives lack features that have
long been viewed as obligatory for narrative. Consequently, they were often not
regarded as narrative, even though other narrative features are present. A prototype
approach allows for the fact that even though certain narrative features may be absent
from a picture, that picture can still be regarded as narrative on account of the presence

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129 For this section, I have made extensive use of Wolf 2005b and Ryan 2009. The latter presents
an extensive overview of different media and their narrative potential. Wolf 2011, though mainly
discussing the potential narrativity of sculpture, touches upon many issues that are important
for any consideration of narrativity outside the verbal medium.
130 Cf. Fludernik and Olson 2011: 3: “[i]n cognitive approaches, the emphasis has moved away
from the categorization of aspects and functions of narratives in verbal and particularly literary
prose texts to the tracing or uncovering of mental processes by which narratives are evoked and
detected. This leads to an extension of the type of questions narratology once asked. Rather than
inquiring into written work and theorizing about the functions of its narrative elements,
cognitive narratology directly questions the mind and its functions, using narrative as a mode of
mental access”. For overviews of cognitive narratology, see Jahn 2005, Herman 2009b, and
Fludernik and Olson 2011: 8-10. The cognitive approach has also been criticised, for which see e.g.
Sternberg 2009.
of other narrative features. Thus, the “prototypical and cognitive reconceptualization of narrativity” is essential for the understanding of visual narrativity.

Transmedial narratology is, in turn, indebted to this prototypical and cognitive reconceptualization of narrativity. As the name indicates, transmedial narratology investigates narratives and narrativity across different media. An important insight of transmedial narratology is that although representations in all media can possess narrativity, the possibilities and constraints of a given medium influence the degree of narrativity that a representation in a given medium can have. In other words, “different media have different capabilities for transmitting as well as shaping narratives”. In this section, I will discuss the capability to transmit narrative of the visual medium, especially in comparison with the verbal medium.

For a major difference between visual and verbal media, we may return to Lessing, who wrote that “bodies with their visible properties form the proper subject of

132 Wolf 2011: 164, who investigates the narrativity of the Laokoon, continues: “[t]his reconception allows us to determine more about a work such as ‘Laokoon’ than whether or not it is narrative; it permits us to assess the sculpture’s degree of narrativity (...), for instance, in comparison to verbal narratives (but also to other media); and it also enables us to account for missing elements that may nevertheless be provided through the recipient’s mental activity as soon as he or she activates the cognitive frame ‘narrative.’ Above all, this cognitive and prototypical reconceptualization opens narratology to a transmedial application of its findings without right from the start excluding what might seem to be non- or less narrative” (ibid.: 164-5).


134 In this study, I approach medium as a semiotic category: “a medium is characterized by the codes and sensory channels upon which it relies” (Ryan 2009: 268; for a more elaborate definition of medium see Wolf 2011: 166). The semiotic approach distinguishes three broad media families: verbal, visual, and aural. This grouping corresponds to three different art types, namely literature, painting and music (Ryan 2009: 268).

135 In the words of Herman 2009c: 85: “[t]ransmedial narratology is premised on the assumption that, although narrative practices in different media share common features insofar as they are all instances of the narrative text type, stories are nonetheless inflected by the constraints and affordances associated with a given medium (e. g., print texts, film, comics and graphic novels, etc.)”.


137 I investigate only static visual images, such as paintings; I exclude film since it is not relevant for the study of ancient ekphrasis.
painting”, but that “actions form the proper subjects of poetry”.138 While the ideological dimension (“proper subject”) must be rejected, Lessing nevertheless makes an important observation: painting is a spatial, poetry a temporal art. Furthermore, painting speaks to the sense of sight, and poetry to the imagination. According to Lessing, painting is in essence a descriptive medium, and poetry a narrative one.139 To a certain extent this is true: paintings are static compositions which are spatially organized, while poetry is dynamic and temporally organized.140 If narrative is a “basic human strategy for coming to terms with time, process, and change”, it is clear that poetry – in fact, all verbal media – is best equipped to convey narrative.141

Indeed, scholars are agreed that the verbal medium is the narrative medium par excellence.142 However, if we look at the four basic elements of narrative, we see that the verbal medium is not superior at realizing all four elements. Element (1), situatedness, applies in equal measure to the visual and the verbal medium: the viewer or reader of a narrative representation must approach that representation as narrative (and not as argumentative, for example), whether that representation is of a visual or verbal nature.143 Visual media are stronger in realizing element (3a), worldmaking: “images are more efficient than words at representing a world populated by existents because of the

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139 Ryan 2009: 265.
140 Cf. further Hühn 2007: 43-4, who enumerates some of the classic oppositions between the two media: “[p]oetry and visual art belong to different semiotic systems constituted by digital vs analogue signs; they extend in the dimensions of time vs space; accordingly, their existence is defined by successivity vs simultaneity, movement vs stasis, change vs changelessness; and they usually present development vs matter”.
141 Quotation from Herman 2009a: 2.
143 Cf. Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 15 (“[a]n image (…) only becomes a narrative (…) through the viewer’s interaction with the object”) and 17 (“[t]he character of narrative art is a much broader result of the culture that produces it, of the means and medium available to an artist, of the contexts in which one finds narrative, of the relationship between artist, object, and viewer, and of the purpose of narrative altogether”).
spatial extension and visual appearance of concrete objects”. When it comes to showing how a storyworld looks, a picture is “worth a thousand words”.

The verbal medium is superior in realising (2) event sequencing – and thus also (3a) world disruption – and (4) ‘what-it’s-like’. With Lessing, we may observe that language, on account of its temporality, is naturally suited to represent events that succeed each other in time. World disruption (3a), seeing it involves temporality and change, is thus also best represented by language. Furthermore, only language can make (causal) relationships between events explicit, and represent events that did not happen. Pictures have found various strategies to deal with temporality, which will be discussed below. It is, however, in (4) ‘what-it’s-like’ – what Ryan calls the mental dimension of narrative – that language reigns as the supreme narrative medium, since it is only language which can directly represent thought and, perhaps more important, dialogue. Lastly, language can easily evaluate what it narrates, and pass judgements

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144 Ryan 2009: 270; see also Ryan 2006: 19, who writes that language can only with difficulty “represent spatial relations and induce the reader to create a precise cognitive map of the storyworld”, and that it cannot “show what characters of setting look like; display beauty (language can only tell the reader that a character is beautiful; the reader cannot judge for herself and must believe the narrator)”. Images, on the other hand, can easily “immerse spectator in space. Map storyworld. Represent visual appearance of characters and setting (…) Represent beauty”.


146 Although many pictures depict a disruptive event (which is often the pregnant moment). I return to this point below.

147 Cf. Herman 2009a: 96, who states that a narrative sequence of events “(...) traces paths taken by particularized individuals faced with decision points at one or more temporal junctures in a storyworld; those paths lead to consequences that take shape against a larger backdrop of consequences in which other possible paths might have eventuated, but did not” (emphasis mine; see further 1.4.2). See also Ryan 2006: 19: language can easily “represent the difference between actuality and virtuality or counterfactuality”.

148 Ryan 2009: 271: “[i]n language, we can express emotions and intents unambiguously (...). Language can dwell at length on the mental life of characters, on their considerations of multiple possible courses of actions, on their philosophy of life, on their hopes and fears, on their daydreams and fantasies, because mental life can be represented as a kind of inner discourse, structured in the same way as language. Cognitive science may tell us that not all thinking is verbal, but the translation of private thought into language is one of the most powerful and widespread narrative devices. Most importantly, only language can represent the
on characters. In short, representations in the verbal medium have the highest potential for the highest degree of narrativity. This also means that prototypical examples of narrative are usually verbal narrative representations.

Visual narratives have various degrees of narrativity. In order to achieve narrativity in the first place, “pictures must capture the temporal unfolding of a story through a static frame”. Different types of pictures do so in different ways. Following Wolf, it is useful to distinguish between (1) single pictures, and (2) picture series. Single pictures can be distinguished in (a) monophase and (b) polyphase, referring to a picture which contains one moment or phase from a story, or more than one moment or phase from a story. Picture series, for their part, can be further divided into in (a) mono-strand or (b) poly-strand, designating either a picture series containing only one story, or several stories – in other words, a series that is either focused on one main story, or on a main story and several secondary stories. Every type of picture has its own way of capturing the temporal unfolding of a story, and it on this temporal aspect that the following discussion will focus.

Pictures cannot explicitly create a sequence of events. Even in the case of a picture series – which may depict several events – it is the viewer who must make the

most common type of social interaction between intelligent agents, namely verbal exchanges, for the very simple reason that only language can represent language".

Ryan 2006: 19.


Ryan 2009: 272.

Wolf 2002: 55-6 and Wolf 2005b: 431. Wolf follows Varga 1990: 360-5. Monophase single pictures (1a) are also called monoscopic; polyphase single pictures (1b) also cyclical or continuous (see further Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 1-8 for an overview of these and related terms used in the field of classics).

Poly-strand picture series (2b) will not be discussed here, since they are only rarely found.

We should compare Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 14: “[i]f a narrative discourse is to take place, the single composition must be able to depict the actions or episodes in such a way that it logically refers back to earlier episodes, to describe the particulars of the present, and to indicate a direction that a narrative might take in the future. In other words, if it is to function effectively within a group or just as a single panel, a narrative image must be open-ended, leading forward, backward, or to other actions or stories, whether these appear in another picture or in the viewer’s memory”.

See e.g. Wolf 2002: 65 and the following discussion.
connections between the separate pictures. Thus, in the case of visual narrative the viewer must actively construct that narrative. Yet this narrative response to pictures is a natural one, and comes easily to human beings.157

A monophase single picture (1a) “presents the greatest narrative challenge because it must compress the entire narrative arc into a single scene”.158 As an example of a narrative monophase picture, one may think of Caravaggio’s *Judith Beheading Holofernes* (1598-9). In order to suggest change or temporality, monophase pictures may represent a frozen moment of a dynamic action.159 In the words of Lessing, “painting can (...) only represent a single moment of an action and must therefore select the most pregnant moment which best allows us to infer what has gone before and what follows”.160 The representation of a pregnant moment is an effective way of suggesting change and temporality, because it plays upon the tendency of humans to interpret narratively almost everything they see.161 This can be illustrated by an example furnished by Lessing, which concerns a statue group, not a picture. When looking at the *Laocoon* statue group which is now in the Vatican Museums, it is impossible not to interpret those three statues as representing a narrative.
A distinction must be made between monophase pictures that refer to well-known (verbal) stories, or those that do not. If a monophase picture contains a snapshot from a myth, the viewer who knows that myth will be able to supply what has happened before and what will come after. Such pictures do not, however, tell a new story, but are dependent on stories that are derived from, in most cases, the verbal medium. Ryan calls such monophase narrative pictures “illustrative”. It may seem that the narrativity of such illustrative monophase pictures is wholly dependent on something that lies outside these pictures – on stories in the verbal medium. Wolf, however, argues that such pictures may also possess genuinely pictorial means of creating narrativity.

What is more, even if one were unfamiliar with the story of Laocoon (either from Virgil’s *Aeneid* 2, or from another tradition), the statue group still contains elements which trigger a narrative response. In general, it can be observed that monophase pictures may tell stories with which the viewer is not previously acquainted. In such cases, the viewer uses his world knowledge to supplement the represented pregnant moment. The notion of script (introduced in section 1.4.2) is useful here: if a picture represents an action from a well-known script, that script will be activated and the viewer will thus be able to supplement the other actions of that script. However, if a
painting relies entirely on a familiar script for its interpretation, that painting would be low in narrativity. Of course, a picture may also represent a deviation from a script, but in order to understand that deviation the viewer still needs to be acquainted with the relevant script.

In polyphase single pictures (ib), “the narrative arc is much more determinate because it is plotted through several distinct scenes within the same global frame”. In such cases, a single picture represents one and the same character engaged in different actions. A recurrent subject triggers a narrative response: since a person cannot be in two places at the same time, the viewer assumes that different moments of time are represented. Often this interpretation is facilitated because the painter has separated different scenes by architectural features, as in Benozzo Gozzoli’s painting *The Dance of Salome and the Beheading of Saint John the Baptist* (1461-2). Nevertheless, the viewer must determine the order in which the events happen.

Another category should be added to account for what I regard as a variety of polyphase single pictures. A single picture may also represent several scenes within the same space, but without the repetition of characters. Scholars speaks of simultaneous

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68 Ryan 2009: 272, who continues: “[a] truly narrative image must depict one-of-a-kind events that cause a significant change of state for the participants: not baking bread but stealing a loaf; not hunting animals for food, but killing a dragon to save a princess; not making music as a group, but secretly fondling a fellow musician”.

69 Ryan 2009: 274.

70 See Steiner 1988: 17: “[f]or in reality a person cannot be in two places at the same time, and therefore if a figure appears more than once in a painting we automatically assume that it is shown at various distinct moments”. A. Steiner 2007: 94-128 studies how repetition not only of characters but also of props “plays a crucial role in many prominent systems that vase-painters use to tell stories” (ibid.: 94).

71 This painting also seems to be known as *The Feast of Herod and the Beheading of Saint John the Baptist* (now in the National Gallery of Art in Washington). It is discussed briefly by Chatman 1978: 34. Steiner 1988: 28-41 discusses its narrativity and concludes that “Benozzo’s painting fulfills in virtually every respect the requirements, not only of narrative, but of a strong narrative” (ibid.: 41).

72 Polyphase single pictures were rarely made after the Renaissance, because they are unrealistic. See further Steiner 1988: 23-8, briefly summarized by Wolf 2003: 190.
or synoptic narration. In the case of synoptic narration, a viewer detects certain contradictions in a picture which can only be resolved by assuming that the picture presents different moments of time.

A series of pictures (2) has the highest potential for narrativity. An example often referred to is *A Rake’s Progress* (1733) by William Hogarth. Picture series use the convention of reading spatial juxtaposition as an index of chronological sequence. This is a crucial narrative feature. Whereas in polyphase single pictures the order of the sequence of events must usually be determined by the viewer, a picture series can dictate this order. This, in turn, facilitates the inference of (causal) relations between the different pictures that make up the series. Hogarth’s picture series has, in fact, a high degree of narrativity. If we survey the degree of narrativity that visual narratives can *a priori* have, picture series (2) have the highest narrative potential (and come

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173 A. Steiner 2007: 95: “[a] ‘synoptic’ composition will not ordinarily rely on repetition, either, because it includes no repeated characters and compresses several moments into one space by the use of characters, props, or setting elements that are proleptic and/or analeptic”. See also Snodgrass 1982: 5-21.

174 However, as Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 3 indicates, sometimes one can only detect contradictions if one ceases to regard the picture as illustrative.

175 Ryan 2009: 274: “[i]t takes a series of pictures to tell a story that is both reasonably determinate and new to the reader”.

176 See on this series Wolf 2002: 58-70 and more briefly Ryan 2009: 274 (‘[n]arrative content is suggested on the level of the individual images by their reliance on familiar scripts, such as the gambling-house or the prison script, and on the global level by the recurrence of the same character (identified by constant visual features), as well as by the chronological sequence indicated by the spatial arrangement of the pictures”).

177 Wolf 2005b: 433: “(...) the picture series by far surpasses single pictures in its ability to represent an action that unfolds in time and points to preceding causes and future developments. The inference of causal relations is facilitated here by the Western convention of ‘reading’ individual as well as subsequent pictures from left to right”.

178 Wolf 2005b: 434 speaks of “the strong narrativity of *A Rake’s Progress*”. It should be noted, however, that “historical developments have made strongly narrative paintings extremely rare” (Steiner 1988: 9).
relatively close to prototypical narratives), followed by polyphase single pictures (1b); monophase single pictures (1a) come last.\textsuperscript{179}

Scholars working within the field of classics have investigated visual narrativity, too. Two scholars merit discussion here. Giuliani (2003) has investigated the differences between narrative and descriptive images in visual art. He works with the concept of narrativehood, which means that he regards an object as either narrative or not.\textsuperscript{180} He defines a narrative representation as follows:

\begin{quote}
Als narrativ werden wir eine Darstellung demnach \textit{dann und nur dann} bezeichnen, wenn in ihr handelnde Subjekte als Protagonisten auftreten und den Gang der Ereignisse bestimmen; die Ereignisfolge muß auf plausible Weise begrenzt sein durch eine Anfang und Ende; notwendiger Bestandteil des Anfanges ist ein Spannungsmoment, das die Handlung auslöst und am Laufen hält; zum Ende gehört umgekehrt die – glückliche oder unglückliche – Auflösung der Spannung.\textsuperscript{181}
\end{quote}

As an additional condition, Giuliani stipulates that the characters must not be anonymous, but nameable – the viewer must, for example, be able to recognise Heracles or Achilles.\textsuperscript{182} Giuliani has a very restricted view of what constitutes a narrative

\textsuperscript{179} Wolf 2005b: 434 states that “the limitations of the pictorial medium do not prevent it from realising various degrees of narrativity: it comes relatively close to typical narratives in picture series, some of which can be called genuinely narrative, while a single picture can at best be called indexically narrative”.
\textsuperscript{180} Giuliani 2003: 36: “[d]ie grundsätzliche Dichotomie der Darstellungsmodi wollen wir beibehalten: Eine Darstellung kann nicht anders, als entweder erzählend oder beschreibend zu verfahren”. However, as Wolf 2007: 45 has noted, Giuliani speaks of the overall effect of a picture, which can, according to Giuliani, only be either narrative or descriptive, on account of the occurrence of certain narrative elements. Giuliani 2003: 285 himself writes that an image cannot solely consist of narrative elements. Whereas an image can be wholly descriptive and non-narrative, it cannot be totally narrative without a certain amount of description: “[d]as Verhältnis zwischen narrativen und deskriptiven Bildern ist demnach ein asymmetrisches. Bilder können ganz und gar deskriptiv sein, aber den umgekehrten Fall eines ausschließlich narrativen Bildes gibt es nicht, kann es gar nicht geben. Auch narrative Bilder verweisen, noch bevor sie sich auf eine bestimmte Erzählung beziehen, auf die Welt: genauer, auf das, was wir von der Welt zu kennen glauben”.
\textsuperscript{181} Giuliani 2003: 35-6, emphasis mine.
\textsuperscript{182} Giuliani 2003: 54.
image. For Giuliani, only images that have a high degree of narrativity qualify as narrative.

That anonymous figures do not preclude a narrative interpretation was already stated by Stansbury-O’Donnell (1999). Stansbury-O’Donnell rightly notes that if one demands that the figures are known, “[i]n essence what is being done is to define pictorial narrative not on the basis of its ability to convey a sequence of actions to the viewer, but on the basis of the kind of story and figures that it represents.” It thus comes as no surprise that Stansbury-O’Donnell allows for degrees of narrativity. While discussing a particular amphora, he notes that:

(…) there is a measure of specificity and discreteness that contributes to the degree of the work’s narrativity. The elements of a narrative – specificity, discreteness, and wholeness (a more complete representation of a story with clear beginning, middle, and end) – are important, but they determine the quality of the narrative, not its existence.

The advantages of Stansbury-O’Donnell’s approach are evident. For example, Stansbury-O’Donnell makes a narrative interpretation of Geometric vases possible. Many Geometric vases represent anonymous figures engaged in actions, often in combat. In such cases, Stansbury-O’Donnell speaks of generic narrative. We may rephrase his remark and say that such narrative images rely on familiar scripts the viewer knows.

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183 Stansbury-O’Donnell approaches narrative through the structuralist paradigm of Roland Barthes, which he adapts for the interpretation of narrative images (for which see Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 13-6).
185 This approach is also approved of by A. Steiner 2007: 268, note 14, who writes that such an approach is “a more productive model for creating a taxonomy of stories told in vase-paintings than trying to develop a simple up-or-down test that will establish whether a particular image does or does not represent narrative”. However, she also states that nonspecific, generic events are not “proper narratives” even though they often link two events in a time sequence (ibid.: 96).
187 Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 48 (who is indebted to Snodgrass 1980: 51-2). For Giuliani, such images are descriptive.
I sum up. It is uncontested that visual images may possess narrativity. In comparison with verbal narratives, visual narratives must overcome a number of difficulties. The most important of these difficulties is the inability to create an explicit sequence of events. It is the viewer who must reconstruct this sequence. Thus, in comparison with verbal narrative, visual narrative requires a viewer that is much more active in teasing out the narrative content. Nevertheless, visual narrative images have various means at their disposal to steer the viewer towards a narrative interpretation. Some images do this so well that they are able to realise a high degree of narrativity.

1.4.4 Narration: Concluding Remarks
This study approaches narrative through the concept of narrativity. This means that I will not establish whether an object is a narrative, or is not. Rather, I want to investigate which prototypically narrative elements are present or absent in ekphraseis.

This section has established the prototypical elements of narrative that will be used throughout this study: (1) event sequencing, (2) world disruption, and (3) 'what-it's-like'. It has also investigated how these elements are realised by verbal and visual media. A major difference is the way in which verbal and visual media sequence events, explicitly versus implicitly. As we shall see, this distinction is of central importance for the understanding of ekphrasis.

1.5.1 Description: Introduction
Narratology, as the science of narrative, has mainly focused on narrativity, on the defining qualities of narrative. Elements which do not directly contribute to the narrativity of a story, such as description, have for a long time been little studied by narratologists.\textsuperscript{188} Passages of description were, and often still are, regarded as non-narrative (non-diegetic), because nothing happens while the narrator describes an object, character or landscape.\textsuperscript{189} Description is, furthermore, in comparison with narration a phenomenon that is harder to define and classify. Whereas narrative has been viewed as possessing a logic of its own – a sequence of events – description

\textsuperscript{188} See Wolf 2007: 3-4, and recently Fludernik [2006] 2009: 117: "[a]nother largely underexplored area in narratological research is description in novels (…)".\textsuperscript{189} Fludernik [2006] 2009: 117. This is the view of structuralist narratology, for which see table 1 in Bal 1982: 106-7 (under ‘narratology’).
seemed to possess no logic at all. This made description a difficult subject for structuralist narratology.

In this section, I will work towards a list of prototypical features of description. Just as one can speak of narrativity, one can also speak of descriptivity. Taking my cue from Herman’s definition of narrativity, I define descriptivity as ‘that which makes a description a description; a property that a text will have in greater proportion the more readily it lends itself to being interpreted as a description, i.e., the more prototypically descriptive it is’. It should be noted here straightaway that one and the same text can possess both narrativity and descriptivity at the same time. Whereas prototypical instances of description will possess zero narrativity, and prototypical instances of narrative will possess zero descriptivity, less clear examples of either category may possess properties belonging to both narration and description.

1.5.2 Description and Descriptivity

Before dealing with the prototypical features of description, the opposition between narration and description merits a brief discussion. Due to its non-diegetic nature, description has always been defined by scholars in opposition to narration.

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190 See e.g. Hamon 1982: 147, who writes that description “can be freely inserted into a narration”, “lacks any specific signs or marks”, and “is subject to no a priori constraints” (italics in the original), Lopes 1995: 5: “(…) descriptions prove to be far more pliable and versatile than narrations, since, unlike the latter, they are free from the constraints of logic and narrative grammar”, and Minchin 2001: 104 (who claims that “in our Western literary tradition, the descriptive genre is relatively unconstrained: it could be characterized by its lack of guiding principles or what we might call rules”).

191 In the words of Lopes 1995: 11-2: “one could conclude that structuralists (…) tended to focus almost exclusively on aspects of narration, discarding the descriptive elements that seemed to get in the way of storytelling” (emphasis mine).


193 Whereas ‘narrative’ is both a noun (a narrative) and an adjective, ‘descriptive’ is an adjective only (see also Wolf 2007: 9).

194 Cobley 1986: 396.
words, scholars were interested in description because it was non-narrative, not
because it was descriptive. The question is whether this opposition is warranted by
the reality of textual practices, or whether it is a theoretical construct, as Ronen has
argued: “[t]he theoretical distinction between description and narrative (...) appears
arbitrary and technical when applied to concrete examples. The descriptive is just a
variety of textual phenomena which are practically indistinguishable from narrative”.
However, there are several reasons for rejecting this position. Firstly, the verbs ‘to
narrate’ and ‘to describe’ refer to different activities – activities which people are able to
distinguish. Secondly, even though in some cases it may not be easy to decide
whether a concrete example is either descriptive or narrative, this does not mean that
the concepts are therefore invalid. By following a prototypical approach one may
account for hybrid examples. Thirdly, whereas in the verbal medium the opposition
between narration and description may sometimes present difficulties, it may cause
other media less problems. For example, a still life can easily be qualified as
descriptive, and non-narrative.

Cf. e.g. Genette [1969] 1982: 127-8: “[t]hat falsely naive question ‘why narrative?’ could at least
even though in some cases it may not be easy to decide
researcher, or more simply to recognize, what might be called the negative limits of
narrative, to consider the principle sets of oppositions through which narrative is defined, and
constitutes itself over against the various forms of the non-narrative”; the original runs as
follows: “[c]ette question faussement naïve: pourquoi le récit? – pourrait au moins nous inciter à
rechercher, ou plus simplement à reconnaître les limites en quelque sorte négatives du récit, à
considérer les principaux jeux d’oppositions à travers lesquels le récit se définit, se constitue en
face des diverses formes du non-récit” (Genette 1969: 49-50). Similarly Chatman 1990: 6: “I have
come to realize that Narrative, like most things, is best understood in contrast to what it is not”.
position, see Chatman 1990: 16).

As has been argued by Wolf 2007: 8-9.

Cf. Chatman 1990: 16: “[b]ut surely ‘to describe’ is different from ‘to narrate,’ and if we were
asked for the typical verb for representing Description [i.e. as text type], we would cite the
copula (or its equivalent) rather than a more active kind of verb. We would say that the subject
was so-and-so, not that it did so-and-so” (emphasis in the original). In fact, as Wolf 2007: 9 has
argued, Ronen herself has a notion of what description is, because she uses the concept
throughout her article, and discusses it in comparison to narrative.

From a transmedial point of view, the usefulness of the distinction ‘narrative
vs. descriptive’ presents much fewer problems: thus, for instance, home-videos representing
Definitions of description are still in a tentative phase. Scholars have noted that whereas descriptions are easily recognised, they are hard to define: "[a] reader recognizes and identifies a description without hesitation: it stands out against the narrative background, the story 'comes to a standstill' (...). Nevertheless, the reader is not able to define it as a specific unit, using precise formal and/or functional criteria (...)." Hence, sometimes scholars provide no explicit definition of description, even though they study description extensively. According to Dennerlein, this is due to the fact that these scholars have an implicit conception (implizite Vorstellung) of what description entails, namely the furnishing of information (Informationsvergabe) regarding elements of the storyworld. It can indeed be said that providing information about the storyworld is one of the most important functions of description. It often causes the story to come "to a standstill". These two elements – providing information, and the halting of the story – play a major role in almost every discussion of description.

Structuralists regard the halting of the story as the defining criterion of description vis-à-vis narration. Genette, for example, writes that "narration is concerned with actions or events considered as pure processes, and by that very fact stresses the temporal, dramatic aspect of the narrative; description, on the other hand, because it lingers on objects and beings considered in their simultaneity (...) seems to suspend the landscapes (...) can clearly be classified as descriptive and at the same time as non-narrative (...)".

Nünning 2007: 124 approvingly quotes Cobley 1986: 395, who writes that "[discussions of description are still in a tentative phase, and no exhaustive or completely satisfactory theory has been advanced". For existing states of the art, see Bal 1982: 100-5, Lopes 1995: 8-19, Mayr 2001: 13-29, Kullmann 2004: 1-18, and Dennerlein 2009: 136-40. The work of the French scholar Hamon has been very influential; see his Introduction à l’Analyse du Descriptif (1981, the third edition is called Du Descriptif (1993); the first chapter of the first edition has been translated into English, for which see Hamon 1981). An earlier article ("Qu’est-ce qu’une Description?", Hamon 1972) has also been translated into English (Hamon 1982). For some shortcomings in Hamon’s theory, see Mayr 2001: 40-1 and Kullmann 2004: 20-2. For modern narratological research, the most important study is Wolf 2007, who defines description from an intermedial point of view (for a brief overview of which see Wolf 2008: 199-206).

Hamon 1982: 147. For the idea that descriptions are easily recognised, see also Bal 1982: 100, Nünning 2007: 91, and Dennerlein 2009: 134.


course of time (…)

Chatman uses precisely this criterion to distinguish narration from description: narrative is "chrono-logic", because it entails advancement in time on both the fabula and the story level. In other words, when a narrator narrates, both story time and fabula time advance. When the narrator describes a character or object, however, nothing happens on the level of the fabula, and hence only story time advances. This leads to what narratologists call a pause. Description, then, interrupts the sequence of events that is typical of narrative.

This formal criterion seems useful, but even structuralist narratologists have found it insufficient. They also designate passages as descriptive that do feature a sequence of events, that are chrono-logic, and that do thus not constitute a pause. Scholars have come up with various, though unsatisfactory, solutions to this problem. Chatman introduces the notion of function. For example, when the Homeric narrator relates how Agamemnon dresses for battle (Il. 11.15-46), Chatman notes that "this mini-narrative, the process of dressing, works at the service of [i.e. functions as] the description of Agamemnon’s armor". Why its function is descriptive, however, is nowhere defined.

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207 This is often the view of classical scholars, too. See e.g. Thiel 1993: 12 (“Die Handlung stockt”; Thiel follows Heinze 1915: 396, on whom see further Paschalis 2002: 133) and Tietze Larson 1994: 14.


209 Chatman 1990: 33. For the notion of function, see ibid.: 10-11. I discuss this passage in section 2.4.

210 In my opinion, the notion of a descriptive function is a doubtful criterion for descriptivity, unless one defines clearly (1) what one understands a descriptive function to mean, and more
It would seem that the mere fact that a passage deals with a physical object leads critics to label that passage as descriptive, even if that passage features a sequence of events. In a similar vein, Hamon argues that narrators do not want to interrupt the flow of the fabula. Therefore, they will disguise or naturalise a description by integrating it into the fabula, either by having a character look at an object, speak of an object, or act on an object. The description thereby becomes diegetic and the narrator avoids creating a pause.

Any definition of description, however, that is only based on the content of the text, and not on the properties of the text itself, is problematic. As Wolf has argued, this is due to the fact that description is much more content-indifferent than narrative. In order for a text to possess narrativity, at least one character is required who is involved in an event. If a text is to qualify as descriptive, no specific subject is required: although description prototypically features objects, characters, or places, it may also feature events. In the words of Wolf, description “seems to be much less a matter of content

importantly, (2) the consequences of this descriptive function for the internal or structural organization of a text. Otherwise, we are bound to vague statements such as “(…) it is easily possible to identify a passage according to its predominantly narrative or descriptive function” (Cobley 1986: 398, emphasis mine). Schmid [2003] 2010: 5, who also works with the notion of a descriptive function, at least acknowledges that it is a matter of interpretation.

Hamon 1982: 149-56. In the words of Ronen 1997: 278-9: “[t]hat is, since description is opposed to narrative both historically and theoretically, it follows that as a textual type it should also be thus distinguished. Yet in order to show how the opposition works on the textual level, Hamon, somewhat paradoxically, surveys ways by which authors dissimulate descriptions by integrating them into the narrative. (…) why does Hamon hold to the opposition when it can only be sustained when formal or semi-formal indicators are interpreted as efficient disguises of the presence of descriptions in the narrative body?”.

Wolf 2007: 28, following Bal 1982: 101: “[t]he most important objection is that the criteria are based on a classification of the objects of the text and not on the texts themselves”.

This, in turn, follows from the fact that narrative is much more complex than description: “[a] further major difference between narrativity and descriptivity emerges from this consideration: stories depend on the combination of certain constitutive content elements, and narrative is therefore a complex frame; there is no narrativity without at least one character, nor without events and at least an implied spatial and temporal setting. Description, on the contrary, is a less complex frame, as it can use each of these constitutive ‘building blocks’ of narratives individually: settings, the physiognomies of characters, and details of actions and happenings –
than a matter of presentation and transmission, in narratological terms: a matter of
discursivation". Before investigating the typical presentation of descriptions, two
other issues must first be addressed that are indispensable for a correct understanding
of description, viz. the functions of descriptions, and the prototypical content of
description.

Wolf distinguishes three basic functions of description in literature and other
media. The first function is the referential function, which means that descriptions
refer to phenomena and permit their identification. Description may either refer to
phenomena in the real world, but may also construct fictitious ones. Both tasks are
achieved by attributing qualities to these phenomena so that they can be identified or
imagined. The second function is the representational and experiential function:
descriptions provide representations so that a phenomenon may be imaged or
experienced. Put differently, descriptions vividly represent phenomena which may lead
to experientiality. The third function of description is the pseudo-objectivizing and
interpretive function: first, descriptions create an aura of objectivity – what Barthes has
called the reality effect (effet de réel). In other words, descriptions help to suggest that
the storyworld of a narrative is real. Second, descriptions contribute to the construction
of meaning of a text, i.e. they guide the interpretation of a text as a whole.

all of these can in fact become in fact objects of a description" (Wolf 2007: 28, emphasis in the
original).

Wolf 2007: 28, who speaks however of descriptiveness, whereas I speak of description.


We may compare the definition of description in the Routledge Encyclopedia of Narrative
Theory: "[d]escription is a text-type which identifies the properties of places, objects, or persons
(...)" (Pflugmacher 2005: 101); Herman 2009a: 90 expands Pflugmacher’s definition and states
that "representations and discourses that are central instances of this text-type category [i.e.
description] entail the ascription of properties to entities within a mental model of the world
(...)".

Wolf 2007: 16 compares the rhetorical notions of enargeia and energeia. This function of
description is similar to that of ekphrasis in its antique sense (for which see section 1.2 above).
Furthermore, it is in its focus on the appearance and quality of a phenomenon that description
differs from explanation (Wolf 2007: 15). It should further be noted that for some scholars
experientiality is central to narrativity (see e.g. Fludernik, discussed in note 128 above).

Barthes 1968: 88, and passim; for a translation of this article, see Barthes [1968] 2006.

Wolf 2007: 17 refers to Rifaterre 1981: 125, who argues that the primary purpose of description
is "to dictate an interpretation".
Wolf next discusses the prototypical contents or objects of descriptions. First, objects in descriptions can be real or fictional. Second, descriptions – just like narratives – focus on concrete phenomena rather than on abstract notions. Third, prototypically a description deals with objects, characters, and places, elements which are spatial and static. Wolf speaks of existential phenomena. Narrative, on the other hand, focuses on events, which are temporal and dynamic. However, as has been indicated above, this distinction only works in prototypical cases of description and narration. In the case of a passage which features a sequence of events, it is the presence or absence of other prototypical elements of narrative which determine whether such a sequence is perceived as narrative or descriptive. On this point, Wolf’s ideas are similar to those of Herman. Wolf notes that the typical suggestion of narrative is that “something happened because of something else and led to a certain end”, but the typical suggestion of description is simply that “something is there and like that”. Lastly, the prototypically sensory quality of objects in descriptions is visual, rather than acoustic, olfactory, or tactile. As far as the prototypical content of description is concerned, it can be concluded that “there is a tendency (but no more than that) to privilege certain objects of description as typical, namely concrete, static and spatial objects of outer reality that can be visualized (...).”

It has been argued above that description is more content-indifferent than narrative. As theoretically anything can become the object of a description, the way a

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221 Wolf 2007: 23 has based this distinction on Chatman’s distinction between static existents (characters and setting) and dynamic events (actions and happenings), for which see Chatman 1978: 19.
222 This is emphasized by Wolf 2007: 23: “[s]tatic, spatial existents as the ‘proper stuff of description’ is at best a formula to account for the most frequent and to that extent prototypical cases in some media, in particular literature (where narrative is an alternative frame that covers most of [the] dynamic, temporal events) and the pictorial medium (whose static signifiers unfolding in space rather than in time privilege static, spatial existents as their signifieds and referents)” (emphasis in the original).
223 Wolf 2007: 24 characterizes the core elements of typical narratives as follows: “motivated actions that involve anthropomorphic agents, [which] are interrelated not only by chronology but also by causality and teleology and lead to, or are consequences of, conscious acts or decisions, frequently as results of conflicts”. See for Herman’s views section 1.4.2 above.
224 Wolf 2007: 34.
225 Wolf 2007: 27.
given object is presented in a text is of great importance to establish whether that text possesses descriptivity. What remains to be investigated, then, is the manner of presentation or discursivation typical for description. According to Wolf, it is the emphasis on sensory appearances and impressions in the qualities attributed to the objects of description – a focus on the surface of these objects – that is the most typical mode of descriptive presentation. The emphasis on surface appearances – on what something looks like – contributes strongly to the descriptivity of a passage.

Whether this typical mode of descriptive presentation also allows for the formulation of formal criteria by which a descriptive passage can be identified is difficult to decide. Description does not seem to have a single, specific mode of internal organization. Nevertheless, prototypical examples of description do share a number of formal features. Wolf notes that the principal semantic operation of description is attribution, and that thus “any representation in which linking qualities to objects is dominant and, for instance, more important than constructing objects as agents or patients of action, should qualify as description.” Wolf also notes that on account of the representational and experiential function of description, descriptive passages may contain many details that seem superfluous from the perspective of narrative relevance. Furthermore, details in a description belong more or less to the

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227 That description is mainly concerned with surfaces is adapted by Wolf 2007: 24-5 from Kittay 1981: 228, and passim. See for further discussion Chatman 1990: 31-2.
228 Wolf 2007: 29: “[o]ne of the most difficult questions concerning the discursive transmission of descriptions refers to the possibility of identifying a descriptive discourse or representation formally, owing in particular to specific modes of internal organization” (emphasis in the original).
229 Wolf 2007: 29, following Bal [1985] 1997: 36, who defines a description as “a textual fragment in which features are attributed to objects”.
230 Wolf 2007: 29-30; these details are superfluous or irrelevant in that they do not contribute to the advancement of the action. Nünning 2007: 99 distinguishes between descriptions that contain a multitude of details, and those that do not: “[t]he type designated as bottom-up, data-driven description is characterized by a plenitude of details and descriptive elements about the object in question. By contrast, top-down, frame-driven descriptions rely much more heavily on the metonymic logic of descriptive systems and contextual frames, merely cueing readers to activate the appropriate contextual frames by providing only so much information about the phenomenon in question as to enable readers to identify the respective real-life object” (emphasis mine).
same semantic class, and can thus be characterised as predictable. For instance, when the narrator starts to describe a house, the narratee expects this house to have a door, a roof, windows, etc. Following Hamon, we may say that descriptions obey the law of lexical predictability.

Since descriptions obey the law of lexical predictability, it follows that in prototypical cases descriptions are free from the constraints of narrative logic. Descriptive passages prototypically lack the ‘chronology’ of narrative – they are non-diegetic – and must therefore be organized differently. Structuralists speak of a paradigmatic, i.e. a vertical and hierarchical organization, as opposed to the syntagmatic, i.e. the horizontal and nonhierarchical organization of narrative. This means that descriptions contain themes and subthemes (e.g. a house, and doors and windows), and attribute various qualities to these themes (e.g. the house was red, the door had a brass doorknob).

231 In cognitive terms, as soon as the narrator mentions a house, the frame ‘house’ is activated; this frame contains all the elements which one associates with a house (see further section 1.4.2 above).
232 This in contrast to the logical predictability of narrative; for this distinction see Hamon 1982: 158-9. Bal 1982: 104 summarizes Hamon’s point as follows: “[b]y lexical predictability, Hamon means that description consists of an enumeration of the components of the object described. In principle, this enumeration is exhaustive, and it is complete when the lexicon is exhausted. For example, the description of a character would be finished after all the parts of the human body had been enumerated”.
233 In narrative texts, both the fabula and the story advance temporally; there is thus an iconic or natural correspondence between both levels. In descriptive texts, only the story advances temporally, because an object has no temporal dimension. An object imposes no natural or inherent order on its verbal representation on the level of the story (Cobley 1986: 398-9; we may confer Levelt’s linearization problem quoted in note 38 above). In the words of Sternberg 1981: 61: “[w]hat distinguishes verbal or nonpictorial description is thus the asymmetry between the spatiality of its object and the temporality of its presentation (...) Not that description must be disordered, but that its linear progress is intrinsically unordered” (emphasis mine). For a brief overview of the various possible organizational principles of description, see Wolf 2007: 52-4.
234 Wolf 2007: 30-1.
235 Pflugmacher 2005: 101. Scholars sometimes characterise the relation between these various descriptive elements (i.e. between themes and subthemes) as metonymic (see ibid., and Chatman 1990: 24).
1.5.3 Description and Descriptivity: Concluding Remarks

Descriptivity is a phenomenon that is harder to characterise than narrativity. Nevertheless, by starting from the functions of descriptions within a larger narrative text, a number of prototypical elements have been formulated.236 The presence of these elements increases the descriptivity of a passage. If we were to isolate one essential function of description, we might say that description provides an idea of what the storyworld looks like. Thus, description focuses prototypically on the concrete elements of a storyworld – on its characters, objects, and places. Put differently, description deals with existential phenomena, especially with spatial and static ones; important, too, is that these objects can be visualized.

Descriptivity is, however, not so much a matter of content, as it is a matter of presentation. The typical mode of descriptive presentation consists of an emphasis on sensory appearances and impressions – in other words, of an emphasis on what the elements of a storyworld look like. In order to create an image of the storyworld, a description links qualities to these elements. Thus, the principal semantic operation of description is attribution. Seeing that many qualities can be attributed to objects, descriptions often contain many details. As for the internal organization of descriptions, this can be qualified as paradigmatic. Prototypically, descriptions constitute a pause, which means that a descriptive passage must be structured differently than a narrative one: whereas a narrative passage consists of a sequence of events, a description consists of a number of themes and subthemes. One event follows after another – a syntagmatic, horizontal organization – but the themes and subthemes of a description are usually organized hierarchically – a paradigmatic, vertical organization.

1.5.4 Verbal and Visual Description237

It may seem obvious that description is most easily realised by the visual medium.238 Lessing, indeed, characterised painting as an essentially descriptive medium; thus, a

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236 For a summary, see Wolf 2007: 32. He also offers "a tentative definition of description" (ibid.: 34-5).
237 The descriptive potential of pictures, narrative fiction, and music (corresponding to the three major media families) is discussed by Wolf 2007: 37-76, on which the overview in this section is based.
238 Cf. 1.4.3 above. In the following discussion, I refer only to static visual images, such as paintings.
discussion of visual description seems gratuitous. Nevertheless, some brief reflections on this issue are warranted. To start with, pictures do, strictly speaking, not describe but only depict.\textsuperscript{239} However, since paintings share many features with verbal description, it seems justified to use the term description in the case of visual representations, too.

At first sight, it would seem that painting has the highest potential for descriptivity on account of the semiotic nature of pictorial signs. Figurative paintings typically consist of iconic visual signs that are usually referential. These signs are, in addition, static. Seeing that descriptions prototypically deal with static and spatial objects, which usually appeal to the sight of vision, it comes as no surprise that painting appears to have the highest descriptive potential. In addition, “the iconic quality of the overwhelming majority of pictorial signs with their reference to form and colour seems to create a natural closeness to a maximum of possible objects” – i.e. of static and spatial objects.\textsuperscript{240} In fact, when looking at a picture, one may imagine to see reality itself rather than a representation of reality.\textsuperscript{241} As a consequence, it seems that the pictorial medium requires little effort from the viewer to perceive the depicted objects, since the viewer can experience these objects in a way that is much closer to real-life perception than in verbal media.\textsuperscript{242}

However, the fact that painting is a spatial, visual medium also limits the range of objects it can describe.\textsuperscript{243} Any object that is not visual, spatial, or that is in movement, can be depicted only with difficulty. Paintings cannot describe emotions, language or other acoustic phenomena. When it comes to describing these phenomena, the verbal medium is superior. Although the nature of the verbal medium (temporal and dynamic; non-iconic but symbolic) makes it less suited to describe concrete spatial and visual phenomena, it has an advantage over the pictorial medium in its greater referential flexibility. In the words of Wolf, “there is in fact hardly a conceivable phenomenon that cannot be referred to in language, and there are virtually no concrete objects, including artefacts and works of art, that cannot be described to some extent with words”.\textsuperscript{244} In conclusion, we may say that the pictorial medium excels in describing visual

\textsuperscript{240} Wolf 2007: 39.
\textsuperscript{241} Wolf 2007: 39 refers to Walton 1990: 301.
\textsuperscript{242} Wolf 2007: 39, who speaks of “only a relatively low degree of recipients’ share in the concretization of depicted objects” (emphasis in the original).
\textsuperscript{243} Wolf 2007: 42.
\textsuperscript{244} Wolf 2007: 49.
phenomena that are spatial and static – i.e. painting has a specific area of descriptive strength or excellence. However, the potential objects of verbal description are theoretically unlimited – i.e. the verbal media have a greater scope of describable phenomena.\textsuperscript{245}

1.6 Ekphrasis, Narration, and Description: Conclusion
In this chapter, I have used modern narratological theory to come to an understanding of ekphrasis, narration and description. Ekphrasis in the narrow sense, as the verbal representation of visual representation, is doubly mimetic: it represents in words something which itself also represents something. An ekphrastic text thus embodies two layers of representation, of a different kind: a primary, textual layer and a secondary, visual layer. This study aims at investigating the way an object with a narrative on it is represented in a text. Scholars often assume that in an ekphrasis the narrator describes such an object, but others see ekphrasis as narration.

This study will not establish whether ekphrasis is narration or description, but rather aims at identifying elements in an ekphrasis that are prototypically associated with narration and that are prototypically associated with description. The prototypical elements of narration and description that will be used throughout this study are summarised in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prototypical features of NARRATION</th>
<th>Prototypical features of DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- event sequencing</td>
<td>- attribution of qualities to persons, objects, or places (existential phenomena)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- world disruption</td>
<td>- a multiplicity of details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ‘what-it’s-like’</td>
<td>- focus on sensory appearances and impressions (surfaces)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textit{Table 1.2: Prototypical Features of Narration and Description}

\textsuperscript{245} I borrow the terms ‘scope of describable phenomena’ and ‘specific areas of descriptive strength or excellence’ from Wolf 2007: 76. In his conclusion, Wolf 2007: 77 notes that “(...) we ought perhaps to (...) attribute the maximum of descriptive capability not to the pictorial medium but to the verbal one”. At the same time, however, Wolf emphasizes that “the undoubted representational faculty of the pictorial medium with its static visual signifiers is best employed when depicting static spatial objects. This is a field in which verbal literature cannot compete with pictures” (ibid.); see further figure 2 in Wolf 2007: 78.
By following a prototype approach, one may allow for hybrid forms: an ekphrasis may contain prototypical narrative elements and at the same time prototypical descriptive elements. This seems to be the most fruitful approach to tackle the problem of ekphrasis, since it allows for its extraordinary nature – ekphraseis being passages which deal with objects (prototypically associated with description) on which a narrative representation (prototypically associated with narration) is depicted.

In the following chapter, I will draw up a model for the analysis of ekphrastic passages, based on the prototypical elements of description and narration. The chapter also establishes the corpus of ekphraseis for this study.
2. Methodology, Test Cases, and Corpus

2.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, a number of elements have been established that are prototypical for narration and description. In this chapter, I will use these elements to draw up a model for the analysis of ekphrasis (section 2.2). Before I turn to the analysis of my corpus of ekphraseis, I will first test the validity of my model by applying it to two smaller passages: the harbour of Phorcys and the Cave of the Nymphs (Od. 13.96-112) and Agamemnon’s arming scene (Il. 11.15-46). The first passage (section 2.3) has been chosen because it is regarded as a prototypical example of a description. I thus expect that it contains prototypically descriptive features. Agamemnon’s arming scene (section 2.4) has been called both narrative and descriptive, on account of which I expect that it contains both prototypically narrative and descriptive features. After a conclusion (section 2.5), this chapter discusses the selection of the corpus of ekphraseis (section 2.6).

2.2.1 A Model for Analysis: Introduction

In this section, I want to discuss the way in which the prototypical elements of description and narration can be studied in relation to ekphrastic passages. As has been argued in the previous chapter, an ekphrastic text contains two levels of representation. We have a text which represents an image; the image, in turn, also represents something. In the ekphraseis of this study, almost all images represent figures engaged in actions – in other words, the images represent some kind of narrative.

The relation between text and image in ekphrasis is complex. All we have is the text: the narratees “see” the image only through the text. Furthermore, the text may refer to different aspects of the image: the narrator may focus on the actions that are represented by the image, on what the figures look like, and on the materials of which they are made. The narrator may also add elements that are not depicted, but which are evoked by the image. Notwithstanding the complex relation between text and image, I distinguish between the two levels of representation for methodological purposes. Throughout this study, I use the terms as follows. The text, rather obviously, is made up out of words. The image, on the other hand, consist of what the narratee is invited to imagine on the basis of the verbal clues in the text. Under the notion of image, I will not

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1 See further section 1.3.1.
only discuss what is represented by the image, but also those elements that are evoked by the image.

I will start my analyses with a discourse linguistic analysis of the text. Such a formal analysis helps to uncover whether some of the prototypical elements of description and narration are present. Seeing that in the ekphraseis of this study the narrator deals with objects, a priori one would expect the text to be organized descriptively: fabula time has stopped, and the narrator focuses on what is depicted in the images on the object. On the other hand, the images represent some kind of narrative, so it could also be the case that the text features a sequence of events. In this case, the text contains the first basic element of narrative, event sequencing, and thus has a narrative organization. After this formal linguistic analysis, I further investigate which prototypical features of description are found: the presence of descriptive details, and a focus on sensory appearances.

I next turn to the image. Since the corpus of this study consists of ekphraseis with narrative images, the main question is which of the three basic elements of narrative – event sequencing, world disruption, and ‘what-it’s-like’ – are represented by the image. The results of my formal linguistic analysis serve as a starting point: if the text is organized descriptively, how is it possible that the image is narrative? On the other hand, if the text contains a sequence of events, does this mean that the image necessarily represents a sequence of events, too? It could also be the case that this sequence of events is merely evoked by the image. Of central concern, thus, will be the issue of what is depicted in the image and what is evoked.

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1 The need for linguistic tools in narratological research has recently been expressed by Grethelein 2012, who wonders ‘if the presentation of space in narrative can be adequately explored without linguistic tools’. This remark seems to apply particularly to description, in which narrators usually present spatial elements. In section 2.2.2 below, I explain how a discourse linguistic analysis works.
2 See for these elements sections 1.4.2 (on narration) and 1.5.2 (on description).
3 Other forms of textual organization may also occur in ekphrastic passages, for which see sections 1.3.1 and 5.3.2.
4 See the discussion of ‘time in ekphrasis’ in section 1.3.2.
5 As may be noted, the prototypical elements of description will mainly be investigated in relation to the text, whereas the prototypical elements of narration will mainly be dealt with in relation to the image. There are various reasons for this. First, it would seem that the narrativity lies in the image: the text does not refer to events that are happening in the primary storyworld, but to events that are depicted on an object of that storyworld. Second, it is the narrative
2.2.2 A Model for Analysis: The Discourse Modes

In this section, I will introduce the discourse linguistic framework that will be used throughout this study. I will make use of a framework devised by Rutger Allan for the linguistic analysis of the discourse modes in Greek narrative texts. As has been discussed in the previous chapter, narrative texts are not monolithic, but are made up out of different elements, such as narration or description. The idea behind the theory of the discourse modes is that these different elements are characterized by a recurring set of formal linguistic properties. The level of analysis is that of the passage.

Allan distinguishes four discourse modes, the displaced diegetic, the immediate diegetic, the descriptive, and the discursive discourse mode. For the purposes of this features of the image that require investigation, because the visual medium can be characterised as an essentially descriptive medium (see section 1.5.4 and cf. Wolf 2007: 44: “it is not so much the frame ‘description’ that requires marking in pictures, as it seems to be the default option in this medium anyway (at least as long as it is used as a representational medium), but rather the exceptional frame narrative”).

7 Allan 2007, 2009, and 2013 (where see for further bibliography). It should be noted that Allan speaks of narrative modes. See also (for Greek) Bakker 1997; and (for Latin) Kroon 2000, 2002, 2007; Adema 2007 and 2008. Adema speaks of discourse modes. I use this term to avoid confusion between narration and narrative mode.

8 See section 1.4.2.

9 Smith 2003: 7 writes that “[t]here are intuitive differences between the passages of a discourse. People recognize passages of several kinds, namely Narrative, Description, Report, Information, and Argument. The intuitions are linguistically based: the passages have a particular force and make different contributions to a text. They can be identified by characteristic clusters of linguistic features”. On this point, linguists seem to agree with narratologists. For instance, Bal [1985] 1997: 8 writes that “[i]t is (…) possible to examine what is said in a text, and to classify it as narrative, descriptive, or argumentative” (emphasis in the original).

10 Within narratological research, the need to distinguish description and narration at the level of the passage (and not, for example, at the sentence level) has been stressed by Chatman 1990: 16, Lopes 1995: 20-1, and Herman 2009: 91.

11 Allan 2009: 172, and passim. The discourse modes are also known as narrative modes; the various discourse modes, too, may have different names (for further terminological clarification see Allan 2009: 173, note 7). The discourse modes have been compared to text types. Thus, Smith 2003: 2 writes that “[t]he Modes correspond to ‘text types’ which have been recognized as important in discourse but not analyzed before (…) in terms of their linguistic properties”. Herman 2009: 75-104 also approaches narrative and description as text types. For text types and
study, I do not need the distinction between a displaced and immediate diegetic discourse mode, and I will therefore simply speak of the diegetic discourse mode. The discursive discourse mode is relatively scarce in the ekphraseis of this study, and will not be discussed here. We are thus left with the diegetic discourse mode, the default mode in which stories are told, and the descriptive discourse mode, the default mode to describe the storyworld. In the following, I present only those features of the discourse modes that are relevant for my argument.

The distinctive linguistic feature of the discourse modes is the use of tense and aspect. This comes as no surprise: tense and aspect are linguistic means by which time is expressed in a text, and time is central to any definition of narrativity – without time, there would be no narrativity at all. As stated above, prototypical instances of narration feature a sequence of events, whereas descriptions do not. It is this difference in temporality on which the distinction between the diegetic discourse mode and the descriptive discourse mode is based.

The diegetic discourse mode presents a sequence of events and states. The text is structured temporally: both fabula time and story time advance. This means that the text advances temporally: the text progresses as narrative time advances. Temporal adverbs are found in the diegetic discourse mode, too.

The tenses found in the diegetic discourse mode are aorists, imperfects, and historical presents. In a discourse mode analysis, only tenses in main clauses are taken

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Allan 2009: 174 distinguishes two subtypes of the diegetic discourse mode to account for different tenses: past tenses (displaced) and historical presents (immediate).

The discursive discourse mode occurs only in two ekphraseis of this study (for which see sections 5.3.2 and 6.2.2). Its linguistic features are discussed in section 5.3.2.

Allan 2009: 172: “[i]t will be shown that tense-aspect-marking is the most important distinctive linguistic feature of the narrative modes”; see also ibid.: 175, note 15.

See also de Jong 2007: 1, and especially Fludernik 2012: 76-8.

For the terms fabula and story, see section 1.5.2.

Allan 2009: 173, following Smith 2003: 14: “[t]he text progresses as narrative time advances. This advancement is based on sequence: we interpret the events of narrative as occurring in sequence, one after another”.

In the diegetic and the descriptive discourse modes, only tenses in the indicative mood are found. The tenses here listed assume that all narration is subsequent (see Genette [1972] 1980: 217), i.e. that the narration takes places after the events.
into consideration. An aorist characterises an event as completed; an imperfect characterises an event as not-completed (ongoing). Thus, a sequence of events is typically expressed by aorists; background information (i.e. ongoing events or states) is expressed by imperfects. Historic presents are also found in the diegetic discourse mode. These do not, however, occur in the corpus of this study. In short, the presence of aorists in a given passage is a strong indication of a sequence of events. This means that such a passage contains the diegetic discourse mode.

In the descriptive discourse mode time is static. When the narrator describes, for example, an object, only story time advances; fabula time comes to a halt. Instead, the text progresses spatially. Consequently, spatial adverbs are often found.

Descriptions typically begin with an explicit denomination of the (main) theme which will be described (e.g. "a house") and an indication of the location of this theme. Theme and location function as a framework for the subsequent description. The description itself consists of an enumeration of the subthemes (e.g. "a wall" or "a door") of the (main) theme. Of both theme and subthemes of a description, either a property (in linguistic terms, a state) may be described (e.g. "the house was red") or an ongoing activity (e.g. "the house was shaking"). It should be noted that descriptions typically have a hierarchal, tree-like structure, in that a subtheme may itself have subthemes, too. In such cases, the subtheme is also a main theme vis-à-vis its subthemes.

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19 This is due to the fact that main clauses determine the temporal structure of a text: subordinate clauses depend on the main clause for their temporal point of reference.

20 Rijksharson [1984] 2002: 11. A state may also be expressed by a perfect or pluperfect (see ibid.: 35-8).

21 A sequence of events cannot consist of ongoing events only (see Smith 2003: 26).

22 Cf. Allan 2013: 374: "aorists (...) advance the event sequence, while imperfects or pluperfects (...) specify states and activities that accompany the sequence of actions". For a discussion of the imperfect in relation to narrativity, see Rijnsharson 2012: 341-52.

23 For the historic present, see Rijksharson [1984] 2002: 22-4 and 2011: 4-10.

24 See also Wolf 2007: 31.

25 For the notion of theme and subtheme, see more extensively Hamon 1982: 149, 159-60 and Hamon [1981] 1993: 127-63.

26 Allan 2009: 179. The theme of a description will activate its accompanying frame (for the term frame see 1.4.2). For example, when confronted with the theme “house”, the frame “house” is activated, and the narratee will naturally assume the house has a door, walls, a roof, etc. In other words, the theme of a description activates the world knowledge of the narratee.

27 Allan 2009: 179.
The tense typically found in the descriptive discourse mode is the imperfect, which either designates a state or an ongoing event. Other tenses may also occur. If the description concerns habits and properties that still hold at the time of narrating, the present is also found.28 Such present tenses are called habitual or omnitemporal.29 The perfect or pluperfect, which locates a state resulting from the completion of the preceding state of affairs in the present or in the past, is also found.30 In sum, a passage in which imperfects occur, perfects/pluperfects or habitual/omnitemporal presents is in the descriptive discourse mode.

The following table illustrates the prototypical linguistic features of the diegetic and the descriptive discourse modes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diegetic Discourse Mode</th>
<th>Descriptive Discourse Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>textual progression</td>
<td>spatial, enumerative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(theme(s) and subtheme(s))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenses</td>
<td>imperfects, pluperfects;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>perfects, habitual/omnitemporal presents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverbs</td>
<td>temporal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>spatial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2.1: Linguistic Features of the Diegetic and Descriptive Discourse Modes*

As stated above, the distinctive linguistic feature of the discourse modes is the use of tense and aspect.31 The aorist plays a key role: it is present in the diegetic discourse mode, and absent from the descriptive discourse mode.

2.3.1 The Harbour of Phorcys and the Cave of the Nymphs (*Od. 13.96-112*):

**Introduction**

The passage dealing with the harbour of Phorcys and the cave of the Nymphs is generally regarded as a description.32 Set-piece or block descriptions – passages in

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31 For further properties of the discourse modes see the overviews in Allan 2009: 187 and 2013: 389.
which a character or landscape is extensively described, which usually results in a pause — do not occur in the *Iliad*. The *Odyssey*, on the other hand, does contain a number of readily identifiable descriptive passages. I single out, among others, Calypso’s cave (*Od. 5.63-75*, focalized by Hermes), Goat Island (*Od. 9.116-41*, described by Odysseus to the Phaeacians), and what is perhaps the largest description in the *Odyssey*, the palace and garden of Alcinous (*Od. 7.81-135*, focalized partly by Odysseus and partly by the narrator). For this section, I have chosen the Harbour of Phorcys and the Cave of the Nymphs in *Od. 13.96-112*. This passage has been selected since it is one of the few descriptions which are focalized by the narrator.

In book 13, Odysseus departs from Scheria, the island of the Phaeacians, and finally arrives in Ithaca. After having said farewell to the Phaeacians (36-63), Odysseus embarks and falls asleep on the Phaeacians’ ship (64-92). The ship approaches Ithaca and lands on the beach:

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εὖτ’ ἀστὴρ ὑπεράσχε φαντατος, ὅς τε μάλιστα ἔρχεται ἀγγέλων φάος Ἠοῦς ἠριγενείης, τῆμος δὴ νῆσῳ προσεπίλνατο ποντοπόρος νηῦς. Φόρκυνος δέ τίς λιμήν, ἁλίοι γέροντος, ἐν δήμῳ Ἰθάκης· δύο δὲ προβλῆτες ἐν αὐτῷ ἀγκάζεται ἀπορρόφεις, λυμένος πότι πεπτημνείαι, αἱ τ’ ἀνέμων σκέπωσι δυσαήων μέγα κύμα [aor.]

[95]

τίμος δὴ νῆσῳ προσεπίλνατο ποντοπόρος νηῦς.

Φόρκυνος δέ τίς λιμήν, ἁλίοι γέροντος,

ἐν δήμῳ Ἰθάκης· δύο δὲ προβλῆτες ἐν αὐτῷ ἀγκάζεται ἀπορρόφεις, λυμένος πότι πεπτημνείαι,

αἱ τ’ ἀνέμων σκέπωσι δυσαήων μέγα κύμα [pres.]

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53 For block descriptions see Nünning 2007: 106.
54 Cf. Hellwig 1964: 34. For description in the *Iliad*, see further Willenbrock [1944] 1969 (restricted to objects), Létoublon 1998, Minchin 2001: 100-31 (largely restricted to objects; description as a concept is not defined), and Tsagalis 2012: 375-448 (again, the concept description remains without definition). For description in both *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, see Andersson 1976: 15-52, Richardson 1990: 36-69 (in the chapter on ‘pause’), Galand-Hallyn 1994: 27-71, and de Jong 2012a: 21-38 (discussed under the overriding notion of ‘space’).
55 There is no monograph dealing with description as a separate phenomenon in the *Odyssey*; it is usually discussed in relation to landscape or setting. To the bibliography of the previous note can be added: Nestle 1948: 32-50 (“Odysseelandschaften”), Müller 1968 (description of objects, houses and other man-made things), Elliger 1973: 103-56 (discussion of landscape), Byre 1994a (on the Harbour of Phorcys and the Cave of the Nymphs), Byre 1994b (on Goat Island), and de Jong 2001: xiii (see her observations ad loc., too).
56 Text by Von der Mühll; translation by Lattimore (adapted, for which I have made use of Bowie 2013: 114-7). Verbs in subordinate clauses have been put between square brackets.
When the brightest star rose, which most often comes announcing early-born Dawn’s light, (95) then the seafaring ship was approaching the island. There is a certain harbour of Phorcys, the old man of the sea, in the land of Ithaca. In it are two jutting precipitous headlands, sloping down towards the harbour, which keep out the great wave caused by the storm winds (100) so that it stays outside; inside, well-benched ships stay without mooring whenever they come to the anchorage, which is the end of their voyage. At the harbour’s head is a long-leaved olive tree, and near it [is] a pleasant dusky cave, sacred to the nymphs who are called Naiads. (105) In it are mixing bowls and amphoras of stone; and there bees store their honey. In it [are] very long stone looms, where the nymphs weave sea-purple webs, a wonder to behold; and in it [are] waters, ever-flowing. It has two doors, (110) one leading down for men at the northern end, but the other to the south belong to the gods, and men never enter by it, but it is a path of the immortals. There they rowed in, knowing it from before. Next she [the ship] ran ashore on land, as far [up the shore] as half of all [the ship], because it was driven so forward by the arms of the rowers.

2.3.2 The Harbour of Phorcys (Od. 13.96-112): Analysis
The description of the harbour of Phorcys is embedded in a larger narrative passage. This is clear from the difference in the tenses that are used in main clauses between on the one hand lines 93-5 and 113-5 (aorists and imperfects), and 96-112 on the other (only present tenses). The alternation of aorists and imperfects in the main clauses of lines 100-110 reflects the narrative’s flow from past to present, while the consistent present tense in lines 113-5 emphasizes the ongoing action of the narrative.
93-5 and 113-5 indicate that these lines contain the diegetic discourse mode. Temporal adverbs and a temporal conjunction are found, too: εὖτε (“when”, 93), τῆμος (“then”, 95), ἔπειτα (“then”, “next”, 113). As is to be expected, these lines contain a sequence of events. The events are part of the fabula of the *Odyssey*.

The present tenses, together with the spatial textual organization around a main theme (Φόρκυνος...λιμήν), indicate that lines 96-112 contain the descriptive discourse mode. In the descriptive discourse mode, time is static: fabula time has stopped, which results in a pause. Nevertheless, the narrator suggests that fabula time moves forward while he is describing the harbour and the cave. By employing the imperfect προσεπίλνατο (95), “was approaching”, the narrator indicates that the description takes place while the ship approaches the island; the aorist εἰσέλασαν (113), “they rowed in”, in combination with ἐνθα, “there”, indicates that the ship has completed its journey.

The narrator focalizes this description, since Odysseus is asleep. The present tense is another indication that the narrator focalizes this description. By using the present tense, the narrator indicates that the harbour had such-and-such a layout when Odysseus was approaching it, and that it still has that very same layout in his own ‘now’. In other words, the present tense indicates that the scenery has looked (level of the fabula) and still looks (level of the story) as it is described. This is the omnitemporal...

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The main clause in lines 95 contains an imperfect; the main clauses in lines 113-5 contain two aorists (εἰσέλασαν, 113; ἔπεκελσεν, 114) and one imperfect (ἐπείγετο, 115). The relative clause in 93-4 can also be regarded as descriptive, on account of epic τε (93) and the habitual present tense ἔρχεται (94); it provides background information on the brightest star’s custom; this star is usually identified as the morning star, Venus (Ameis, Hentze, and Cauer [1862] 1910: 7 and Hoekstra 1990: 93).


de Jong 2001: 318. Perhaps the rowers are focalizers, too (πρὶν εἰδότες, “knowing it from before”, 113).


Bassett 1938: 87-8: “(...) whenever the poet uses the present tense outside of the speeches, he is speaking directly to his audience of what is either part of their own experience or is as true for them as for the story”; similarly Chatman 1978: 82: “[i]f we read in a narrative otherwise in the preterite a sentence like ‘War is hell,’ the generalization is thought to hold for the narrator, as well as (or even rather than) for the characters”.

The omnitemporal present tense involves a narrator who focalizes, since what is being described or narrated in the present omnitemporal tense necessarily pertains to the narrator’s ‘now’.

It has been established that lines 96-112 realize the descriptive discourse mode, which means that this passage has a prototypically descriptive organization. I now want to further investigate this descriptive structure, and establish whether any other prototypically descriptive elements are present. Descriptions prototypically begin with a denomination of the theme, and an indication of the location of this theme. This is the case here, too: the theme is mentioned first (Φόρκυνος...τίς ἐστι λιμήν, 96), and located on Ithaca (ἐν δήμῳ Ἰθάκης, 97). The theme functions as a framework for the rest of the description. We could say that the theme harbour activates the ‘harbour frame’. The harbour frame may have the following elements in the Odyssey: jutting headlands (which provide shelter against the elements), a nearby spring, a cave, trees at its head, and a lookout.

In the following chart, I have schematized the structure of the description. Every rectangle represents a theme:

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42 The omnitemporal present is often used, too, in comparisons and general statements (Chantraine 1953: 190-1). It should be noted that most comparisons feature a sequence of events which is a prototypically narrative feature (cf. Richardson 1990: 64: “the content of most similes involves action through time (…)”).


44 Geographical descriptions are often introduced by the ‘there is a place X’ motif (ἔστι δέ τις...τοῖς); the narrative is often resumed with anaphorical ἔνθα, “there” (de Jong 2001: 83). This is the case in this passage, too (ἔνθ' οἵ γ' εἰσέλασαν, “there they rowed in”, 113).

The chart makes clear that the harbour of Phorcys has three subthemes (underlined; spatial indicators in bold): (1) δύο δὲ προβλῆτες ἐν αὐτῷ ἄκται (97-8); (2) αὐτὰρ ἐπὶ κρατός λιμένος ταμώφυλλος ἐλαίη (102); (3) ἄγχοθι δ’ αὐτῆς ἄντρον (103). The narrator uses existential ἐστι to introduce the description, but omits (locative) forms of the verb ‘to be’ in the case of the subthemes. He proceeds by enumeration (δέ, 96; αὐτάρ, 102; δέ, 103) and uses spatial prepositions. The first two subthemes are located spatially vis-à-vis the main theme, but the last subtheme vis-à-vis the previous subtheme, the olive tree. The last subtheme (ἄντρον) itself has four subthemes, and thereby becomes a theme, too. The subthemes are again located spatially vis-à-vis the theme. The narrator proceeds by enumeration (δέ) and uses three spatial adverbs: (1) ἐν δὲ κρητῆρές τε καὶ ἀμφιφορῆες ἔασι (105); (2) ἐν δ’ ἱστοὶ λίθεοι περιμήκες (…) (107); (3) ἐν δ’ ὕδατ’ ἀενάοντα (…) (109); (4) (…) δύω δὲ τε οἱ θύραι εἰσίν (109). Again, we find forms of the verb ‘to be’ (ἔασι, 105; εἰσίν, 109; ellipsis in 107 and 109).

The main theme of this description concerns a place, which is a prototypically descriptive subject. All themes are static and spatial, and can be regarded as existential phenomena. It is now time to further investigate the way these themes are described. The main theme, the harbour, is identified (Φόρκυνος (…) ἁλίοιο γέροντος, “of Phorcys,
the old man of the sea) and located on Ithaca (ἐν δήμῳ Ἰθάκης), but does not receive any further elaboration: the layout and appearance of the harbour are described by its various subthemes.

The narrator does describe the appearance of the first subtheme, the headlands (ἐκταί, 98). He uses a numeral (δύο, "two", 97), two adjectives (προβλῆτες, "jutting"; ἀπορρῶγες, "precipitous", 97-8), and a participle (λιμένος πότι πεπτηυῖαι, "sloping down toward the harbour", 98) to visually describe the headlands. He thus sketches the general layout of the harbour. The first subtheme also has a relative clause appended to it (99-100, αἵ τ'…ἔκτοθεν). This clause does not describe the appearance, but the function of the headlands, which is to provide shelter. The epic τε in this relative clause indicates that the present tense expresses an omnitemporal or habitual action. The narrator then moves from the outside (ἔκτοθεν) to the inside (ἔντοσθεν) of the headlands, and adds (δέ) another function; it again concerns a habitual action, with a present tense and epic τε in 110, and a temporal clause with distributive-iterative subjunctive, ὅτ'…ἵκωνται in 111.

The second subtheme, the olive tree (ἐλαίη, 102), has only one adjective that describes its appearance (τανύφυλλος, "long-leaved", 102). The third and last subtheme (ἄντρον, 103) does not only have four subthemes, but is also described by three adjectives (103-4): it is pleasant (ἐπήρατον), dusky (ἠεροειδές), and sacred to the nymphs (ἱρὸν Νυμφάων). The structure of the first two subthemes (κρητῆρές τε καὶ ἀμφιφορῆες, 105; ἱστοί, 107) is similar. After having introduced the subtheme with one (λάϊνοι, 106) or more adjectives (λίθεοι περιμήκεες, 107) which give a physical description of the subtheme, the narrator indicates by means of ἔνθα which activity habitually takes place in that subtheme (made explicit by epic τε in 107). In both cases, ἔνθα locates the activity at the subtheme which immediately went before. Thus in 106, ἔνθα refers back to the bowls and amphoras, rather than to the main theme; therefore, the translation of τιθαιβώσσουσι, "store up honey", seems apt, as bowls and amphoras are suited for this purpose.47

47 LSJ s.v. τιθαιβώσσω A. The LfgrE translates as "Honigwaben anlegen", "to build honeycombs", which amounts to the same thing. Hoekstra 1990: 171 states that the exact sense and etymology are unknown; nevertheless, this interpretation seems most likely. The translation by LSJ is approved by Matthews 1996: 282 (ad fragment 108 by Antimachus of Colophon): "(...) Homer uses the word of bees storing up their food". Elliger 1975: 128 interprets the bowls and amphoras as evidence of the fact that humans offer sacrifices to the gods in the cave.
"Ἔπειτα (106) might seem out of place in a description, since there is no temporal progression on the level of the fabula. However, ἔπειτα does not function as a temporal adverb in 106. According to Hoekstra, it "serves to introduce a new element in a description".48 We might rephrase Hoekstra’s remark, and state that ἔπειτα functions as a presentational discourse marker.49 Presentational discourse markers help to make the structure of the text clear.50 ἕπειτα signals that the eyes of the narrator have moved to a new item. In the case of a description, ἕπειτα often introduces the theme or a subtheme.51 In 106, in combination with (spatial) ἐνθα δέ, it introduces an activity which takes place in a subtheme introduced earlier.

The only adjective that goes with the third subtheme provides both a physical description as well as a habitual action: the waters are ever-flowing (ἀενάοντα, 109).52 The last and fourth subtheme, which consists of two elements (δύω...δύραι, 109), is first introduced in toto.53 It is the only subtheme which is not located spatially vis-à-vis its main theme. The narrator next describes each entrance separately (αἱ μὲν (…) / αἱ δ’ αὖ

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48 Hoekstra 1990: 171 (italics in the original).
49 ἕπειτα is recognised as such by Bonifazi 2012: 208. A clear example of ἕπειτα as a presentational discourse marker in tragedy is found in S. Ant. 53, on which Kamerbeek 1978: 46 remarks that ἕπειτα is “not temporal, but introducing the second item of the threefold calamities (cf. τρίτον δ’ 55)”. Kamerbeek is followed by Griffith 1999: 132.
50 On the presentational level of discourse, see Kroon 1995: 73-5.
51 Hoekstra 1990: 171 compares the use of ἕπειτα in Od. 13.106 with ἕπειτα in Od. 1.106, which does not, however, occur in a description. Better parallels to ἕπειτα in Od. 13.106 are Od. 4.354 and 9.116, both island descriptions. In both cases, ἕπειτα functions as a discourse marker and introduces the main theme of the description. We should compare Ameis, Hentze, and Cauer [1894] 1920: 119 on ἕπειτα in 4.354: "dann; dies ist das nächste, was ich zu erzählen habe".
52 οἱ in 109 refers back to the cave in 103, the main theme of this section. It may be noted that if the antecedent is the main theme, the distance between the pronoun and its antecedent can be quite large. This is due to the fact that during the whole description the main theme is topical, i.e. it is what the passage is about. Similarly, in the description of Alcinous’ palace in Od. 7.81-135, the pronoun οἱ (in 103 and 122) is far removed from its antecedent (Ἀλκινόοιο, 85), as scholars have noted (see Müller 1968: 140, and Elliger 1975: 137, note 107 for a refutation of earlier views that οἱ is problematic). In both cases, οἱ refers back the main theme of the description, specifically its owner, who is closely identified with his palace; the main theme is introduced as Ἀλκινόου πρὸς δόματ’ (...) κλυτά (...) in 82, and again so described in 85 (δώμα καθ’ ψφερές μεγαλύτερος Ἀλκινόοι).
53 The τε in 109 is, again, epic.
(…), 110-11), by listing location (πρὸς βορέαο, 110; πρὸς νότου, 111) and function (καταιβαταὶ ἀνθρώποισιν, 110; θεώτεραι, 111). This last entrance is special, in that it is not (οὐ-δέ, 111) used by humans. This is the only place in this passage where the ‘description by negation’ technique is employed; here, it emphasises the fact that mortals cannot use the entrance used by the gods.

In describing the subthemes, the narrator first focuses on what a subtheme looks like. He does so by using adjectives (in 98 a perfect participle) which mostly relate to the physical appearance of the subtheme; emphasis thus lies on their sensory appearance, and the dominant sensory quality is visual. By using these adjectives the narrator attributes qualities to the subthemes, which leads to the presence of details. In two instances, the narrator is content with describing the subtheme only (the ἐλαίη in 102 and the ὕδατα in 109). In the case of the other subthemes, the narrator also describes their function. He does this by adding a relative clause (99-101) or an adverbial clause with a spatial adverb (ἐνθα in 106 and 107). The clauses in 99-101 expresses states, but those in 106-7 events. These events are habitual, and as such associated with description.

This passage does not feature a sequence of events. The two events that do occur have a different subject, which is not a human character and which cannot act

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54 The plurals in αἱ μὲν and αἱ δὲ are explained by Stanford [1948] 1962: 203 as poetic; according to Ameis, Hentze, and Cauer [1862] 1910: 8, the plural is used since θυραί can refer to a single entrance only. Bonifazi 2012: 221-2 states regarding αὖ in 111 that “αὖ-discourse markers [this includes αὖ, αὖτε, αὐτάρ] can convey atemporal discreteness in location as well, as in the description of the two entrances of the Ithacan cave of the Nymphs (…). The speaker uttering αὖ, αὖτε, or αὐτάρ helps the recipient to track items that are shifted in possibly different directions: on the side, on the opposite side (…)”.

55 ‘The description by negation’ technique is “employed to define things or conditions which are the reverse of normal, mortal existence (Elysium, life of the gods, exotic countries)” (de Jong 2001: 234; see Davies 1987 for an extensive discussion of this technique). The longest instance in the Odyssey is Odysseus’ description of Goat Island in Od. 9.116-41. Elliger 1975: 128 detects ring composition: Φέρκυνος (a sea god, 96) and ἀθανάτων (the immortals, 112).

56 In 110-1 only does the narrator uses forms of the verb “to be” to further specify a subtheme (ellipsis in 110; εἰσί in 111). This specification concerns location and function at the same time in 110 (πρὸς βορέαο καταιβαταὶ ἀνθρώποισιν); in 111 the narrator specifies location and ownership (πρὸς νότου εἰσί θεώτεραι); the function of this last entrance is described by using the adverb κείνῃ in 111 (so glossed by LSJ s.v. ἐκεῖνος III; similarly Ameis, Hentze, and Cauer [1862] 1910: 8, who translate κείνῃ with illac, “by that way”).
intentionally (headlands, 99; ships, 101; bees, 106). Only the nymphs could be characterised as “intelligent agents who have a mental life and react emotionally to the states of the world”. Of the mental life of the nymphs, the narratee learns nothing. They are aligned with the bees of the previous line: just as bees, nymphs are inseparable from the landscape, and closely associated with caves. They are weaving, an activity which is typical of nymphs and women in general. As such, I regard their weaving as a natural activity: just as the bees gather honey, the nymphs weave their webs.

World disruption is absent, too. The events do not introduce a disruption into the storyworld. Rather, the harbour and the cave are described in their normal and usual state. This is clear from the use of the stative verb ‘to be’, and the habitual and iterative present tenses, which do not introduce changes but rather describe the storyworld as it is.

At first sight, the element of ‘what-it’s-like’ might seem present in line 108, in which the narrator comments that the nymphs weaving their sea-purple webs is a wonder to behold (θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι). This phrase does not describe the feelings of the nymphs or of any other character in the storyworld. It concerns the feelings of the narrator, who expresses his mortal admiration for this divine sight to the narratees. Narratorial comments are found in descriptions, too.

I sum up. The passage dealing with the harbour of Phorcys and the cave of the Nymphs (Od. 13.96-112) can be regarded as a prototypical description. The passage is in the descriptive discourse mode, which indicates that it has a descriptive structure: textual progress is spatial, as witness the many spatial adverbs, and only story time advances. Furthermore, all the prototypical elements of description are present; prototypical features associated with narration are absent. I conclude that this passage has a high degree of descriptivity and zero narrativity.

2.4.1 Agamemnon arms for battle (Il. 11.15-46): Introduction
In the previous section, I have investigated a prototypically descriptive passage. In this section, I want to investigate a passage that contains both descriptive and narrative
elements, Agamemnon’s arming scene in Il. 11.15-46. I will briefly compare this passage with Patroclus’ arming scene in Il. 16.131-44 (section 2.4.3).

Agamemnon’s arming scene is regarded by Becker as an “extended description of representational art”.61 I doubt whether this is the case. There are only a few sections that can be called ekphrastic or representational, i.e. of which the text refers to a piece of Agamemnon’s armour that represents something else in turn: lines 26-7 (serpents), lines 36-7 (the Gorgon, Fear and Rout), and lines 39-40 (a snake). Thus, apart from the fact whether one can speak of art in connection with Agamemnon’s armour, representational sections are scarce. Becker also argues that the serpents in lines 26-7 are described as alive.62 As I shall argue below, the serpents are not described as being alive, but as static entities.

Other scholars have assessed the passage differently. An important strand of criticism, starting with Lessing, regards Agamemnon’s arming scene as a dramatized description.63 Rather than simply enumerating the parts of Agamemnon’s armour, the narrator has Agamemnon put on his armour. By integrating the description into the fabula, the narrator avoids a descriptive pause.64 A dramatized description is also

61 Becker 1995: 67, who discusses the whole arming scene (ibid.: 67-77); the scene is also discussed by Morris 1992: 7-9.
62 Becker 1995: 71: “the serpents may be images made of blue enamel, but they are also stretching and writhing beasts; they are described as representations, but also as alive”.
63 Hamon 1981: 16-7, referring to Lessing [1766] 1930: 56-7 (who however refers to Agamemnon’s dressing scene in Il. 2.42-6): “[i]f indeed special circumstances compel Homer to fix our glance for a while on some single corporeal object, in spite of this no picture is made of it which the painter cold follow with his brush; for Homer knows how, by innumerable artifices, to set this object in a succession of moments, at each of which it assumes a different appearance, and in the last of which the painter must await it in order to show us, fully arisen, what in the poet we see arising (...). If Homer would should us how Agamemnon was dressed, then the King must put on his whole attire piece by piece before our eyes: the soft undervest, the great mantle, the fine laced boots, the sword; and now he is ready and grasps the sceptre. We see the attire as the poets paints the action of attiring; another would have described the garments down to the smallest ribbon, and we should have seen nothing of the action” (emphasis mine).
64 A character who acts upon an object is one of three techniques of integrating a description into the narrative. The other two are (i) having a character look at an object (e.g. Hermes who looks at Calypso’s cave in Od. 5.59-74), and (2) having a character speak of an object (e.g. Athena who describes the Harbour of Phorcys to Odysseus in Od. 13.345-51). See Hamon [1981] 1993: 172-98 (who speaks of le travailleur descripteur, le regard descripteur, le bavard descripteur); and for a
known as a Homeric description.\textsuperscript{66} I return to these observations at the end of my analysis.

In book 11 of the \textit{Iliad}, Agamemnon is given an \textit{aristeia}. In book 8, the Achaeans have been forced back to their ships. After the unsuccessful embassy to Achilles in book 9, Diomedes urges Agamemnon to renew the battle the next day and to enter the fighting himself (9.697-709). Book 11 opens with the dawn of a new day (1-2). Zeus sends Strife (Ἔρις) to stir up the Achaeans (3-14). Next, Agamemnon arms for battle:\textsuperscript{66}

\begin{verbatim}
15 Ἀτρείδης δ' ἐβόησεν ἰδὲ ζώννυσθαι ἄνωγεν Ἀργείους· ἐν δ' αὐτὸς ἐδύσετο νώροπα χαλκόν.
κνημίδας μὲν πρώτα περὶ κνήμῃσιν ἔθηκε καλὰς ἀργυρέοις ἀραρυίας· δεύτερον αὐτὸ δώρηκα περὶ στήθεσσιν ἔθηκε,
τὸ δ' ἦτοι δέκα οἶμοι ἐκατόν χαλκόν κυάνοιο.

20 ὅτι δ' οἳ Κινύρης δῶκε ξεινήϊον εἶναι. πεῦθετο γὰρ Κύπρονδε μέγα κλέος οὕνεκ' Ἀχαιοι ἐς Τροίην νήεσσιν ἀναπλεύσεσθαι ἐμελλον.
κυάνεοι δὲ δέκα οἶμοι ἐκατόν χαλκόν κυάνοιο.

30 ἄρα Κύπρος πάμφαινον, ἀτὰρ περὶ κουλεὸν ἦν αὐτῷ, χρυσέοισιν ἀορτήρεσσιν ἀμφιμέλας θοῦριν·
ἐν δὲ ὀμφαλοῖς ἦσαν ἐείκοσι κασσιτέροιο.

35 τῇ δ' ἐπὶ μὲν Γοργώ βλεπομένης ἐπετράνων ἀμφίβρότην πολυδαίδαλον ἀσπίδα θοῦριν,
τῇ δ' ἐπὶ μὲν Γοργώ βλεπομένης ἐπετράνων ἀμφίβρότην πολυδαίδαλον ἀσπίδα θοῦριν.


\textsuperscript{66} Text by Allen; translation by Lattimore (adapted); the sections that contain the descriptive discourse mode have been italicised.
\end{verbatim}
And Atreus’ son cried out aloud and ordered the Greeks to gird them, and he himself put on the shining bronze. First he placed along his legs the greaves, beautiful, fitted with silver ankle-pieces. Second he put on about his chest a corselet, (20) which Kinyras had given him once, to be a guest present. For he had heard from Cyprus the great rumour that the Achaeans were to sail against Troy in their ships; therefore he had given it to him, showing the king favour. Of it ten circles were of dark blue enamel, (25) and twelve of gold and twenty of tin; and serpents of blue enamel had been stretched out towards the neck, three on either side like rainbows, which the son of Cronus fixes in the clouds, a portent for mortal men. Across his shoulders he slung his sword; and on it studs (30) of gold were gleaming, and about [it] the scabbard was silver, [and the sword] was fitted with golden straps. And he took up the man-enclosing elaborate stark shield, beautiful, around which were ten circles of bronze, and on it were twenty knobs of tin, (35) [gleaming] white, and in the very centre was one of dark blue enamel. And upon it was set as a wreath the Gorgon, of horrid aspect, glaring terribly, and around it [were] Fear and Rout. And from it [the shield] was a silver shield strap, and on that was twisted a snake of blue enamel, and it had (40) three heads, turned this way and that, grown out of a single neck. Upon his head he set the helmet, two-horned, four-sheeted, with the horse-hair crest, and the plume above it was nodding terribly. And he took two strong spears tipped with bronze, sharp [spears]; and far from himself into heaven (45) the bronze was shining. And at that sight Athena and Hera thundered, doing honour to the king of Mycenae rich in gold.

2.4.2 Agamemnon arms for battle (Il. 11.15-46): Analysis
On the basis of the use of tenses (which includes aorists and imperfects), we might conclude that the passage contains the diegetic discourse mode. However, if we look closely, we see that some sections are in the diegetic discourse mode, but others in the descriptive discourse mode. The lines that contain the diegetic discourse mode are 15-23 (aorists and imperfects), 29 (aorist), 32 (aorist), and 41-6 (aorists and imperfects). In the other sections, no aorists occur, but only imperfects and pluperfects. The following lines contain the descriptive discourse mode (italicised in the text above): 24-8
The passage contains a sequence of events that are part of the fabula of the *Iliad*. These are narrated by aorist tenses; only ἄνωγεν in line 15 is an imperfect. Ἐδύσετο in line 16 is a complexive aorist, which sums up the following action as a whole (Agamemnon’s arming); this action is then narrated in detail by the following aorists. Two imperfects occur, too, in lines 42 (ἔνευεν) and 45 (λάμπ’). These imperfects do not express events which are part of the sequence of events and do not advance narrative time. Rather, the events are simultaneous with the aorist verbs they accompany. Only two temporal adverbs are found (πρῶτα, 17; δεύτερον, 19); the other verbs are connected solely by δέ. Textual progression is temporal. Agamemnon is the subject of all actions, apart from that in line 45, the subject of which are Athena and Hera.

Lines 20-3 also contain a sequence of events, but these events are not part of the main fabula. These lines are a relative clause (τόν, 20) which forms an external analepsis (ποτέ, “once”). It is common to relate the history of an object in this form. The analepsis is characterized by ring composition: two anterior aorists (δῶκε, 20 and 23, “had given”) are framed by two imperfects (πεύθετο, 21; ἔμελλον, 22). The main events of this external analepsis are expressed by aorist tenses, too, while the imperfects provide background information.

The lines that are in the descriptive mode (24-8, 29-31, and 33-40) can be recognised by a change in the use of tenses: only imperfects and pluperfects occur, and no narrative aorists. In these sections, three parts of Agamemnon’s armour receive further

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67 The relative clause in lines 27-8 contains a gnomic aorist (for which see below).
68 The sequence consists of the following ten events: 1. Ἀτρεΐδης δ’ ἐβόησεν (15), 2. ζώννυσθαι ἄνωγεν (15), 3. δῶ κ’ αὐτός ἔδύσετο νόφρον χαλκόν (16), 4. κνημῖδας μὲν πρῶτα (…) ἔθηκε (17), 5. δεύτερον αὐτ’ ἔδυνε (18), 6. ἄμφι β’ ἐδόθην κόκκινον βάλλετο ἐκρος (29), 7. ἂν δ’ ἔλετ’ (…) ἦλετ’ (…) ἄσπιθα (…) (32), 8. αἰταὶ β’ ἔπ’ ἀμφίφρασον κυνέην ἔθτε (…) (41), 9. ἔδυνε β’ ἐλκεμα δῷρε δῶ (…) (43), and 10. ἐπὶ δ’ ἐγδούπησαν Ληθαίνην τε καὶ Ἡρη (45).
70 The nodding of the plume (ἔνευεν, 42) takes place when Agamemnon puts on his helmet (θέτο, 41). Similarly, the bronze is shining (λάμπ’, 45), when Agamemnon grabs his two spears (ἐδέθη, 43). The subject of both verbs is not Agamemnon – as is the case with all events in the aorist tense – but rather a part of the previously mentioned object: the plume (λόφος) is part of the helmet (κυνέην); the bronze (χαλκός, 44) refers back to the armour as a whole.
71 See Minchin 2001: 119-22 for objects and their history in Homer.
elaboration: his corselet (24-8), his sword (29-31), and his shield (33-40). These sections centre around a theme, the parts of which are enumerated and/or spatially connected; time is static and progression is spatial. The main themes of these descriptive sections are introduced in the diegetic sections, as the direct object of a transitive verb: θώρηκα (…) ἔδυνε (18), ἀμφὶ δ’ ἄρ’ ὤμοισιν βάλετο ξίφος (29), and ἂν δ’ ἕλετ’ (…) ἀσπίδα (32). Thus, in this passage the descriptive sections are embedded in the diegetic sections. In this sense, this passage differs from the Odyssean passage of the previous section (13.96-112), in which the main themes were introduced in the descriptive discourse mode by a stative verb.

If we survey the passage as a whole (15-46), we see that it has a narrative backbone, in the sense that it features a sequence of events. In lines 24-40, however, only two lines contain the diegetic discourse mode (29 and 32); the other lines contain the descriptive discourse mode. In the surrounding lines (15-23 and 41-6), the diegetic discourse mode is found.

I now want to further investigate this passage. I will focus on the lines that constitute the arming scene proper, lines 17-44. I have schematized these lines in the chart on the following page. The six events that are part of the fabula of the Iliad are listed in the left column; in the right columns, I have listed the external analepsis and the descriptive sections:

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72 Friedländer 1912: 4 has identified the same parts as Beschreibung, although he has the description of the sword start at line 30 (instead of 29).
As the chart makes clear, the passage has both a narrative and descriptive organization: it contains a sequence of events, but also themes and subthemes. The main theme is found at the very beginning of this passage, in line 16: ἐν δ’ αὐτὸς ἐδύσετο νώροπα χαλκόν, “and he himself put on the shining bronze”. As stated above, ἐδύσετο in line 16 is a complexive aorist, which sums up the action as a whole. The reason why the narrator first sums up the whole action could be attributed to the fact that it allows him to introduce the main theme, in this case the νώροπα χαλκόν.73 In every other major arming scene – that of Paris in book 3, of Patroclus in book 16, and of Achilles in book 19 – a complexive aorist with accompanying main theme is found.74 The shining bronze refers to Agamemnon’s armour, which has six parts; these can be regarded as its six subthemes: 1. κνημῖδας (greaves, 17), 2. δώρηκα (corselet, 19), 3. ξίφος (sword, 29), 4. ἀσπίδα (shield, 32), 5. κυνέην (helmet, 41), and 6. δοῦρε δύω (two spears, 43). The narrator returns by ring composition to the main theme in 44-5: τῆλε δὲ χαλκὸς ἀπ’ αὐτόφιν ὀφρονὸν ἐσο / λάμπ’.75

The subtheme(s) of this description are all found in a diegetic section, i.e. they are introduced via an action. This does not mean that these lines do not contain any descriptive material. If we look at the first subtheme (17-8), we see that the run-over line 18 consists wholly of descriptive details: κνημῖδας μὲν πρῶτα περὶ κνήμῃσιν ἔθηκε / καλὰς ἀργυρέοισιν ἐπισφυρίοις ἀραρυίας, “first he placed along his legs the greaves / beautiful, fitted with silver ankle-pieces”. In general, lines which are in the diegetic discourse mode may contain descriptive material. The reason to assign such a line to the diegetic discourse mode is that it contains an event (ἔθηκε) which is part of a

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73 In all five occurrences of νώροπα χαλκόν, the phrase refers to armour (Il. 2.578, 11.16, 14.383, Od. 24.467 and 500). The phrase νώροπα χαλκῷ occurs thrice; two times it refers to armour (Il. 7.206 and 16.130), once to bronze decoration of a shield (Il. 13.406).
74 Il. 3.328 (...ἐδύσατο τεύχεα καλὰ), Il. 16.130 (...κορύσσετο νώροπι χαλκῷ), and Il. 19.368 (δύσετο δῶρα θεοῦ...). Arend 1933: 93 speaks of an Ankündigungsvers.
75 According to the commentators, αὐτόφιν equals αὐτῶν (Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1906: 45; Willcock 1978: 44), in which αὐτόφιν refers to the separate parts of Agamemnon’s armour. The translators (Murray, Lattimore) translate with “from him”, in which case αὐτόφιν refers to Agamemnon himself. This last option is to be preferred (best translated with “from himself”, giving αὐτός full force), since χαλκός, the main theme, already refers to the pieces of Agamemnon’s armour as a whole; this makes αὐτός redundant. Furthermore, in line 16 αὐτός refers to Agamemnon, too. A recapitulating line such as this is absent from the other major arming scenes.
sequence of events. There is, then, a difference between a line in the diegetic discourse mode and a line in the descriptive discourse mode: the former is part of a sequence of events, and advances narrative time (both fabula time and story time advance); the latter is not part of a sequence of events, and time is static (only story time advances). Both lines may contain descriptive details and thus provide an idea of what the storyworld looks like, but they do so in different ways.

Lines 17-8 are not the only lines in a diegetic section with descriptive details. The same holds for lines 32-3, 41-2, and 43-4. Of all subthemes in this passage, three (greaves, 17-8; helmet, 41-2; two spears, 43-4) do not receive any elaboration other than the details introduced in the diegetic discourse mode; the narrator does not pause to describe these subthemes. In the case of the helmet and the spears (41-5), the narrator does add another line in which background circumstances are related. In both cases, the imperfect is found. When Agamemnon puts on his helmet, the plume above it nods terribly (δεινὸν δὲ λόφος καθύπερθεν ἔνευεν, 42). The other instance (...τῆλε δὲ χαλκὸς ἀπ’ αὐτόφιν οὐρανὸν εἴσω / λάμπ’, “and far from himself into heaven the bronze was shining”) does not specifically relate to the spears, but to the armour as a whole.

There are three subthemes which the narrator further elaborates: Agamemnon’s corselet (20-8), his sword (29-31), and his shield (33-40). The theme of lines 20-8 is Agamemnon’s corselet (θώρηκα, 19). The narrator first relates the history of the corselet by way of an external analepsis in 20-3. The description proper starts in 24 with τοῦ, which refers back to θώρηκα in 19. The main theme has four subthemes. The bands consists of three different materials which form three different subthemes: 1. δέκα οἶμοι ἐσαν μέλαινα κυάνοιο; 2. δώδεκα δὲ χρυσοῖο; 3. καὶ εἴκοσι κασσιτέροι (24-5). The narrator uses (locative) εἰμί (ἐσαν, 24) or an ellipsis of this verb (25) to introduce these subthemes. The fourth subtheme are the snakes (δράκοντες, 26-7), introduced by the pluperfect ὀρωρέχατο. Since the pluperfect introduces a state in the past, the snakes are conceived of as static entities. None of the subthemes is spatially located vis-à-vis the main theme or each other, but they are simply enumerated. After having compared the snakes to rainbows (ἴρισσιν ἐοικότες, 27), the narrator describes in a permanent-digressive relative clause (27-28, with epic τε and the gnomic aorist στήριξε) a general

76 In the words of Chatman 1990: 16: “[a]t the surface level a sentence may provide a great deal of description even though its main thrust may be narrative”.

77 They are thus not described as “representations, but also as alive”, as Becker 1995: 71 will have it.
quality of rainbows. This relative clause does not describe Agamemnon’s armour, but rather provides general information about rainbows.\textsuperscript{78}

The main theme of lines 29-31 is Agamemnon’s sword (ξίφος, 29). Textual progression is spatial. The subthemes are made up of the different parts of the sword. The first subtheme, the studs (Ἠλοι, 29), is located spatially vis-à-vis the main theme by the adverb ἐν; οἱ refers back to the preceding main theme, as often in descriptions.\textsuperscript{79} The subtheme is not introduced by a form of the verb to be, but by the imperfect πάμφαιον, which refers to the gleaming effect of the studs. The next subtheme, the scabbard (κουλεόν, 30) is also spatially located vis-à-vis the main theme by the adverb περί; it is introduced by (locative) εἰμί (Ἠεν).\textsuperscript{80} The last subtheme, the sword straps (ἀρηρόςσεν, 31), is not spatially connected to the main theme: the sword is said to be “furnished with” (Ἀρηρός) sword straps. However, by making use of his world knowledge – of the frame ‘sword’ – the narratee knows how these sword straps are connected to the sword.

Agamemnon’s shield (Ἀσπίδα, 32) receives the most elaborate description. The description proper starts with a relative clause (Ἡν, 33), but even the preceding diegetic section contains four descriptive epithets.\textsuperscript{81} Its various subthemes (underlined) are all connected spatially (spatial markers in bold), be it vis-à-vis the main theme (1-4; 6) or another subtheme (5): 1. πέρι μὲν κυκλοί (…) ἦσαν (33); 2. ἐν δὲ οἱ ὀμφαλοὶ ἦσαν (34); 3. ἐν δὲ μέσοισιν ἦν [ὀμφαλός]; 4. τῇ δ’ ἐπὶ μὲν Γοργώ (…) ἐστεφάνωτο; 5. (…) περὶ δὲ Δείμος τε Φόβος τε; 6. τῇ δ’ ἐξ (…) τελαμών ἦν. The shield strap becomes itself a main theme, and has one subtheme: (…) αὐτὰρ ἐπ’ αὐτοῦ / (…) ἐλέλικτο δράκων. The snake becomes a main theme, too; its subtheme is not spatially connected to it: κεφαλαὶ δὲ οἱ ἦσαν (…).\textsuperscript{82}

\textsuperscript{78} This general information can, of course, be relevant in the context. Thus, Fränkel [1969] 1975: 39 states that “(…) the rainbow is not a bridge of peace for Homer’s people but an awful presentiment of approaching horror (cf. Il. 17, 544-52)”.

\textsuperscript{79} Hainsworth 1993: 220 states that “the use of ἑ, οὑ, οἱ with reference to things is unusual, but cf. 1.236, 9.419, 21.586, 24.452”. The list is much longer; for some Odyssean examples, see note 52 above. In fact, the phenomenon is common in descriptions; as Hainsworth himself notes, it recurs twice even in this passage (οἱ in 34 and 39). Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1906: 44 understand it as referring to Agamemnon (as in 34), but this is unlikely.

\textsuperscript{80} Ατάρ (30) is employed as δὲ, “mais sa valeur fondamentale est oppositive, tandis que l’emploi transitif est secondaire: on pourrait décrire Ατάρ comme coordonnant opposatif-transitif, δὲ comme coordonnant transitif-oppositif” (Ruijgh 1971: 135; see also ibid.: 714).

\textsuperscript{81} Ἀμφιβρότην πολυδαίδαλον (…) θούριν / καλήν, 32-3.

\textsuperscript{82} The narrator uses either forms of the verb ‘to be’ (33, 34, 35, 38, 39, ellipsis in 37), or pluperfects (36, 39). All verbs designate states in the past. Becker 1995: 75 has misunderstood the meaning of
Again, the narratee will use his world knowledge to connect these heads to the snake at the right place.

If we survey the passage as whole, we may conclude that all prototypically descriptive elements are present. First of all, the passage provides an idea of what Agamemnon’s armour looks like. The focus is not on Agamemnon, but rather on the various parts of his armour (object). Throughout, emphasis lies on sensory appearances; the dominant sensory quality is visual: we may note the many references to different colours and various precious metals. By means of adjectives or nouns in the genitive (e.g. μέλανος κυάνοιο, 24), qualities are attributed to the subthemes; the passage contains a wealth of descriptive details.

The attribution of qualities happens in two different ways. In the sections that contain the diegetic discourse mode, the narrator attributes qualities to subthemes by using adjectives which accompany subthemes that are direct objects of a verb. These verbs are part of a sequence of events, and these events are part of the fabula of the Iliad. In the diegetic sections, both fabula time and story time advance; progression is temporal. However, in the sections that are in the descriptive discourse mode, the narrator only attributes qualities to subthemes. He uses forms of the verb ‘to be’ (most often) or pluperfects (thrice), both of which designate states. This means that fabula time stops; textual progression is spatial/enumerative. The passage, then, has an organization that is associated with narration as well as with description: its backbone is narrative, so to speak, but three embedded sections are descriptive.

I now want to return to the sequence of events, and investigate its nature. First of all, every event in this passage introduces a theme. Secondly, the themes are often introduced with considerable descriptive detail. Thirdly, although the text progresses temporally, it nevertheless contains a considerable number of spatial markers. In four out of six events a spatial marker occurs which indicates that Agamemnon puts a part of his armour on his body (ἐν δ’ αὐτὸς ἐδύσετο in 16): 1. κνημῖδας μὲν πρῶτα περὶ κνήμῃσιν ἔθηκε (17), 2. θώρηκα περὶ στήθεσσιν ἔδυνε (19), 3. ἀμφὶ δ’ ἄρ’ ὀμοιόν μάλετο ἀξίοντος (29), and 4. κρατὶ δ’ ἐπ’ ἀμφίφαλον κυνέην θέτο (41). Every new event thus also includes a change in

the pluperfect in 39: “[t]his section (…) brings them [the images] to life with both elelikto (was quivering) and ekpephuiai (having grown out”) Heracles’ shield also contains snakes (Hes. Sc. 161-7), for which see section 4.3.2, 1-3.

83 In addition, all verbs come from the same semantic field, as is clear from the complexive aorist ἐν (…) ἐδύσετο in 16: the verbs mean either ‘to put something on’ (ἔθηκε, 17; ἔδυνε, 19; μάλετο, 29; θέτο, 41), or ‘to take something up’ (ἀν δ’ ἔλετ’, 32; ἀλετο, 43).
location, spatial movement, as the narrator moves from one part of Agamemnon’s body to another, from toe to head: legs (χείλησιν) – chest (στήθεσσιν) – shoulders (ὄμοισιν) – head (κρατί). We could say that these three elements give the sequence of events a descriptive flavour.

A sequence of events is one of the basic elements of narrative. Yet in order for a passage to qualify as a prototypical narrative, a sequence of events must satisfy a number of additional criteria. In Agamemnon’s arming scene, the events are particularized and involve an intentionally acting human character. These are the only narrative features present. The other two basic elements of narrative, world disruption and ‘what-it’s-like’, are absent.

Agamemnon’s arming scene is an example of a type scene, “a more or less standard combination of narrative elements describing recurrent events like preparing a ship, putting on armour, or receiving a guest”. Type scenes have an order of events which is stereotyped and fixed; they can thus be compared to scripts. The narrator may, however, interrupt or alter the order of events (for an example of which see the next section). Agamemnon’s arming scene features no such interruption. The scene follows the fixed order: greaves, breastplate, sword, shield, helmet, and spears. Unusual in Agamemnon’s arming scene is the amount of description, which underscores his importance as supreme commander.

In Agamemnon’s arming scene, the narrator follows the stereotyped and fixed order, the script. No noncanonical or disruptive events occur; world disruption is thus

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84 ἂν (= ἀνά) in 37 does not relate to a part of Agamemnon’s body, but is a modifier of the verb ἔλετ'.
85 de Jong 2012b: 3. There are many studies dealing with type scenes; I here mention Arend 1933 and Edwards 1992.
86 Minchin 2001: 39; for the notion of script, see section 1.4.2.
87 E.g. Edwards 1992: 288: “[t]he poet may occasionally abruptly alter or interrupt the structure of a type-scene for special effect”. Much work has been done to show that there is in fact much variation in type scenes (see e.g. Edwards 1980: 1-3).
88 For this and the other major arming scenes, see Arend 1933: 92-7, and table 6; Armstrong 1958; and Kirk 1985: 373-15. Tsagarakis 1982: 95-9 has studied the shorter arming scenes.
89 Comparative material consists of the three other major arming scenes: Paris (II. 3.330-8), Patroclus (II. 16.131-44), and Achilles (II. 19.369-91). Only the shield of Agamemnon is called ἀσπίς (and not σάκος), which might indicate that he will be wounded during his aristeia (so tentatively Bershadsky 2010: 16, note 51).
absent. The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is absent, too. Of the three basic elements of narrative, only event sequencing is present. This sequence of events also has a number of descriptive features. In addition, the passage also contains three sections which have a prototypically descriptive structure. If we survey the passage as a whole, we see that all prototypically descriptive features are present. Thus, we may conclude that Agamemnon’s arming scene is low in narrativity, and high in descriptivity.

Scholars who regard Agamemnon’s arming scene as an instance of a dramatized, i.e. Homeric description do so with good reason. By having Agamemnon dress for battle, the narrator avoids a descriptive pause: Agamemnon’s consecutive acts are part of the fabula of the *Iliad*. However, the narrator does not avoid a pause completely: in lines 20-8, 29-31, and 32-40, narrative time does *not* progress. Thus, Agamemnon’s arming scene is dramatized, but only to a certain extent.

### 2.4.3 Patroclus arms for battle (*Il*. 16.131-44)

In Agamemnon’s arming scene, the narrator follows the script. In Patroclus’ arming scene, the narrator deviates from the script. In book 16, when the Trojans have just set fire to the stern of a ship (122-4), Achilles bids Patroclus to arm for battle. Both are momentous events in the *Iliad*. Patroclus will, of course, wear Achilles’ armour. The arming scene follows the script closely, with little elaboration, up until 139. Only the corselet receives an additional, particularized line, to remind the narratees that Patroclus is not donning his own armour: δεύτερον αὖ θώρηκα περὶ στήθεσσιν ἔδυνε / ποικίλον ἀστερόεντα ποδώκεος Αἰακίδαο, “secondly, he girt on about his chest the corselet, elaborate, starry, of swift-footed Aiakides” (133-34). When the narratees come to the last element of the script, the spears, all seems normal, initially at least (139-44):

εἵλετο δ’ ἄλκιμα δοῦρε, τά οὐ παλάμηφιν ἁρῆρει.  
ἔγχος δ’ οὐχ ἑλετ’ οἶον ἀμύμονος Αἰακίδαο  
βριθὺ μέγα στιβαρόν· τὸ μὲν οὐ δύνατ’ Ἀχαιῶν  
παλάμηφιν, ἀλλὰ μιν οἶος ἐπίστατο πῆλαι Ἀχιλλεὺς  
Πηλίου ἐκ κορυφῆς, φόνον ἐμμεναι ἡρώεσσιν.

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*Armstrong 1958: 346: “Patroclus arms as other heroes have done before him. All seems normal, regular, customary”. Similarly Fenik 1968: 191: “it is thus a typical scene par excellence, (…) where identical actions are described in exactly or almost exactly the same words”.

*For this and other modifications, see Janko 1994: 333.*
He took up two powerful spears that fitted his hand’s grip. Only he did not take the spear of blameless Aiakides, heavy, huge, strong; no one else of the Achaeans could handle it, but Achilles alone knew how to wield it, the Pelian ash spear which Cheiron had given to his father from high on Pelion to be a death for heroes.

After Patroclus has taken up his two spears (139), the narratee might expect Patroclus’ arming scene to be finished. Patroclus is indeed fully armed, but the scene is not finished, as the narrator adds another five lines (140-4). The fact that the two spears in 139 are said to fit Patroclus’ grasp (τά οἱ παλάμηφιν ἀρήρει) prepares for the following lines: Patroclus takes these spears, because these do fit his grasp, but that of Achilles does not.93 The in this case double use of the negative (οὐχ, 140; οὐ, 141) negates an expectation on the part of the narratees.94 The negatives also draw explicit attention to the deviation from the script, since the expectations of the narratees precisely derive from scripts, in this case the arming script.

The implications of the fact that Patroclus is unable to take up Achilles’ spear are many: Patroclus is unfit for the task, and inferior to Achilles.95 The narratee may also be reminded of Patroclus’ impending death.96 The spear itself is a significant object, too, as it will be used by Achilles to kill Hector.97 What is of particular interest for my argument is that Patroclus’ arming scene has a higher degree of narrativity than Agamemnon’s arming scene. Whereas Agamemnon’s arming scene follows the script, Patroclus’ arming scene deviates from it. The expected course of events is disrupted (world disruption) by an event that is expected but that does not take place. This transforms the passage from a mere sequence of events, such as Agamemnon’s arming scene, into something that is more prototypically narrative. In addition, the amount of descriptive detail is much lower, and the narrator nowhere pauses to further describe a part of Patroclus’ armour.

93 Armstrong 1958: 346. Leaf [1898] 1902: 166 misunderstood this: “[e]qually awkward is the description 141-44 in a negative passage; the poet should enlarge upon the spear when it is being taken, not when it is being left behind.”
95 Janko 1994: 333. In this sense, the elaboration in 140-4 does not increase the importance of the hero (as does the elaboration in the case of Agamemnon), but rather diminishes it (Patzer 1972: 36).
97 22.317-27. For the significance of the spear, see Shannon 1975: 31-86 and de Jong 2012b: 93.
2.5 Conclusion
In this chapter, two passages (Od. 13.96-112, and Il. 11.15-46) have been studied by making use of the model introduced in section 2.2.2. The properties of these passages can be summarised as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prototypical features of narration</th>
<th>Harbour of Phorcys</th>
<th>Agamemnon’s arming scene</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>event sequencing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>world disruption</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘what-it’s-like’</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prototypical features of description</th>
<th>Harbour of Phorcys</th>
<th>Agamemnon’s arming scene</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attribution of qualities to object/place</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>details</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focus on sensory appearances</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spatial textual organization</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 2.2: Prototypical features of Od. 13.96-112 and Il. 11.15-46*

The passages differ in one crucial point, event sequencing. In the case of the Harbour of Phorcys it is absent. The passage has a high amount of descriptivity and no narrativity. It is, in fact, a prototypical example of a description. Agamemnon’s arming scene is not a prototypical example of a description, because it features a sequence of events. It is neither a prototypical example of narration, because it only features a sequence of events. On account of its sequence of events, its narrativity is higher than that of the Harbour of Phorcys, but it is still low: no other narrative elements are present. We may compare Patroclus’ arming scene, which has a higher amount of narrativity due to the element of world disruption.

We may wonder whether the presence of a sequence of events necessarily decreases the descriptivity of a passage – in other words, whether Agamemnon’s arming scene has a lower amount of descriptivity than the Harbour of Phorcys. For one, the passages differ in their textual organization. Yet Agamemnon’s arming scene makes
clear that a temporal organization does not prevent the realization of every prototypical feature of description. Therefore, it seems best to conclude that the presence of a sequence of events does not necessarily decrease the descriptivity of a passage.

2.6 Corpus
For this study, five ekphraseis have been selected: (1) the shield of Achilles in Il. 18.478-608; (2) the shield of Heracles in Hes. Sc. 139-320; (3) the goatherd’s cup in Theoc. Id. 1.27-60; (4) the cloak of Jason in A.R. 1.721-68; and (5) the basket of Europa in Mosch. Eur. 37-62. The reason why these ekphraseis have been selected is that they all have a visual layer which is extensive enough to convey at least one story of a certain length. In other words, their visual layer is not only narrative, but it also of such a size that it can represent more than just a simple narrative – they may, potentially, have a high degree of narrativity.

These ekphraseis share a number of features. They are all part of a larger narrative work of poetry written in hexameters. This means that ekphraseis in tragedy and prose are not included in this study. For example, I do not discuss the Imagines of Philostratus. This might seem strange at first in a study on ekphrasis, but the Imagines differ considerably from the ekphraseis selected for this study. Philostratus’ ekphraseis are independent, i.e. they are found in a work which consists only of ekphraseis. Due to the scope of this work, as well as the different aims of the Philostratean narrator, the Imagines merit a separate discussion.98

The five ekphraseis fall into two groups. On the one hand, there is ekphrasis in archaic epic, represented by the shields of Achilles and Heracles. On the other, we have Hellenistic ekphrasis. This group may be further divided into epic ekphraseis (Jason’s cloak and Europa’s basket) and bucolic ekphrasis (the goatherd’s cup). Between the archaic and the Hellenistic ekphraseis, more differences may be noted: e.g. large vs. smaller ekphraseis, and shields vs. other objects.

The corpus encompasses ekphraseis written in hexameters from different periods. The corpus thus has a certain unity, but within this unity there is enough variation to make comparison between ekphraseis possible. Each ekphrasis will be discussed in a separate chapter; the chapters are ordered in chronological order. The main aim of the chapters is to establish the degree of narrativity or descriptivity of the ekphrasis; as has

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98 For recent studies on the Imagines, see Ghedini, Colpo, and Novello 2004; and Baumann 2011.
been noted above, a distinction will be made between text and image. The answering of this question, however, invariably leads to the discussion of other issues, too, such as the closely-related issue of the possibility of visualization.  

99 See further section 1.3.3.
3. The Shield of Achilles (II. 18.478-608)

3.1 Introduction

The Shield of Achilles is the first ekphrasis in ancient Greek literature, and at the same time the most complicated one. Indeed, when it comes to establishing whether the Shield ekphrasis should be regarded as narrative or descriptive – the central issue of this book – scholars have arrived at conclusions which are diametrically opposed. For example, Giuliani writes “[g]enau in dem Augenblick, an dem der Text beginnt, sich auf die Bilder des Schildes einzulassen, wechselt er vom narrativen zum deskriptiven Modus. Das ist ein eigenartiges Verfahren, es spricht für die implizite Einsicht des Dichters in die grundsätzliche Andersartigkeit des Bildes gegenüber dem Text”.

Heffernan, however, states that “(...) narrative does not stop at the frame of each scene Hephaestus creates. It penetrates that frame, animating the figures within it, and thus subverting any effort to visualize just where in space the figures are deployed (...).”

Giuliani argues for a descriptive text, but Heffernan for a narrative one. Their views on this issue have further consequences: according to Giuliani, the descriptive nature of the ekphrastic text indicates that the Homeric narrator aims at giving the impression that he is describing an image; for Heffernan, however, the narrative nature of the text makes visualization impossible.

This chapter aims to establish which prototypically narrative and/or descriptive elements are present (section 3.3). First, however, the views of Giuliani and Heffernan merit closer attention: section 3.2 discusses the grounds on the basis of which they arrive at their conclusions. Giuliani and Heffernan are not the only scholars who have addressed the question of the ekphrasis’ narrativity or descriptivity; section 3.2 will

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1 I use the OCT by Allen (though sometimes slightly modified); translation (adapted) is based on Squire 2013: 181-3. For the scholia, I use the edition by Erbse.

2 The bibliography on the shield is huge; see for an overview Arpaia 2010: 233-245. As de Jong 2011: 1 indicates, “[s]cholars have mainly discussed three issues: the relation between the Shield and real shields; the relation between the scenes on the Shield and the Iliad; and the method of description”. This chapter is concerned with the last point, which has so far received little attention (so Schmale 2004: 110).

3 Giuliani 2003: 46.

4 Heffernan 1993: 12.
therefore contain an overview of current scholarly opinion on this question.\(^5\) Section 3.3 contains a detailed analysis of the various images found on the shield. After having drawn my conclusions in section 3.4, I briefly deal with the issue of the shield’s visualisation in 3.5.

### 3.2 Shield of Achilles: Description, Narration, or Both? A Brief State of the Art

Before discussing current scholarly views, two preliminary issues need to be addressed. First, it has long been observed that the narrator presents the shield while it is being made by Hephaestus.\(^6\) In this sense, the passage can be called narrative, and there is no scholarly disagreement about this point. Scholarly disagreement concerns the nature of the scenes or images depicted on the shield, i.e. those passages in which the narrator focuses mainly on the *res ipsae*. It is with the scholarly opinion on these passages that this overview is concerned. Second, because the shield contains a large number of different images, they have often been studied separately. Scholars have mainly concentrated on a specific number of images: the lawsuit in the city at peace (497-508), the city at war (509-40), and the herd of cattle (573-86).

Scholars who have dealt with the question of the narrativity or descriptivity of the scenes or images can roughly be divided into three groups: 1) those who argue that they are descriptive (like Giuliani); 2) those who argue that they are narrative (like Heffernan); and 3) those who argue that they are a combination of both narration and description (the majority of scholars).

Ad 1. For Giuliani, it is the dominant use of the imperfect tense in the shield ekphrasis which indicates that the narrator is describing an image.\(^7\) The imperfect tense indicates that an action is ongoing; an aorist that an action is completed. Giuliani notes, for example, that in the city at war the surrounding of the cattle and the killing of the shepherds (528-9) is related by imperfect tenses.\(^8\) If this were a succession of events,

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\(^5\) In section 3.2, I do not discuss all scholarship on the shield, but only those scholars who explicitly address the question of the narrativity or descriptivity of the ekphrasis.

\(^6\) The passage is often called a dramatized description, for which see section 2.4.1, and below.

\(^7\) Giuliani 2003: 41: “(...) doch durch die Verwendung des Imperfekts wird der Zuhörer noch einmal daran erinnert, daß hier keine Geschichte erzählt, sondern ein Bild beschrieben wird”. A few aorists do occur, as Giuliani has noted (ibid.: 326-7, note 10), but he does not discuss these.

\(^8\) τάμνοντ’ ἀμφὶ βοῶν ἀγέλας καὶ πώεα καλὰ / ἀργεννέων οἰῶν, κτεῖνον δ’ ἐπὶ μηλοβοτῆρας, “[the men in ambush] were cutting off the herds of cattle and fair flocks of white sheep on both sides, and they were killing the herdsmen as well” (*Il.* 18.528-9).
one would expect aorists. According to Giuliani, the imperfects are appropriately used to describe an image: an action which is in reality telic, i.e. which has a natural endpoint, acquires duration in an image, since that action can never reach its natural endpoint. Thus, the use of the imperfect demonstrates that the narrator aims at giving the impression that he is describing an image, and not narrating a story.

Next to the use of the imperfect, Giuliani points to a number of other features which make the shield ekphrasis descriptive: the places and human figures on the shield are anonymous, and all action is open and undecided: the narrator does not relate, for example, how the siege of the city at war ends. This openness of action does not, however, result in suspense. According to Giuliani, the use of the imperfect leads to the absence of suspense, since the imperfect characterises what is happening not as an action which creates suspense, but rather as an activity. In the case of the city at war,

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11 This idea is based on Primavesi 2002: 199: "[d]urch die Dominanz des Durativ-Zuständlichen ist die Sprache dieser Bildbeschreibung von der Sprache der Erzählung scharf geschieden. Der Erzähler folgt offenkundig dem Grundsatz, daß auf Bildern entweder Zustände oder noch andauernde Handlungen dargestellt sind, nicht aber Sequenzen von Ereignis-Punkten". See section 3.3.3.1 below for further remarks about the value of the imperfect.

12 Giuliani 2003: 42-3. Both remarks have often been made before. For the idea that the figures are anonymous, see e.g. Marg [1957] 1971: 33; for the idea that the scenes have no end, see e.g. Finsler 1915: 39 ("[d]er Dichter faßt eine Situation, löst sie in Handlung auf und stellt diese wieder still.") and Marg [1957] 1971: 29 ("[a]ber es bleiben Ausschnitte, ohne Anfang und ohne Ende. Es bricht ab.").

13 Giuliani 2003: 43-4: "Spannung käme erst dann auf, wenn der Zuhörer für oder gegen die Belagerten Partei ergriffe, wodurch die Frage nach dem Ausgang erst ihren Sinn und ihre Dringlichkeit erhielte (womit wir aber die Ebene einer Beschreibung verlassen hätten und mitten in eine Erzählung hineingeraten wären). Eine solche Parteinnahme wird im Text der Schildbeschreibung schon dadurch verhindert, daß Belagerte und Belagerer aus gleichermaßen distanzierter Perspektive geschildert werden und gewissermaßen austauschbar bleiben". Heffernan thinks otherwise, for which see below.
these are activities which usually or normally take place in war. The fact that the narrator relates the world as it is, without creating suspense, is a further indication for Giuliani that the shield ekphrasis is descriptive.

Giuliani also states that although the text acknowledges the nature and boundaries of the image, it does not observe these boundaries consistently. He notes that the figures in the images on the shield do not stand still, but move, talk, sing, and make music, just like real people. This deliberate transgression of the boundaries of the image is not an indication of narrative: the figures could really move, as do Hephaestus’ robot maidens (18.417-21), but it is also certainly the case that the narrator exploits the possibilities that a verbal representation of an image affords.

Ad 2. For Heffernan, on the contrary, the dynamic and mobile figures are an indication of narrative. He further notes that there are also scenes “(...) that clearly meet all three of what Wendy Steiner calls the most important conditions of narrative: ‘more than one temporal moment,’ a subject ‘repeated from one moment to another,’ and ‘a minimally realistic setting’”. The lawsuit would be such a scene (497-508), because it would consist of three distinct and temporally successive phases of action. It

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16 Giuliani 2003: 41: “[s]ehr deutlich verweist der Text hier auf die Eigenart und die Grenzen des Bildes, ohne sich in seinem Verlauf allerdings konsequent an diese Grenzen zu halten”.

17 See de Jong 2011: 11, note 4 for an overview of scholars who hold the opinion that the figures can really move.


19 Heffernan 1993: 13, who refers to Steiner 1988: 2. Steiner, however, discusses the narrative possibilities of painting, so that Heffernan’s conclusion on the basis of these three criteria that the lawsuit scene has “(...) been turned so thoroughly into narrative that we can hardly see a picture through Homer’s words” is rather ironic.
could be, of course, that the shield contains three separate images, i.e. that the sequence of events is forged on the shield, but this is not the case, according to Heffernan. In fact, it is impossible to visualize the shield, because “[a]ll we can see – all that really exists in this passage [497-508] – is Homer’s language, which not only rivals but actually displaces the work of art it ostensibly describes and salutes.” However, Heffernan does acknowledge that Homer never forgets that he is representing representation itself: every “narrative” starts with a reference to the making and placing of the scene on the shield; furthermore, Homer concludes his “most dramatic narratives” on a note of suspension which evokes the stasis of sculpture.

The idea that the shield ekphrasis is narrative had much earlier been stated by Friedländer (1912), the author of the only comprehensive survey of ekphrasis in antiquity. For Friedländer, description should represent the surface appearance of a work of art. As soon as the narrator inserts elements which cannot be represented by a static work of art, the narrator has turned to narration. Friedländer’s judgement has proved influential. Heffernan, for example, shares Friedländer’s view that the shield

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20 Heffernan 1993: 14; earlier on that page he notes that “[t]he work of poetic conversion here – the turning of spatial composition into verbal narrative – is impossible to discern or define because we have no inferential access to the composition itself. As a whole, in fact, the shield is shielded by the very language that purports to reveal it to us”. For the idea of rivalry between word and image, see section 1.3.1 above.

21 Friedländer 1912: 2: “[d]er Dichter ist einfach nicht imstande, eine bildmäßige Vorstellung, von der er ausgeht, etwa die belagerte Stadt, dauernd festzuhalten, sondern er wird von einer durchaus jugendlichen Freude an belebter Erzählung beherrscht. Gewiß hat er Kunstwerke gesehen, die Schildereien zeigten; wo hätte er sonst die Anregung her? Aber das Gefühl des energisch flutenden Lebens erfüllt ihn; das ruhende Bild löst sich ihm in Handlung auf, seine Figuren bewegen sich, wie auf einer Wandellbühne, und er leihit ihnen Gedanken und Empfindungen ohne Rücksicht auf das, was körperliche Darstellung wiederzugeben vermag. So bleibt denn nirgends ein fremder Bestandteil in der epischen Erzählung, sondern das Ganze ist in deren vorwärtsziehenden Strom aufgenommen”.

22 Becker 1995: 9: “(...) Friedländer (...) assumed that true description is the representation of the surface appearance of a work of visual art. An ekphrasis should try to represent, as faithfully as possible, the visible features of a work” (emphasis in the original); see also Becker 2003: 7-8.

23 Friedländer was not the first to argue thus; a similar judgement is found in J.C. Scaliger’s Poetics (see Vogt-Spira 1998: 194-7; I owe this reference to Primavesi 2002: 193).
ekphrasis is narrative, as do other scholars. Similarly, scholars who hold that the shield ekphrasis is a mix of description and narration mostly depart from the assumption that an ekphrasis is, or should be, description. Elements which do not befit a static work of art, such as movement or sound, are labelled as narrative.

Ad 3. Among scholars who argue that the shield ekphrasis is a mixture of description and narration, Byre is the only one who has addressed the descriptivity of the ekphrasis. Using the terminology of Hamon, Byre notes that the ekphrasis consists of an introductory theme and various subthemes, which he regards as a feature of description. With one exception, the subthemes are nouns which designate a place. He notes that in most of the scenes movement is found within these places, but he argues that “this is not usually sufficient to turn the scenes into true narratives”. Byre adduces three reasons for this. Firstly, he notes that in a number of scenes movements are related by iterative verbs or iterative temporal constructions; these movements are repetitive, and have no inherent beginning or end. Secondly, most of these

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24 For the idea that the shield ekphrasis is narrative, see also e.g. Elliger 1975: 35 (“[w]ie man immer wieder betont hat, ‘beschreibt’ der Dichter des Schildes nicht, sondern ‘erzählt’, öfters in ganzen Szenenfolgen und so, als wäre das Dargestellte lebendig (….). Insgesamt sind zeitlichen Kategorien für die Darstellungen auf dem Schild wichtiger als räumlichen, haben temporale Konjunktionen und Adverbien (...) bei der Gliederung des Geschehens Vorrang vor den lokalen (...)”); Aubriot 1997: 25 (“[a] vrai dire, comment pourraient-elles l’être (...) dans un style narratif qui ne se distingue guère de celui du reste de l’épopée? Quelle peut bien être la justification de cette description qui n’en est pas une?”, cf. also Aubriot 2003: 136); and Alden 2000: 48 (“(...) nowhere else does the poet of the Iliad extrapolate into narrative static motifs such as those represented on the shield. The poet describes the scenes on the shield in his own voice: they are like complex moving pictures of situations which develop even as they are described.”).

25 E.g. Schmale 2004: 108-9: “[w]ie auch bei vielen späteren Ekphraseis, geht die Beschreibung oft in Narration über, was man besonders gut an der antithetisch angelegten Schilderung der beiden Städten beobachten kann (...). Die Beschreibung geht nämlich über das hinaus, was auf einem unbeweglichen Bild dargestellt werden kann; der Beschreiber wird zu einem olympischen Erzähler, der außer über den inneren Zustand der Figuren über alles informiert ist. Die Darstellung der sich im Krieg befindenden zweiten Stadt ist ganz und gar erzählend (...”).

26 Byre 1992: 38-9. For themes and subthemes, see further section 2.2.2.

27 The exception is ἀγέλην in 18.573, which designates a herd (see section 3.3.3.3, 6).


29 Byre refers to 18.544-6, 566, 599 and 602.
movements refer to a plurality of actors.\textsuperscript{30} Thirdly, the scenes in which these movements are found are low in narrative interest, because “they lack specificity and singularity in time and place and personages and action”.\textsuperscript{31} Byre concludes that these scenes are low in narrativity, but does not address the question what this might mean for their descriptivity.\textsuperscript{32}

Byre argues that there are three scenes – the lawsuit (497–508), the city at war (509–40), and the herd of cattle (573–86) – which do possess specificity and singularity. In fact, they have a high degree of narrativity, since they possess temporal sequentiality and causality.\textsuperscript{33} Byre further argues that they develop into stories with a plot.\textsuperscript{34} However, these stories do not have an end, since they are broken off before they can reach their resolution; the scenes thus “congeal again into the static artistic representations which began to be described in their first lines”.\textsuperscript{35}

According to de Jong, the extent of narration is high throughout the shield ekphrasis.\textsuperscript{36} She detects five forms of narration: 1) reference to sounds; 2) use of indirect speech and embedded focalization; 3) introduction of comparisons; 4) reference to the real-life properties (res ipsae) of the entities depicted, rather than to the precious metals of which they are made (opus ipsum); and 5) representation of different moments of time (as in the lawsuit scene, or in the city at war).\textsuperscript{37} In the case of the lawsuit, de Jong puts forward the idea that it could be the case that Hephaestus is

\begin{itemize}
\item\textsuperscript{30} Byre 1992: 39. He further suggests that “it is possible to interpret the poet’s words not as referring to the repeated actions of the same individuals, but rather as a synthesis and summary of different phases of the same action as they are performed by different actors on the represented scene before his mind’s eye”.
\item\textsuperscript{31} Byre 1992: 39; for the idea that pictures of typical scenes and perennial activities are low in narrativity Byre refers to Steiner 1988: 9-12.
\item\textsuperscript{32} Although he later speaks of “(...) descriptive scenes” which “show typical scenes of the eternally recurring processes of life” (ibid.: 40). Byre’s definition of narrativity (for which see ibid.: 38) is borrowed from Prince [1987] 2003: 65.
\item\textsuperscript{33} Byre 1992: 39–40.
\item\textsuperscript{34} Byre 1992: 40: “[t]he audience asks itself not merely ‘what will be mentioned next?’ as it does with the descriptive scenes, but ‘what will happen next – will the besieged, or the besiegers win?’ etc.”.
\item\textsuperscript{35} Byre 1992: 40.
\item\textsuperscript{36} de Jong does not conceive of the shield ekphrasis as pure narration, but as “(...) a highly subtle combination and blending of narration and description” (de Jong 2011: 7).
\item\textsuperscript{37} de Jong 2011: 5–6, where see for examples.
\end{itemize}
employing the synoptic method, i.e. that he compresses several successive actions into one scene on the shield. In the case of the city at war, however, she draws attention to adverbs of speed (525-32), and concludes that “[h]ere we are dealing not merely with a succession of actions but with a speedy succession of actions, and to express such speed is a property of a narrative not of a picture”. In addition, she notes the occurrence of aorist tenses in 525-30, “which in particular fit the extreme narrativisation of the first scene with its many adverbs of time”.

As this overview has made clear, scholars use various criteria to establish whether the shield ekphrasis is narrative and/or descriptive. Both descriptive and narrative elements will be further discussed in the next section, which investigates the narrativity and descriptivity of the shield ekphrasis anew.

3.3.1 Shield of Achilles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Overview of Tenses
I want to start this section with an overview of tenses, and establish which discourse modes are found in the text. Because the shield ekphrasis is part of a larger passage, I will also take the surrounding lines into account; my analysis concerns lines 468-613. The main clauses in these lines contain aorists, imperfects, and pluperfects. The alternation of aorists and imperfects indicates that the passage contains a sequence of events. However, the distribution of tenses is not even: in those lines that refer to the making of the arms (468-82 and 609-613), aorists and imperfects predominate, but in those that deal mainly with what is depicted on the shield (483-608), it is the imperfect which is used the most, as the following table makes clear:

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39 de Jong 2011: 7. She has also noted the aorists in 544-7. These are, however, different in that they are iterative aorists. See further my discussion below.
40 I believe that the use of tense is of paramount importance for the correct understanding of ekphrasis. Some scholars are of a different opinion. Heffernan 1993: 25, for example, notes that in Virgil’s temple ekphrasis “the tenses of the verbs used to describe the pictures indicate which actions are depicted and which are added by the narrative about the pictures”, but he denies that Homer makes a similar distinction (“[t]his kind of distinction, which Homer does not make in his ekphrastic narratives (...)”, emphasis mine). Most recently, Squire 2013: 185, note 26, though referring to Primavesi 2002: 194-201, has stated that “(...) Homeric differentiations of tense were never quite as clear cut as they were for later Greek authors, but the general point nevertheless stands” (emphasis mine).
41 I have counted all finite verb forms in main clauses; the following tenses have not been taken into consideration because they occur in subordinate clauses: ἐθέλοι, ἄνοιτο (473); ἐπεφάνωται
If we look more closely at 483-608, and count only tenses which refer to the images on the shield, the following table results:\(^43\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>468-82</th>
<th>483-608</th>
<th>609-13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(preparation; making of the shield)</td>
<td>(making of the images on the shield)</td>
<td>(making of the rest of the armour)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aorists</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which iterative aorists(^42)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperfects</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pluperfects</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Use of tenses in main clauses in 468-613

It is clear from table 3.2 that in those sections which refer to the images six normal aorists are found. They occur in three clusters: three aorists in 525-8, two in 532, and one in 581.\(^44\) The iterative aorists occur in two clusters, two in 546, and two in 599-602. These

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>number of times used</th>
<th>percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aorists</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iterative aorists</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperfects</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pluperfects</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>total</strong></td>
<td><strong>91</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2: Tenses used to refer to the images in 483-608

(485); καλέουσιν (487); στρέφεται, ἴσθε (488); ἐστί (489); ἐίποι (508); ἔχε (515); ἰκανον, ἰκε (520); ἔγν (521); ἰδίατο (524); ἐπεύθυστον (530); ἰδίατο (544); τρυγόν (566); πείρασται, ἐβέλευ (601). For a somewhat different counting of tenses, see Primavesi 2002: 196-8.

42 These are iterative verb forms built on the aorist stem: δόσκεν, στρέψασκον (546); ἔργεσκον (599, 602).

43 The following tenses do not refer to the images in 463-608, and have therefore not been counted: (referring to acts of Hephaestus) ἔτευξε (482); ποίησε (490, 573, 587); ἐτίθει (541, 550, 561, 607); ἐπεύθυστο (564); ποικίλλε (590); (in a comparison) ἰδίατο (592).

44 προγένοντο (525); προνόησαν (526); ἐπέδραμον (527); μετεκεδάσαν, ἰκεντο (532); μετεκεδάσαν (581). According to the LSJ, μετεκεδάσαν can be either imperfect or aorist (s.v. μετακιάθω), but I follow Chantraine 1948: 328 in labelling it as an aorist.
lines contain the diegetic discourse mode. The majority of lines, then, which refer to the images contain the descriptive discourse mode, since they contain exclusively imperfects and pluperfects. This means that the text of these lines does not feature a sequence of events. I will further discuss the significance of these results below in section 3.3.3. First, I want to take a look at the passage as a whole, and more specifically at Hephaestus’ actions.

3.3.2 Shield of Achilles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Hephaestus’ Actions (468-613)
As stated in the previous section, the backbone of the passage (468-613) is formed by a sequence of events.45 These events – Hephaestus making new arms for Achilles – are part of the fabula of the Iliad.46 The passage can be divided into four parts: 1) 468-77, 2) 478-82, 3) 483-608, and 4) 609-13. The first part is characterized by a technical

45 This narrative element was also recognised in antiquity, as is clear from the ancient name for book 18 of the Iliad, the ὁπλοποιία (e.g. Str. 1.1.7). Theon, one of the authors of the Progymnasmata, cites the ὁπλοποιία as an example of an ekphrasis of the manner in which something is made: ἡ δὲ καὶ τρόπων εἰσὶν ἐκφράσεις, ὁποῖαι τῶν σκευῶν καὶ τῶν ὅπλων καὶ τῶν μηχανημάτων, ἐν τρόπον ἑκατὸν παρεσκευάσθη, ὡς όπλον μὲν Ὅμηρῳ ἡ Ὁπλοποιία (…), “there are also ekphraseis of the manner, such as those describing the manner in which pieces of equipment were made, like the making of the arms in Homer” (118.21-4, text in Patillon 1997: 67, translation by Webb 2009: 197; for this passage see further ibid.: 70).

46 According to Létoublon 1999: 212, the shield of Achilles is the only object in the Iliad of which the fabrication forms part of the fabula, which indicates its exceptional character; a comparable passage in the Odyssey is 5.233-62, where Odysseus builds his own ship. All the other ekphraseis in the corpus of this study contain finished objects, just as the shields of Achilles in Q.S. 5.3-101 and of Dionysus in Nonnus D. 25.380-567. In fact, it seems that in later ekphraseis a finished object becomes the norm.
vocabulary referring to metalwork. It relates how Hephaestus prepares himself and his smithy for work. The second part deals with the forging of the shield as a whole:

First of all he made a shield both great and mighty, ornamenting it all over; he set around it a shining rim that was threefold and glittering, and from it a strap made of silver. The shield was composed of five layers: on it he made many richly ornamented things through his skilful craftsmanship.

These five lines narrate the creation of the shield, its rim, and its shield strap. The narratees first learn that Hephaestus creates a big and sturdy shield, while decorating it (478-9a). Although not explicitly stated, the shield must be huge as well as round.

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47 I note: φύσας (468, “bellows”), χοάνοισιν (470, “nozzle through which the blast is forced, tuyere”, so Jameson quoted in Edwards 1991: 210), ἐφύσων (470, “they blew”), χαλκόν (474, “bronze”), κασσίτερον (474, “tin”), χρυσόν (475, “gold”), ἄργυρον (475, “silver”), and lines 475b-7 as a whole: αὐτὰρ ἔπειτα / θῆκεν ἐν ἀκμοθέτῳ μέγαν ἄκμονα, γέντο δὲ χειρὶ / ῥαιστῆρα κρατερήν, ἑτέρηφι δὲ γέντο πυράγρην, “and next he placed upon its standard the great anvil, and gripped in one hand the ponderous hammer, while in the other he grasped the fire-pincers”. Cerri 2010: 29, with the scholia, emphasizes the visual aspect of these lines (468-77).

48 The passage consists of an alternation of aorists (λίπεν, βῆ (468), ἔτρεψε, κέλευσέ (469); θῆκεν (476); γέντο (476, 477)) and imperfects (ἐφύσων (470); βάλλεν (474)).

49 In these lines only imperfects are found. These could perhaps be scenic (for this use of the imperfect see Rijksbaron [1984] 2002: 12); alternatively, ποίει in 478 creates “a framework with the aorists expressing a series of actions undertaken within that framework” (de Jong 2011: 7, for this use of the imperfect see Rijksbaron [1984] 2002: 11).

50 According to Minchin 2001: 128, “the description of the shield itself is in accordance with the Homeric format: the shield is sturdy (summary description, 478); it is huge (size, 478); it is carefully worked (workmanship, 479); it has a triple rim that glitters and a silver strap (feature, 480). The element material is subsumed in the preceding lines (474-7). The history of the shield has been expressed through the narrative (369-477): it has been made for Achilles by Hephaistos at the request of Thetis” (italics in the original). On a possible difference in meaning...
because all shields in the *Iliad* are huge and round.\(^\text{51}\) Hephaestus next throws a rim around the shield (479b-480a). Line 480b lacks a finite verb, but the accusative case indicates that a verb of making must be supplied.\(^\text{52}\)

In line 481 the narrator focuses on the shield itself (αὐτοῦ...σάκεος), which has five layers. The narrator does not state that Hephaestus makes these layers, but uses ἔσαν, “there were”. Scholars have tried to connect these five layers (πέντε...πτύχες) with the decoration on the surface of the shield – it would run in five circles around the shield – but this is unlikely.\(^\text{53}\) Rather, the πτύχες concern the inner structure of the shield.\(^\text{54}\) In addition, the narrator states that Hephaestus puts the decoration (δαίδαλα πολλά) on the shield itself (ἐν αὐτῷ), not on the πτύχες.\(^\text{55}\) With οὐσώσα αὐτῷ (481), the narrator opens the “digression” that deals with what is depicted on the shield; the “digression” is closed in 609 with οὐσώσα ἐπεὶ δὴ τεῦξε σάκος (...).\(^\text{56}\)

In the third part (483-608), the narrator relates what is depicted on the shield – in other words, he relates what the δαίδαλα πολλά look like. The narrator does not state how the decoration is arranged, with the exception of the ocean, which runs around the rim of the shield (607-8). Apart from ἔλασσε (564), which refers to a specific process of beating out metal, the narrator uses verbs that refer to the process of making

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\(^{51}\) van Wees 1992: 19 and 1994: 133: “[t]he *Iliad* consistently depicts round, bronze-faced, embossed shields of varying size, a few of which are fantastically large, just as some of them are fantastically ornate and made of fantastically expensive materials”.

\(^{52}\) Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 137: “ἐκ (…) auf σάκος bezüglich; daran, eigentlich herab (…), wozu ein Verbum wie ἐξῆπτε oder ἱκί (Τ 383) aus βάλλε vorschwebt”.

\(^{53}\) E.g. Willcock 1984: 269: “[t]he five ‘folds’ of the shield (481) indicate that the face showed a central circle surrounding by four concentric rings (...).”

\(^{54}\) See e.g. Gärtner 1976: 48. For archeological commentary, see Fittschen 1973: 6-7.

\(^{55}\) For the meaning of the phrase δαίδαλα πολλά (“many richly ornamented things”) see Brasswell 1988: 296 (ad Pl. P. 4.296 (b)) and Morris 1992: 3-4, and on this passage ibid.: 11-2. Here, as well as in Hes. *Th.* 581, the phrase introduces *figurative* decorations; its other occurrences in archaic epic are *Il.* 14.179 (which most likely also refers to figurative decorations), and *Il.* 18.400 (where it refers to small pieces of jewellery Hephaestus has made for Eurynome and Thetis). The next two occurrences of the phrase are in ekphraseis, A.R. 1.729 and Mosch. *Eur.* 43: δαίδαλα only recurs in Q.S. 5.4, for the significance of which see Maciver 2012: 43-5.

\(^{56}\) With ποίει: δαίδαλα πολλά (482) the narrator indicates that Hephaestus is now busy executing πάντοσε δαίδαλλον (479).
The verbs of making are accompanied by the adverb ἐν, which indicates that Hephaestus puts something on the shield; the passage is thus characterised by refrain-composition. This does, however, mean that the position of the images vis-à-vis each other remains unspecified. Scholars have tried to connect the variation in verbs of making (e.g. ἔτευξε in 483, but ποίησε in 490, and ἐτίθει in 541, 550 and 561) with a certain arrangement of the images. However, there is no additional textual evidence for such an arrangement.

Although the narrator uses verbs of making to introduce the various images on the shield, the images themselves are, for the most part, presented as finished.

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57 See LSJ s.v. ἐλαύνω III 1. Both imperfects and aorists are found: (imperfects) ἐτίθει (541, 550, 561), ποίκιλλε (590), and ἐτίθει (607); (aorists) ἔτευξε (483), ποίησε (490), ἔλασσε (564), and ποίησε (573, 587). The forms occur in clusters: two aorists (483, 490); three imperfects (541, 550, 561), three aorists (564, 573, 587), and two imperfects (590, 607).

58 For refrain-composition (or “Ritornellkomposition”) see de Jong 2001: xvi, who refers to van Otterlo 1944: 161-3.


60 It could be the case that variation in verbs is due to metrical factors: all verbs but one occupy different metrical positions, and if the same form is used more than once, that form always occupies an identical metrical position. The only exception is ποίκιλλε (590), which is found in the same metrical position as ποίησε (573, 583). Cf. de Jong 2011: 12, note 22.

61 So e.g. Friedländer 1912: 2: “[d]enn das ‘Machen’ erstreckt sich bis auf die eine Ausnahme nicht in die Teile hinein, sondern jeder Teil wird als fertiges Bild empfunden”, and Byre 1992: 36: “[t]he narrative of the making of the shield, thus, is not continued into the poet’s discussion of each of the individual scenes”. It is well-known that Zenodotus athetised 483-608. The A-scholion (18.483a) states: ὅτι Ζηνόδοτος ἠθέτηκεν ἀπὸ τούτου τοῦ στίχου τὰ λοιπά, ἀρκεσθεὶς τῇ κεφαλαιώδει προεκθέσει, “[note] that Zenodotus athetised from this line onwards the rest, because he was satisfied with the summary introduction [18.478-82]”. As a reason for Zenodotus’ athetization, it is often said that he did not understand the function of the shield ekphrasis (see e.g. Nünlist 2009: 207: “[I]t is quite likely that he failed to see the function of such a long elaboration at this point”). It could also be the case that Zenodotus was bothered by the combination of the finished images and the verbs of making, which suggest that the images are not yet finished.
example, after the narrator has related that Hephaestus *made* two cities on the shield (ἐν δὲ δύω ποίησε πόλεις...), he states that in one city there were marriages and feasts (ἐν τῇ μὲν ῥα γάμοι τ' ἔσαν εἰλαπίναι τε, 491). Ἐσαν (491) clearly indicates that the image is finished. In addition, in the shield ekphrasis two pluperfects occur, which evaluate two parts of the shield as finished (τέτυκτο, “had been made”, 549; τετεύχατο, “had been made”, 574). Apart from the references to making in the introductory lines, the narrator refers in one other instance only to an action of Hephaestus (564-5, περὶ δ’ ἐρχος ἔλασσε / κασσιτέρου, “and he forged a fence of tin around it”). Thus, although the narrator suggests by the verbs of making that Hephaestus is working on the images, it is the images themselves to which most attention is devoted. These are, furthermore, mostly presented as finished.

The repeated verbs of making, thus, seem to be a means for the narrator to organise his material, rather than a reflection of the process in which the shield is made by Hephaestus. A comparison with Agamemnon’s arming scene (*Il*. 11.15-46) will make this clear. Both passages are called Homeric or dramatized descriptions, but they differ in one important respect. The arming scene of Agamemnon consists of six different actions by Agamemnon. The order in which Agamemnon dresses is of importance: it would not be handy, if not impossible, to put one’s helmet on one’s head (the last element, 11.41-2) before having put on one’s greaves (the first element, 11.17-8). Consequently, the order of the events cannot be changed. Hephaestus’ actions in 18.483-608, however, are more or less similar: all refer to acts of putting, making or fashioning something on the shield. As Chatman notes, these actions are highly

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62 Cf. de Jong 2011: 7, who states that the pluperfect “at 549 perhaps also suggests that the narrator evaluates the finished work of art” (italics in the original).
63 Byre 1976: 55: “[t]he repeated prepositional phrase adverb ἐν with μὲν or δὲ is a formula used to organize the poet’s material rather than to indicate the artist’s organization of his (…). The verbs of manufacture in the ritournelle lines (…) function in the same way, while adding little to the information about the techniques of Hephaestus, whose tools and materials are mentioned cursorily in 468-477”. Indeed, the interest in technical details is nil here (so Bassett 1938: 95).
64 See section 2.4 for an extensive discussion of this arming scene.
The order in which these actions are performed does not matter: an earlier action has no consequences whatsoever for a later action. The fourth and last part (609-13) narrates the making of the remaining parts of Achilles’ arms. It starts with a summarizing line, which indicates that Hephaestus has finished the shield: αὐτὰρ ἐπεὶ δὴ τεῦξε σάκος μέγα τε στιβαρόν τε, “and after he had wrought the shield, huge and heavy” (609); this line forms a ring with line 478. After the retardation of 483-608, the making of the corselet, helmet and greaves is summarily narrated, with τεῦξε thrice repeated (610, 611, 613). Line 614 indicates that the whole armour (πάνθ’ ὅπλα) is finished; this line closes the making of the armour episode which had started at 468.

As stated above, the four parts of this passage are all different. Part one (468-77) deals with the technicalities of forging, part two (478-82) with the making of the shield as a whole, part three with the images (483-608), and part four (609-13) with the forging of the rest of the armour. Narrative rhythm varies, too: in part one it is relatively fast, in part four even faster; in part two the rhythm starts to slow down; part three is a major retardation. It would have been a pause, were it not for the repeated verbs of making.

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65 Chatman 1990: 33: “[n]ot that the event [Hephaestus’ actual fabrication of the shield] is terribly interesting in its surface representation: it is highly iterative, recounting simply a series of Hephaistos’s ‘fashionings,’ ‘placings,’ ‘puttings,’ ‘makings,’ ‘workings,’ and the like (…)”.
66 Cf. Hagstrum 1958: 19, note 35. He argues against Lessing, who stated that Homer does not describe the shield as finished and complete, but as being wrought: “Lessing seems to ignore precisely what happens in reading Homer’s icon – that the reader moves from section to section, detail to detail, and the verbs referring to the process of making are secondary. Lessing disliked description on principle but admired Homer’s and was forced to find grounds other than visual and pictorial to explain his admiration”; a similar judgement in Primavesi 2002: 199.
67 Stanley 1993: 9-13 detects large-scale ring composition throughout the whole of the shield ekphrasis, but most of his rings are not based on verbal repetition, but on vague correspondences between images.
68 This section consists of four aorists; the other being ἤκε in 612.
69 Byre 1976: 16 even argues that “(…) there is no true progression of fictional time, for the entire process of the shield’s production has been summarized in the narrative preceding the description, and there is nothing to suggest that the poet is following a chronological order in the sequence of his descriptions of the represented scenes” (emphasis mine). Richardson 1990: 64 does not know what to think of this passage: “[t]he most remarkable pause involving movement through time is the description of Achilles’s shield while it is being made. **Iliad** 18.478 begins the forging, and the shield is completed at 607. Although the lines between give a full
The verbs of making, then, camouflage or mitigate the pause that could have occurred on account of the insertion of such a large amount of digressive material. These verbs are but a thin veneer, which could explain why in all other ekphraseis of this study – indeed, in almost all later ekphraseis – the narrator presents a finished object. At any rate, it is now time to turn to the images, and establish their narrativity and/or descriptivity.

3.3.3.1 Shield of Achilles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Images (483-608):

Ekphrasis is the verbal representation of a visual representation, and as such embodies two layers of representation: a primary verbal layer, the text, and a secondary visual layer, the image. In this study, I investigate ekphraseis of narrative images, i.e. the images depicted on the object have a certain degree of narrativity. It should be noted that a narrative image does not automatically lead to a narrative text; the text could also remain descriptive. This can be schematized as follows (see also table 1.1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text (as the representation of the image)</th>
<th>Image (as the representation of action)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. descriptive</td>
<td>narrative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. narrative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3

As regards the images on the shield of Achilles, most scholars are agreed that they are narrative. My aim is to investigate their degree of narrativity. In the case of the text, the situation is more complex. As we have seen in section 3.3.1 above, the descriptive discourse mode is dominant in passages that refer to the images. To be precise, of the tenses used to refer to the images, 89\% (imperfects: 78\%, pluperfects 11\%) is associated description of each part of the shield, we are continually reminded that the action has not stopped. Every few lines a verb of making reminds us that the narrator is describing a shield that is in the process of being designed even as we watch. The confusion between pause and action is intensified by the many passages suggesting movement in the static scenes on the shield.

70 Cf. de Jong forthc.

71 For the terminology employed, see section 1.3.1.

72 This much is clear from the overview in 3.2. See also Snodgrass 1998: 161, who speaks of the “strong narrative content” of the shield.
with the descriptive discourse mode. This means that the text has, by and large, a descriptive organization.

A descriptive organization indicates, first of all, that event sequencing is absent from the text. This is important: it means that in those lines in which the descriptive discourse mode is found – and these lines are in the majority – the first basic element of narrative is absent. This, in turn, means that this passage (483-608) differs markedly from the majority of passages in the *Iliad*, which do contain a sequence of events. Because there is no sequence of events, time is static, and only story time advances. The text has a main theme (the δαίδαλα πολλά of 482) with various subthemes (e.g. ἐν δὲ δύω ποίησε πόλεις, 490). These subthemes may also have subthemes (ἐν τῇ μὲν ἡμέρᾳ γάμοι τ' ἔσαν ἔλαλησαν τε, “in the one there were marriages and feasts”, 491). The subthemes are mostly enumerated (δέ; sometimes μέν...δέ). Spatial progression is less frequent, though spatial markers often occur at the beginning of new subthemes (e.g ἐν τῇ μέν, 491; τὴν δ’ ἑτέρην πόλιν ἀμφί, 509). The text thus mostly proceeds via enumeration.

We seem to be confronted by a paradox: while the text is largely organized descriptively, the *images* are of a narrative nature. The fact that a descriptive text can refer to a narrative image is mainly due to the use of the imperfect. The imperfect may designate a state (as in 491, ἔσαν), but also an ongoing event (as in 492-3: νύμφας δ’ ἐκ θαλάμων δαΐδων ὕπο λαμπομενα / ἠγίνεον ἀνὰ ἄστυ (...), “they were leading brides from their rooms accompanied by flaring torches through the city”). Most imperfects on the shield designate ongoing events. These ongoing events do not reach their endpoint, which means that they do not form a sequence of events. Thus, by employing the imperfect the narrator represents actions or events in the text, but by avoiding to turn these into a sequence of events the narrator does not create a text with a narrative organization.

Scholars have indeed regarded the imperfect as the tense best suited to represent actions depicted on a static object. In the words of Becker, “[t]he imperfect tense (...)

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73 The remaining 11% consists of aorists; these are discussed below.
74 This observation only holds for those events found in main clauses, since the analysis only takes main clauses into account.
76 See for the terminology employed section 2.2.2.
77 Cf. Elliger 1975: 35, who speaks of “(...) lokale Fixpunkte, die der Einzelszene ihren Ort zuweisen und ihr einen gewissen räumlichen Halt geben”.
78 See Giuliani and Primavesi in section 3.2 above; and my own remarks in 2.2.2.
could reflect the visual image: given its progressive aspect, the imperfect could represent the necessary incompleteness of a depicted action that is frozen in a metallic representation.\textsuperscript{79} In a similar vein, Vanderlinden states that the imperfect is used to describe actions directly represented on the shield.\textsuperscript{80} We may rephrase both remarks and say that the imperfect is used for what the images on the shield represent, for the rendering of the \textit{res ipsae} in the text.\textsuperscript{81} By virtue of the imperfect, the \textit{res ipsae} are imagined as ongoing events: the narrator imagines that something is going on before his eyes, i.e. as if the figures depicted on the shield are performing actions. Thus, the narrator translates a static image, as it were, into a number of ongoing events.\textsuperscript{82}

\textsuperscript{79} Becker 1995: 109; a similar remark was already made by Byre 1976: 38-9, who while discussing the use of tense in Greek ekphrasis stated that the imperfect, because it expresses “(…) a past action seen in its duration, is the tense best suited to the description of static objects belonging to the epic past and the tense which best conveys the idea of action permanently frozen in representational art (…)”; Byre refers to Szantyr 1970: 30, who remarks in connection with Virgil’s ekphraseis that the imperfect “(…) entspricht der bildlichen Permanenz des dargestellten Vorgangs”.

\textsuperscript{80} Vanderlinden 1980: 122: “l'imparfait sert à décrire les actions représentées directement, et c'est la grande majorité des formes verbales du texte”. Stansbury-O’Donnell 1995: 322 agrees: “the poet’s use of the imperfect sets the basic key for passages describing the scene. (…) it is used consistently throughout this passage [18.497-508] and the shield as a whole to indicate what actually appears on the shield (…)”; similar remarks in Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 43.

\textsuperscript{81} Cf. further Stahl 1907: 96-7, who mentions “[a]ls besondere Arten des Imperfektums der ununterbrochenen Dauer” the “Imperfektum der Beschreibungen und Schilderungen” (where see for examples; the shields of Achilles and Heracles are both mentioned); Rijksbaron [1984] 2002: 12 speaks of “(…) series of imperfects, describing a number of more or less simultaneous states of affairs; a ‘scene is painted’, so to speak” (emphasis mine). The reason why the imperfect can be used for this purpose is explained by Fleischman 1990: 74: “[g]iven that [imperfective] tenses view a situation as a process and without regard to its endpoints, they remove the possibility of its being apprehended as a completed whole. They are in this sense ideally suited for reporting experiences represented as the perception of an eyewitness (…) and are at the same time antithetical to narration” (emphasis mine).

\textsuperscript{82} Not only are these actions forever ongoing, by their depiction on the shield they are also happening at the same time. This simultaneity is fitting for an image, since in a static representation all actions depicted can indeed be said to happen simultaneously.
In the shield ekphrasis, mostly ongoing events are described.83 This is due to the fact that the Homeric narrator – who is also the focalizer – is mostly interested in what the images represent, in the res ipsae.84 The opus ipsum receives little attention.85 On the whole, the narrator-focalizer does not “look” at the surface of the shield, but directly at what the images on the shield represent, at the visual story that is depicted. On this point the Homeric narrator does not in any way differ from a modern-day viewer: if I look at a photograph or a painting, it is not the material of the photograph or the paint that interests me; I want to know what the photograph or picture represents.86

In what follows, the images on the shield will be treated separately. Text and image are, as far as possible, discussed separately. As stated above, the text mostly has a descriptive structure. Some parts of the text, however, contain elements which are associated with the diegetic discourse mode, i.e. they have a narrative textual structure. As for the images on the shield, I will determine their degree of narrativity. This investigation of the images’ degree of narrativity is based on two assumptions. First, I assume that it is the narrator’s aim to represent images in the text. Second, when it comes to deciding how many separate images are represented in the text, I assume that the text is organized as economically as possible, i.e. that the narrator refers to as few separate images as possible, unless there is clear evidence to the contrary.

83 As has been rightly remarked by Palm 1965-6: 119: “(...) überall ereignet sich etwas, mehr Vorkomnisse als Dinge sind beschrieben” (emphasis mine).
84 Cf. Palm (quoted in the previous note), and Byre 1976: 38, who states that the poet will “(...) describe the representations as representations” (emphasis in the original). See further my remarks in section 1.3.2. On the role of the narrator in the shield ekphrasis, see further de Jong 2011: 4-5.
85 See for a list of references to the opus ipsum de Jong 2011: 6, and 12, note 18.
86 Cf. Stansbury-O’Donnell 1995: 321: “[w]hen looking at a vase it is, I would argue, likely that an eight-century B.C. viewer thought less in terms of the component shapes making up a form, than of their pattern that suggested a warrior, a woman, a goat, a funeral bier, or some other form of the visible world like that imagined by the poet of the Iliad [i.e. in the shield ekphrasis]”. Similarly Holliday 1993: 5-6: “[i]n ancient art, which often tends to abstract time and event, the observer must become more than simply a decoder of messages. The observer must assimilate and construct the material presented by the artists in order to produce meaning: In a very real sense, the observer, both today as in antiquity, must become the true narrator, connecting the discrete images that have been brought into association with one another through artistic convention” (emphasis mine).
3.3.3.2 Shield of Achilles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Overview of Images (483-608)

1. Earth, sky, sea; sun, moon; constellations (483-9)
2. Two cities:
   (a) A city at peace: wedding processions (490-6); a lawsuit (497-508)
   (b) A city at war: a siege, some inhabitants are marching out to ambush their enemy's herdsmen, a battle (509-40)
3. A field being ploughed: the ploughmen are offered wine whenever they reach the end of the field (541-9)
4. A king's domain: labourers harvesting the crop, the king silently looking on, a meal being prepared (550-60)
5. A vineyard: young men and women carrying grapes to the accompaniment of a boy's music (561-72)
6. A herd of cattle: two lions attacking a bull (573-86)
7. A sheep-pasture (587-9)
8. A dancing floor filled with dancers (590-606)
9. The Ocean around the shield's rim (607-8)

3.3.3.3 Shield of Achilles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Analysis of Images (483-608)

1. Earth, sky, sea; sun, moon; constellations (483-9)

Ἐν μὲν γὰρ ἐτευξ’, ἐν δ’ οὐρανόν, ἐν δὲ θάλασσαν, ἢλιον τ’ ἄκαμαντα σελήνην τε πλήθουσαν, 
ἐν δὲ τὰ τείρεα πάντα, τα τ’ οὐρανός ἀστεφάνωται, 
Πληϊάδας θ’ Ὑάδας τε τὸ τοῦ σθένους Ὠρίωνος Ἀρκτόν θ’, ἣν καὶ Ἀμαξαν ἐπίκλησιν καλέουσιν, 
ἡ τ’ αὐτοῦ στρέφεται καὶ τ’ Ὠρίωνα δοκεύει, 
οἴη δ’ ἄμμορός ἐστι λοετρῶν Ὀκεανοῖο.

On it he fashioned the earth, and on it the sky, and on it the sea, and the tireless sun and the full moon, (485) and on it [he fashioned] all the constellations, with which heaven is crowned, the Pleiades and the Hyades and the mighty Orion and the Bear, which men also call by the name

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77 Overview reproduced from Byre 1992: 33-34 and Squire 2013: 159. Each image is introduced with ἐν plus a verb of making.
78 Verbs between square brackets have not been counted in the analyses of tenses (see 3.2 above).
Wagon, which circles in her place and watches Orion, and [which] alone takes no part in the baths of Ocean.

The text which represents the first image has a descriptive structure. It consists of an enumeration of six subthemes: γαῖαν, οὐρανόν, θάλασσαν; ἠέλιον τ' ἀκάμαντα σελήνην τε πλήσονσαν; τὰ τείρεα πάντα. The Πληϊάδας θ' Ὑάδας τε τό τε σθένος Ὠρίωνος / Ἀρκτόν θ' are a specification of τὰ τείρεα πάντα, and thus a subtheme of τὰ τείρεα πάντα.89 The rest of this passage consists of four relative clauses, containing a perfect tense (485) and three (omnitemporal or habitual) present tenses (487-9).90 In addition, epic τε occurs thrice (once in 485, twice in 488).91 On account of epic τε and the present tenses, these relative clauses are permanent-digressive.92 They provide the narratee with general background information,93 and therefore do not describe what is depicted on the shield.94

Apart from the descriptive structure, no other prototypical elements of description are present in the text. There is no explicit attribution of qualities to subthemes in main clauses. The narrator provides almost no information of what the subthemes look like,

89 Τά in 485a refers to the relative clause in 485b (for this use of the anaphoric pronoun see Monro [1882] 1891: 225 and Chantraine 1953: 162); perhaps it may also refer to those constellations which are listed in 486-7. Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 138 translate τά with “those which are known” (“die (bekannten) Gestirne”).
90 For this use of the present tense, see section 2.3.2 above.
91 Alternatively, the first τε in 488 connects the two relatives (cf. Ruijgh 1971: 393).
92 For this term, see Ruijgh 1971: 2.
93 For the difference between general background information and description, cf. Smith 2003: 32, who speaks not only of a descriptive mode, but also of an information mode: “[t]he Information mode gives information, presenting it as uncontroversial. Informative passages introduce mainly General Statics – generics and generalizing sentences – into the universe of discourse. This is the main difference between the Information and Description modes; the latter focuses on specifics, particulars of a single state of affairs”.
94 For this idea, see also Byre 1992: 39: “(...) the relative clauses pertaining to constellations in the first scene [485-89] (...) are authorial comments concerning the subjects of the representations rather than the representations themselves”; Becker 1995: 105 notes that “[t]he clause in line 487 does not elaborate the picture, but rather elaborates the way one talks about the referent of the picture”. Finkelberg 2004: 236 states regarding line 488 that the “(...) the picture of the starry sky introduced in Iliad 18 is too general to require such a detailed description of one of the constellations”. For a similar relative clause, see Il. 11.27-8 (discussed in 2.4.1).
either in reality or as depicted on the shield. He states nothing about the earth, the sky, and the sea; the sun is said to be tireless but this is no visual detail; only the moon is full (πλήθουσαν, 486). All constellations are present, but how these are positioned in the sky – if this is even the case – is unclear.

The narrativity of the image is zero. In contrast with the majority of images on the shield, lines 483-9 lack anthropomorphic beings, which are a necessary condition for narrativity. There are no imperfect tenses which refer to the res ipsae. These lines thus contain no ongoing events, which means, in turn, that movement is lacking; the heavenly bodies are depicted in stasis.

2a. The city at peace

Ἐν δὲ δύο ποίησε πόλεις μερόπων ἀνθρώπων καλὰς. ἐν τῇ μὲν ρα γάμοι τ᾿ ἦσαν εἰλαπίναι τε, νύμφαι δ᾿ ἐκ δαίδων ὕπο λαμπομέναι, ἡγύνεον αὖ ἅμτι, πολὺς δ᾿ ὧμέναις ἀφάρει, κόηροι δ᾿ ἀρχηστήρες ἐδίνεον, ἐν δ᾿ ἄρα τοῖσιν αὐλοὶ φόρμιγγές τε βοὴν ἔχουν, ἀνὰ ἄστυ, πολὺς δ᾿ ὑμέναιος ὀρώρει κοῦροι δ᾿ ὀρχηστῆρες ἐδίνεον, ἐν δ᾿αὐλοῖσιν ἑκάστῃ. λαοὶ δ᾿ εἰν ἀγορῇ ἦσαν αθρόοι· ἔνθα δὲ νεῖκος ἔσαν ἅμτι.
And on it he made two fair cities of mortal men. In the one there were marriages and feasts, and they were leading brides from their rooms accompanied by flaring torches through the city, and a loud wedding-song had arisen; young men, dancers, were spinning around, and in their midst were sounding flutes and lyres; and they, the women, were marvelling, while each of them was standing at their porches. The people were gathered in the place of assembly; and there an argument had arisen, and two men were quarrelling over the blood-price for a man who had died; the one was claiming to pay everything, (500) declaring publicly to the people; the other was refusing to accept anything. Both were eager to obtain a judgement by an arbitrator. The people were shouting in applause, helpers on both sides. Heralds were holding back the people; and they, the elders, were sitting on polished stones in the sacred circle, (505) and were holding in their hands the sceptres of the loud-voiced heralds; with these, next, they were leaping up to their feet, and were passing judgement in turns. In their midst were lying two talents of gold, to be given to whichever among them should utter the straightest judgement.

The next subtheme of the δαίδαλα πολλά are two cities. They are introduced together, which fits the descriptive structure of the text: it is often the case that a main theme is first introduced as a whole, after which the narrator can describe the various subthemes.100 With ἐν τῇ μέν we move into the first subtheme; the second subtheme will

100 See on this point Allan 2009: 179 (discussed in section 2.2.2), and on this line specifically Wirbelauer 1996: 148, who speaks of “Formulierungen, die als Überschrift das folgende Bild etikettieren (δύω … πόλεις ἀνθρώπων ἀνόικοι), wobei in V. 490f. noch die Besonderheit vorliegt, daß der Dichter zunächst einen Überblick bietet, um dann im folgenden Vers mittels ἐν τῇ μέν die Aufmerksamkeit auf die erste Stadt zu lenken. (...) Die Technik des Überschreibens oder der Etikettierung entspricht im übrigen den alltäglichen Erfahrungen bei der Versprachlichung.
not be introduced until 509 (τὴν δ’ ἑτέρην πόλιν). The two cities are conventionally called the “city at peace” and the “city at war” after a scholion on 490.\textsuperscript{110}

The city at peace consists of two further subthemes: 1) marriages and feasts (γάμοι τ’ ἔσαν εἰλαπίναι τε), elaborated in 492-6; and 2) the lawsuit, or better, the agora scene (λαοὶ δ’ εἰν ἀγορῇ ἔσαν ἀθρόοι), elaborated in 497-508.\textsuperscript{111} These two passages are clearly marked as separate subthemes: both are introduced with ἐ(ι)ν followed by ἔσαν, and provide an indication of what follows. In 497 there is a clear switch of location (εἰν ἀγορῇ); in addition, λαοὶ creates a contrast with the γυναῖκες of 495-6. In what follows, I will discuss each subtheme separately.

The text of 492-6 has a descriptive structure. Textual progression is enumerative: all clauses are connected with δέ; some spatial markers also occur: ἐν (491), ἐκ (492), ἀνά (493), ἐν (494), ἐπί (496).\textsuperscript{112} The tenses used are the imperfect, and one pluperfect (493).\textsuperscript{113} The imperfects are used to describe the \textit{res ipsae}.\textsuperscript{114} For the use of the pluperfect ὀρώρει (493), we should compare the similar form ὠρώρει in 498. Both pluperfects have their normal meaning, i.e. they are used to indicate that a state has arisen as a result of a previous action.\textsuperscript{115} In this sense, they may be said to equal the imperfect of ἔιπε, namely...
Thus, “a loud wedding-song had arisen” can also be translated with “there was a loud wedding song”. A song cannot be depicted on the shield. Nevertheless, the ὑμέναιος was usually sung by the bride’s attendants as they led her to the bridegroom’s house, and that is precisely what is going on in the previous line. The narrator adds information, which though easily inferred from the image, goes beyond the surface of the work of art. This does not, however, make the text narrative: as we have seen, the textual organization is descriptive.

In addition to the descriptive textual organization, some other prototypical elements of description are present in the text, too. The text contains one visual detail, λαμπομενάων (492). As for the occurrence of other qualities, I note καλάς (491) and πολύς (493); this last detail refers to sound. The narrator does not refer to the opus ipsum in these lines. The amount of detail is thus low. The descriptivity of the text, then, is mainly due to its descriptive textual organization, i.e. to the enumeration of figures and the actions they are involved in. This observation holds true for almost the whole of the shield ekphrasis.

I now want to assess the narrativity of the image. First, it should be noted that each verb has a different subject, which is always expressed, apart from the subject of ἦγίνεον. We do not find the same figures involved in more than one action. The figures are not named and remain anonymous, as elsewhere on the shield. Of the imperfect verbs, all subjects are plural. The plurals are variously interpreted. According to Ameis-Hentze, the plurals are generic; they state that only one wedding is depicted on the shield. Of the imperfect verbs, all subjects are plural. The plurals are variously interpreted. According to Ameis-Hentze, the plurals are generic; they state that only one wedding is depicted on the shield. Vanderlinden states that this scene is depicted more than once on the shield.

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107 Cf. also LSJ s.v. ὄρνυμι A 4, where it is stated that Apollonius Rhodius uses ὄρωρε as if it were ἦν (so e.g. 1.713) and ὀρώρει as if it were ἦν (e.g. 2.473, 3.457); similarly Mooney 1912: 114 (ad A.R. 1.713).
108 LSJ s.v. ὑμέναιος A.
109 For sound in descriptions, see Wolf 2007: 27.
110 Cf. the large amount of (visual) details in Agamemnon’s arming scene (see section 2.4.1).
111 This gives the clause an almost passive sense, with νύμφας positioned first: “and brides were being led (…)”.
112 As has been often remarked, e.g. by Marg [1957] 1971: 33.
Yet the easiest solution is simply to assume that throughout the city (ἀνὰ ἄστυ) a number of weddings are depicted, precisely as the text indicates.115

According to Byre, this scene is low in narrativity, because as a picture of a typical scene it lacks “(...) specificity and singularity in time and place and personages and action”.116 This is indeed the case. The reason why this image can be called a typical scene is because it depicts weddings as they are normally celebrated; in other words, the events in the image follow a script. Of this wedding script, neither begin nor end is depicted: only a number of actions from its middle part are portrayed. Not only event sequencing, but also world disruption is absent: the script is not interrupted. As for ‘what-it’s-like’, this is perhaps conveyed by θαύμαζον in 496: the women are looking with wonder at what is happening.117

Although the image is low in narrativity, it does depict some kind of story. We may say that the image on the shield possesses implied generic narrativity: it depicts “an isolated moment in a recognizable action in which various people may engage: this category includes the frames and schemata [i.e. scripts] that cognitive studies have taught us that we recognize”.118 The image on the shield depicts various isolated

archaisch das Typische. Deshalb sehr deutlich gleich zu Anfang nicht eine Hochzeit, sondern Hochzeiten (...)”.

114 Vanderlinden 1980: 107-8: “[l]e pluriel γάμοι, νύμφαι, indique que la scène est reproduite plusieurs fois”.
115 Chantraine 1953: 32-3, after having rejected the idea that νύμφας is a poetic plural, states that “[i]l faudrait alors admettre que le bouclier porte plusieurs cortèges de noce (…)”; similarly Cerri 2010: 170: “[l]a figurazione rappresenta palesemente più cortei che si snodano contemporaneamente in diverse vie della stessa città: la cosa è interpretabile o come schema iconografico proprio dell’epoca, motivato da ragioni di ricchezza decorativa, o come riflesso di un uso reale, che indusse a celebrare i matrimoni in certe date piuttosto che in altre, con la conseguente contemporaneità di più cortei nuziali”.
116 Byre 1992: 39, also discussed in section 3.2 above.
117 Scholars have interpreted θαύμαζον (496) as referring to the way the women are looking, rather than as to how they are feeling. For example, Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 139 translate with “schauten staunend”. Herein they follow the scholia (A-scholion, 496a: ἐτὶ ἐθεῶντο, σῶκ ἐξεπλήττοντο, “because they were gazing (with wonder), not because they were amazed”; a bT-scholion, 496b, glosses θαύμαζον with ἐθεῶρον, “were gazing”). The shield contains more spectators, for which see Clay 2011: 9.
moments, but the observation stands. The word *implied* is significant: a static image can only imply temporality. The term *generic narrative* is also used by Stansbury-O'Donnell to refer to geometric vases depicting combat scenes with unidentifiable warriors. In my view, this term can aptly be applied to this image, and to a number of other images on the shield, too.

The second subtheme, the lawsuit (497-508), has attracted much scholarly attention, with emphasis on the legal issues involved. On account of these issues, its translation and interpretation are difficult. The text of this passage has a descriptive structure. Apart from the pluperfect ὠρώρει in 498, only imperfects are found. Textual progression is enumerative; some spatial markers occur. Strikingly, one temporal adverb (ἔπειτα, 506) occurs, which will be discussed below. Some other prototypical elements of description are present, too. I note the following details: (visual) δύο (498), ἔξεστοισι (504), δῶ and χρυσοίο (507). Of these, χρυσοίο may refer to the *opus ipsum*. Other qualities mentioned in the text are ἱερῷ (504), ἠεροφώνων (505, sound), and ἰθύντατα (508).

of whole classes of (usually trivial) *action schemes* [i.e. scripts]. Here, there is a temporal link resulting from an indexical relationship between the depicted scene and whole classes of common-sense action schemes*. See further section 1.4.3.

Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 48 (discussed in section 1.4.3). Herein a parallel exists between Geometric art and the shield ekphrasis, according to Stansbury-O’Donnell 1995: 321: “[a] third parallel between shield and art is the generic nature of the scenes and their actions and figures. (...) The vast majority are nameless and are distinguished only by their function: dancers, warriors, reapers, shepherds, elders, etc. Their actions might also be described as ritualistic and oft-repeated. This anonymity is clearly found in most of Geometric art (...). Further, the scenes themselves are taken out of the fabric of daily life in both shield and vase painting".


It does not help that the lawsuit is depicted on a shield. This makes it difficult to determine the precise order of events: in this image, all events are happening at the same time – though, of course, necessarily described after each other.

Only lines 497a and 497b-98 are spatially connected to each other. The other spatial indicators are: εἰν ἄγορῇ (497), ἐπὶ ἱέπερι (501), ἀμφίς (502), ἐπὶ ἔξεστοισι λίθοισι (504), ἱερῷ ἐνὶ κύκλῳ (504), ἐν χέρσι (505), ἐν μέσσοισι (507), μετὰ τοῖσι (508).
Before assessing its narrativity, I will first discuss the image in detail. The narrator starts with an overview of the whole scene: λαοὶ δ’ εἰν ἄγορῇ ἔσαν ἀθρόοι (497). He next gives the reason for this assembly: an argument is going on (ἔνθα δὲ νεῖκος / ὠρώρει, 497-8). This information is necessary for the comprehension of this scene. The narrator next zooms in on two men (δύο δ’ ἄνδρες, 498) who are quarrelling over the blood price for a man who has died (498-9). Here, the narrator refers for the first time to something that has happened earlier. He does so by using an aorist participle (ἀποφθιμένου, 499), which is one of only seven aorist participles in the shield ekphrasis. The reason why relatively few aorist participles are used could be the fact that they express anteriority, which static images cannot explicitly convey. By using an aorist participle, the narrator can refer to an event that is anterior to the events depicted in the image. Thus, we see that the narrator, inspired by the narrative in the image, adds a narrative element of his own which is not depicted.

The quarrel concerns a blood-price for a man who has died, i.e. who has been murdered. The precise nature of this quarrel is unclear. After the narrator has introduced the two men together (δύο δ’ ἄνδρες, 498), he states what the one is doing (ὁ μέν, 499), what the other is doing (ὁ δέ, 500), and what both are doing (ἄμφω δέ, 501). For

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123 The other six are προϊδόντες (527), βάντες (532), στησάμενοι (533), στρέψαντες (544), ἱερεύσαντες (559), and ἀναρρήξαντε (582).

124 Aorist particles are rare in the ekphraseis of this study. The ekphrasis of the shield of Heracles contains two aorist participles (ἀπουράμενοι, 173; ἐξεριπόντες, 174). In the cloak ekphrasis in A.R. 1.730-67 and the goat-herd’s cup in Theoc. Id. 1.27-60 not a single aorist participle occurs; in Mosch. Eur. 37-62 one aorist particle is found (ἀναπλώσας, 60), but this participle refers to the decorations on the basket.

125 It could perhaps also be the case that a corpse is depicted in the image. Seeing however that the narrator does not explicitly refer to a corpse (e.g. by using an imperfect or pluperfect), I assume that it is not depicted. Stansbury-O’Donnell 1995: 322 adds another reason why it is most likely that the corpse is not depicted: “[a] corpse is not mentioned in the scene, and considering the already lengthy nature of the legal proceedings it is difficult to imagine the corpse still being around. It is possible that the arrangement of the proceedings and participants or the two talents of gold could serve as a signal for the nature of the dispute in the mind of the poet”.

126 Such additions are, strictly speaking, only present in the text. See for other such additions my discussion of the city at war below.

127 Leaf [1898] 1902: 305 even prints ἀνδρὸς ἀποκταμένου, following Zenodotus and αἱ πλεῖσται (i.e. the named or emended texts, according to Edwards 1991: 216).
the interpretation of 499-500, I follow Edwards, who interprets: “the one man was claiming <to be able, to have a right> to pay everything (i.e. to be free of other penalties), the other refused to accept anything (i.e. any pecuniary recompense in place of the exile or death of the offender).” In this case, the issue is whether compensation for the dead man should be accepted or not. Alternatively, the issue could be whether compensation has been paid: “the one man was claiming to have paid everything, the other was denying that he had received anything”. The majority of scholars, though not agreed on the details, prefer the first interpretation. If we assume that the narrator wants to describe an image, it seems that the first interpretation is the most likely: it is easy to imagine one figure offering money, or making a gesture which suggests an offer, and the other as refusing this offer by stepping back, or making a certain gesture with his hands.

In lines 498-501, the narrator has referred four times to two figures. Are they involved in different actions, or are different, simultaneous aspects of one and the same action described? The latter option is to be preferred, since the dispute (νεῖκος, ἐνείκεον)

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128 Edwards 1991: 215 (brackets in the original), where see for further discussion.
129 According to de Jong 2011: 5, who opts for the second interpretation, the use of indirect speech in 499-500 is a form of narration. I do not regard indirect speech as a form of narration. Of course, indirect speech cannot be depicted on a static image, but this does not make it narrative. Just as in the other scenes, the narrator is interested in the res ipsae, and these may also include speech acts. Heffernan 1993: 13, to whom de Jong (ibid.: 12, note 17) refers, notes correctly that “(…) the text reports speech acts directly (…) rather than representing the gestures which could visually signify them (…)”. This does not mean, however, that the text becomes thereby narrative (which is what Heffernan seems to suggest): the speech acts are, too, imagined as ongoing events, and thus do not differ from the other ongoing events.
131 Stansbury-O’Donnell 1995: 323 thinks that the litigants are standing still, but this is unlikely for the reasons mentioned above.
132 ἐνείκεον (498), ἐὔχετο (499), ἀναίνετο (500), and ἱέσθην (501).
consists of the claims of both parties. Line 501, “both were eager to obtain a judgement by an arbitrator”, closes off this first part of the image; it indicates the aim of both litigants, and thus looks forward to the settling of the dispute. Ἐπί in ἐπὶ ἴστωρ (501) most likely has spatial meaning (“by, before”); alternatively it could express agency (“at the hands of”).

In line 502, the narrator zooms out, and describes the relationship between the citizens (λαοί) and the two men (ἀμφοτέροισιν). The citizens are shouting in applause (ἐπήπυον), ἀμφὶς ἀρωγοί; this phrase is interpreted as “helpers on either hand, to either party” by LSJ, but a spatial interpretation, “on both sides”, is to be preferred. This allows the narratee to form a mental picture of the scene: two litigants (in the middle, perhaps) are surrounded on either side by the crowd. The implication of this spatial

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133 Cf. Becker 1995: 111: “[t]his vignette is made up out of static pictures, which are elaborated with inferential detail, but still not dramatized”; dramatization being “(...) the same figures performing consecutive actions” (ibid.: 112).
134 I translate ἱέσθην with “were eager for”, following the LfgrE (s.v. ἵημι B II A). Lattimore and Nagy 1997: 200 give the verb a different meaning, “were heading for”, but this introduces a new action and is therefore unlikely. de Jong 2011: 5 translates with “were eager for”. She notes that this is an instance of embedded focalisation (others in 510-2, 524, 526, 547), which she regards as a narrative element. Descriptions may also feature embedded focalisation, for which see e.g. de Jong 2001: xvii in her entry on scenery: “we find descriptions or brief references when the story needs them; they derive almost exclusively from characters, in embedded focalization or a speech” (emphasis mine).
135 Πεῖραρ (501) is usually translated with “judgement” (see Edwards 1991: 217), but Westbrook 1992: 76 argues for “limit”, approved of by Nagy 1997: 200-2 and by Edwards 1991: 216, who explains: “[t]he court must set the ‘limit’ (...) of the penalty, i.e. whether it should be revenge or ransom, and also the appropriate ‘limit’ of either revenge or ransom”.
136 Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 139 (“bei oder vor dem Schiedsrichter”), and Leaf [1898] 1902: 305 (“at the hands of, a use which has no exact parallel in H., but is closely connected with the use of the prepositional to express attendant circumstances (...)” (italics in the original). Chantraine 1953: 109 gives ἴστι a local sense, “in the proximity of, nearby”: “pour avoir une décision auprès d’un juge”. It is not clear who is meant by ἴστωρ (see Edwards 1991: 216 and especially Wirbelauer 1996: 159-61). Willcock 1984: 270 summarizes the communis opinio: “(...) the ἴστωρ is that one of the γέροντες whose opinion prevails, i.e. the one referred to in 508”.
137 LSJ s.v. ἀμφίς A 1. For the spatial interpretation, see Chantraine 1953: 89 (“des partisans des deux côtés”) and LfgrE s.v. ἀμφίς B I (“auf (von) beiden Seiten”). A spatial interpretation is also put forth by the scholia (A-scholion and bT-scholion, 502a and 502b).
arrangement is that the crowd is divided into two parties, each of which supports one litigant.

In line 503, it is stated that “the heralds were holding back the people” – but from what or whom? Usually, it is assumed that they are keeping the people away from the litigants. Wirbelauer has argued that they are keeping the people away from the elders (οἱ δὲ γέροντες, mentioned at the end of the line).138 This is an attractive interpretation, because it gives this passage a structure that makes it easier to visualize: lines 497-503 are about the λαοί (497, 502) and the δύο ἄνδρες; the action of these lines is situated in the agora (497). On the agora, the elders occupy a place of their own (ἱερῷ ἐνὶ κύκλῳ, 404). By having the heralds keeping the people away from the elders, the narrator emphasises the fact that the elders occupy a special position.

In addition, the ring composition in 497-502 (λαοί in 497 and 502) marks these lines as a unity, which makes it likely that a new unit begins in 503. This is indeed the case: the narrator introduces two new subthemes (κήρυκες; γέροντες), the latter of which are described in 503b-506. Within this unit, the κήρυκες are named in line 505: σκῆπτρα δὲ κηρύκων (…) ἠεροφώνων; the heralds, then, are also associated with the γέροντες.

Lines 503b-6 present particular problems. First, it is stated that the elders are sitting on polished stones (504), and that they are having sceptres in their hands (505). Line 506 however reads: “with these, next, they were leaping up to their feet (τοῖσιν ἔπειτ’ ἤϊσσον), and were passing judgement in turns (ἀμοιβηδὶς δὲ δίκαζον)”. Two issues must be addressed here. First, most scholars have τοῖσιν refer to the sceptres.139 Edwards and Becker, however, take the two litigants as subject of ἤϊσσον, and have τοῖσιν refer to the elders: “to these (elders) then they dashed”.140 This interpretation is to be rejected. Firstly, the abrupt change of subject (up to two times) is out of place in a description,

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138 Wirbelauer 1996: 164-5. He cites as a parallel ll. 2.96-7, where the heralds are keeping the λαοῖ away from the βασιλέες.
139 E.g. Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 140, Leaf [1898] 1902: 306, Willcock 1984: 271; similarly the LfgrE, who translate ἀίσσω accompanied by a dative with “sich mit etwas in der Hand rasch bewegen”; it is further noted that the present stem indicates that the action is presented as ongoing (“die Bewegung wird in ihrem Verlauf dargestellt”, s.v. ἀίσσω, B I; this instance is listed under B I A I a).
even more so when this subject is not made explicit. Secondly, the focus of lines 503-8 lies on the elders – and not on the litigants – who are furthermore separated from the other people on the agora. Thirdly, if the litigants are now rushing before the elders, they are performing a new action. We do find the same figures involved in different actions on the shield (see e.g. 509-40 below), but there the narrator clearly indicates that such is the case.

Second, the elders are sitting in lines 503b-5, but in line 506 they are leaping up to their feet and passing judgement in turns. This does not necessarily mean that the same figures are involved in different actions. The narrator begins this scene with spatial and visual details: the elders are sitting on polished stones in the sacred circle (ἐπὶ ξεστοῖσι λίθοις ἱερῷ ἐνὶ κύκλῳ), while having sceptres in their hands. This can be regarded as a visual indication for “the elders were in council”. Within this circle of sitting elders, one elder can be imagined as leaping up with his sceptre. This leaping up with a sceptre is the speaking of judgement. This interpretation is based on ἀμοιβηδὶς δὲ δίκαζον: “in turns” indicates that δίκαζον is an iterative imperfect, which means that ἤϊσσον is an iterative imperfect, too: one elder who is rising indicates that the next elder will rise, too, and after him the following elder, etc. If line 506 is thus interpreted, ἐπεὶτα

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141 Cf. Johnson 2011: 52, note 21, who although working with different concepts states that “(…) Edwards’s solution creates a relation between fragments that is unparalleled in the Shield, for nowhere else do the subjects of the panels change with such rapidity”.

142 Some scholars have argued that there is only one speaker’s staff (e.g. Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 140, who speak of “das Szepter”, and Chantraine 1953: 33, who labels σκῆπτρα as a poetic plural). However, as the LfgrE note, on account of τοῖσιν and the fact that there is more than one herald, σκῆπτρα is real plural (s.v. σκῆπτρον B 2 c β). In addition, even though in reality only the speaker holds a sceptre, in an image all elders (and even all heralds) may hold staffs at the same time, so as to make indication of the figures possible. It could also be the case that because all these figures are holding sceptres at the same time a certain lapse of time is suggested; so e.g. Thür 1970: 431-2, note 34: “[a]uf dem Bildwerk erscheint der zeitliche Ablauf der Vorgänge in eine Ebene gerückt, und jede Person in ihrer wichtigsten Tätigkeit dargestellt. Es können also alle Herolden und Geronten gleichzeitig mit einem Szepter zu sehen sein, obwohl sie nacheinander tätig werden”; see also Wirbelauer 1996: 165, note 83.

143 Edwards 1991: 217 notes that “[i]n its only other occurrences (Od. 18.310, HyDem 326) ἀμοιβηδὶς (…) refers to a series of people acting in turn (…)”. Cf. 5.3.5, 1 for my discussion of ἀμοιβηδὶς in Theoc. Id. 1.34.
indicates that the narrator is now referring to a new phase in the action.\textsuperscript{144} This new phase, however, is depicted within \textit{one and the same} image.

In the last two lines of this image, the narrator states that in the midst of the elders (ἐν μέσσοισι, 507) two talents of gold are lying, which are to be given to whichever among them (μετὰ τοῖσι) should speak a judgement most straightly (508).\textsuperscript{145} Line 508 differs in its use of verbs from the surrounding lines: it contains a final-consecutive infinitive (δόμεν) followed by a relative clause with a potential optative.\textsuperscript{146} By stating the reason why the two talents are present in the image, the narrator looks beyond what is depicted on the shield to an undetermined point of time in the future.\textsuperscript{147} Important is that line 508 is marked by its verbal form as \textit{prospection}: what is stated here is not depicted on the shield. That the narrator ends this scene on a note of prospection indicates clearly, in my view, that an image is being described: it is the purpose of the talents to be given to an elder, but this is only their purpose: in the image, the talents remain forever in the midst of the elders.

The narrativity of the image has been addressed by other scholars. According to Byre, for example, the scene does not only possess specificity and singularity, but also temporal sequentiality and causality, which give it a high degree of narrativity: “[i]n the lawsuit, where the two litigants speak in turn, the divided people shout their approval of each and are held in check by the heralds, and the elders pronounce their judgement in turn”.\textsuperscript{148} Other scholars have also distinguished more than one temporal moment.\textsuperscript{149}

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\textsuperscript{144} “\textit{ἔπειτα} thus functions as a temporal adverb, and not as a presentational discourse marker (a function \textit{ἔπειτα} may also have, for which see section 2.3.2). The adverb is found four times in the shield ekphrasis: 506, 523, 527, and 545. Only in 523 does \textit{ἔπειτα} function as a presentational discourse marker (for which see below). Landolfi 1998: 21 speaks of a “\textit{fixed formula of descriptive transition}”: “(…) \textit{ἔπειτα} (vv. 506, 523, 527), piuttosto che indicare rapporti di anteriore e posteriore fra i singoli medaglioni, costituisce una \textit{formula fissa di transizione descrittiva}” (emphasis mine).

\textsuperscript{145} It is not stated who decides who wins the talents of gold; for this issue see Wirbelauer 1996: 166.

\textsuperscript{146} \textit{Εἴποι} cannot be interpreted as a distributive-iterative optative, since the talent of gold can only be awarded once; \textit{ἰθύντατα}, furthermore, points to one single recipient.

\textsuperscript{147} Richardson 1990: 146, 234-5 note 13 interprets line 508 as a “(…) type of explanation [which] accounts for an incident or a circumstance by disclosing a fact of the present or immediately preceding moment that has been concealed until now” (emphasis mine).

\textsuperscript{148} Byre 1992: 39-40; in note 18 he notes that “[t]he lawsuit is a narrative (…)”.

\textsuperscript{149} Other scholars have also distinguished more than one temporal moment.
The image does indeed depict more than one temporal moment. However, all actions are presented as ongoing events in the text. Furthermore, most events are happening at the same time; only the judging of the elders in line 506, by virtue of ἔπειτα, is temporally situated after their sitting in 504-5. As I have argued above, the events in lines 504-6 do not necessarily involve the same figures performing consecutive actions. Thus, all events may be depicted in one single image. This single image implies a sequence of events: in real life the events depicted in the image would follow after each other. Thus, first litigant one would state his case, next litigant two, after which the elders would start their session. The deliberation would take some

149 E.g. Heffernan 1993: 13, who argues that “[t]he disputation passage (...) provides at least three distinct and temporally successive phases of action: (1) a quarrel arises in the marketplace (497-500); (2) ‘then’ (if Lattimore’s rendering of the d’ in line 501 is accurate) the disputants go to an arbitrator (501-2); and (3) they make their arguments before the elders (503-8). Some of these phases contain further sequences: in the first phase, the promise of restitution for the murdered man is followed by the refusal to accept it; in the third, the disputants take turns speaking” (emphasis mine); he also states that the “characters in this passage never assume a pictureable pose” (ibid.); above, I have tried to indicate that the characters do have a pictureable pose.

150 Other scholars have argued for a single image, too. So e.g. Becker 1995: 110-2, who however ignores the difficulties of this passage (e.g. he states that the figures are not performing consecutive actions; but he translates 506 as “the disputants were rising to speak to them (i.e. the elders)” (ibid.: 112), which would mean that they are involved in consecutive actions, as they are doing something quite different in 499-500). Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 322-3, who although stating that the imperfect sets the basic key for describing the scene, nevertheless has lines 498-501 refer to events prior to those depicted on the shield; this is due to a misunderstanding of the pluperfect ὠρώρει in 498 (“the poet shifts to the pluperfect (...). This shift places the events described in the following lines into a time before the scene depicted on the shield, the assembly of the people”, ibid: 322). For Stansbury-O’Donnell, this proves that this passage shows that “the poet used various elements of his imaginary picture as signals to read several different moments of time into the picture” (ibid.: 322). As I have demonstrated, the narrator indeed does so, but this is effected by other means. Stansbury-O’Donnell’s interpretation is approved of by Wirbelauer 1996: 162, note 75.

151 It could also be the case that the dispute and the council of elders are not connected to each other. Because they are described after each other, it is logical to connect them (post hoc ergo
time, after which the elders sitting in council would rise and pronounce their judgement.

The narrator augments the narrativity of the image by referring to non-depicted events: a man has been killed (ἀνθρώπῳ ἀποθεμένου, 499), and the talents are to be given to one of the elders (δόμεν, 508). These events are marked by their verbal forms (aorist participle, infinitive) as anterior and posterior to the ongoing events. These events belong to the text only, and are not depicted in the image. They provide a larger framework for the events in the image: the man who was killed is the cause of the quarrel, and the two talents of gold look forward to the settling of the dispute. Thus, the framework is one of cause and effect.

The second basic element of narrative, world disruption, is not greatly emphasized. Even though murder is a prototypically disruptive event, the image depicts the judicial procedure, which is properly conducted.\(^\text{152}\) The events thus follow a script. In this light, we might argue that the interpretation of lines 499-500 as being concerned with whether compensation should be accepted is preferable, since this means that an ordinary case of assessing the sentence is depicted; if the first litigant has not paid the blood price but claims to have done so, an element of world disruption is introduced in the image.

'What-it's-like' is perhaps present. Just as in the previous image, there are observers or spectators on the spot: "the people were shouting in applause, helpers on both sides" (506). It is clear that the dispute is an exciting one to witness. Yet here, as well as in 496 above, it is not the feelings or experiences of the main figures in the image to which is referred, but of bystanders. The references are, furthermore, made in passing. The narrator does not foreground the element of 'what-it's-like'.

In connection with the lawsuit, Byre (quoted above) speaks of specificity and singularity. Whereas most subjects of the events in this scene are plural, in lines 499-501 two individual figures occur. Yet the figures are anonymous, and it is doubtful whether an image can depict a specific lawsuit. As for singularity, I do not know what is unusual about this image: as I have argued, world disruption is absent. If anything, I would say that this image has generic narrativity, too.

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\(^{152}\) So Edwards 1991: 213, who speaks of "the peaceful settlement of a dispute over a man's death by a city's judicial institutions".
I conclude. The narrativity of the lawsuit is mainly due to the fact that the image implies a sequence of events. In addition, the narrator refers to events prior and subsequent to those depicted on the shield, and thereby places the image in a larger framework of cause and effect. If we compare the narrativity of the lawsuit (497-508) with that of the weddings and feasts (491-6), we see that they differ mainly on these two points. That the narrativity of the lawsuit is higher also has to do with its subject matter: a lawsuit is a conflict, the outcome of which is undecided; this conflict involves two people who strive for contrary goals. Nevertheless, the lawsuit does not feature world disruption, which is the most conspicuous element of narrative (see 1.4.2). To find this element, we will have to turn to the next image, the city at war.

2b. The city at war

Τὴν δ’ ἑτέρην πόλιν πόλει εἰς τοὺς στρατεύματα γίνεται ἀλών τείχες λαμψάνειν· δήχα δ’ εἰς σφάσιν ἤθανε βουλή, ἣς διαπραθεῖσεν ἡ ἀνδράσι πάντα δύσανθιν. ἴπτησιν δόγμα πτώλεον ἐπάραιτον ἐντάσσον τῆς ἐξοργίας· οἱ δ’ οὐ ποιεῖσθαι λόγον, λόγῳ δ’ ὀπεδαρμάθοντο. τείχος μὲν δ’ ἁλοχοῖ τε φίλαι καὶ νήπια τέκνα ἐφανερώθησαν, μετὰ δ’ ἀνέφαρος οὐς ἠξεί γήρας· οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἤρχε δ’ ἀριθμός νῆρος Ἀρισταὶ καὶ Παλλάς Ἀλκηνίαν ἀφαίρεσιν, τραχεία δ’ εἰς ἑίματα ἔσθην, καλὸς καὶ μεγάλὸς τόσον τείχοςτεν, διὸ τ’ θεῶ περ. ἀμφοὶ ἀριθμοὶ λαοὶ δ’ ύπ’ ὁλίζοντες ἔσθησαν. τοῖς δὲ ἀνέρες καὶ ἀγάλλων μετὰ δ’ ἀριθμὸς· οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀρχώτεν· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐρμῆς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἔφεστεν· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεν· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεν· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἱ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν. οἰ δ’ ἔστον· ἀριθμὸς· ἀμφοὶ δ’ ἐφεστεσθησαν.
Around that other city were lying two armies of troops gleaming in armour. A twofold plan was finding favour with them: either to sack it, or else to divide in two all the possessions that the lovely city contained within. And they [the townspeople] were not at all persuaded, and were secretly arming themselves for an ambush. The wives and young children were guarding the wall, standing on it, and among them [were] men in the grip of old age. (516) And they [the fighting men of the city] were going, and Ares and Pallas Athena were leading them, both in gold, and they were wearing golden clothes, both fair and tall in their armour, precisely as gods [are], conspicuous on all sides; and the people underneath were smaller. (520) And they, when they had arrived where there was space for them to set their ambush, by a river, where was a watering place for all cattle, there they were lying in ambush, clothed in ruddy bronze. And for them, next, away from the main body two scouts were sitting, waiting whenever they should catch sight of the sheep and crooked-horned cattle. (525) And they [the cattle] quickly appeared, and two herdsmen were following with them, delighting in their pipes; and they foresaw in no wise the stratagem. (527) And they [the men in ambush], after having seen them from a distance, rushed forward, and quickly thereafter they were cutting off the herds of cattle and fair flocks of white sheep on both sides, and they were killing the herdsmen as well. (530) And they [the besiegers], when they had heard the loud noise from the cattle, while sitting in front of their quarters, after having immediately mounted their chariots with high-stepping horses, followed after, and they arrived quickly. (533) After having arrayed, they were fighting a battle along the banks of the river, and they were hitting one another with bronze-tipped spears. And among [them] Strife, among [them] Battle-din were joining battle, and among [them] deadly Fate, grasping one man alive but freshly wounded, another who was unwounded, and she was dragging another who was dead by the feet through the carnage; the raiment which she was wearing around her shoulders was red with the blood of men. And they were joining the battle just like living mortals and were fighting, and they were dragging away the bodies of each other's slain.

535 ἐν δ' Ἐρις ἐν δὲ Κυδοιμὸς ἀμίλευν, ἐν δ' ὅλοις Κήρ,
ἀλλὰν ζωὸν ἔχουσα νεκτάτατον, ἀλλὰν άουτον,
ἀλλὰν τεθνήσατα κατὰ μόνον ἢκε ποδεῖν—
ἐλύμα δ' ἐχ' ἀμφ' ἀμισίας διαφοινεὸν αἵματι φωτῶν.
ἀμλευν δ' ἐς τε ἐξοι βροτοὶ ἡδ' ἐμάχοντο,

540 νεκροὺς τ' ἀλλήλων ἔρων καταθνηώτατοι.
The city at war is the longest scene on the shield (31 lines). If we look at the use of tenses in the text, we see that in 509-24 and 532-40 only imperfects occur. These lines contain the descriptive discourse mode; textual progression is mainly enumerative. In lines 525-32, on the other hand, we find aorists next to imperfects: the main clauses contain five aorists but only three imperfects. In addition, four temporal adverbs (525, 527, 531, 532), three aorists participles (527, 532, 533), and one subordinate temporal clause (530) are found. It is clear, then, that lines 525-32 contain the diegetic discourse mode. This means that these lines contain a sequence of events; the text thus has a narrative structure. This is striking, if only for the fact that the use of tense and adverbs differs substantially from the rest of the shield ekphrasis, in which imperfects (and pluperfects) predominate.

Before discussing this observation further, I will first address the other prototypical descriptive features of the text in 509-40. As we have seen, the text has a descriptive organization (apart from 525-32). A number of visual details are found: δύω (509), τεύχεσι λαμπόμενοι (510), lines 517-9 as a whole, εἰλυμένοι αἴθοπι χαλκῷ (522), δύω (523), ἔλικας (524), ἀργεννέων (529), χαλκήρεσι (534), and line 538. As for other qualities incorporated in the text, I note ὅσην (…) ἔεργεν (512), φίλαι, νήπια (514), καλά (528), ἀργεννέων (529), ἀερσιπόδων (532), νεούτατον, ζωοί (539), κατατεθνηῶτας (540). Note that descriptive elements also occur in lines (525-32) that contain the diegetic discourse mode.

Lines 517-9 are wholly devoted to the *opus ipsum*. They differ from the rest of the city at war, since they do not contain any ongoing events, but states only (ἕσθην and έσαν, 517 and 519). In these lines, the narrator explicitly describes the appearance of surface of the shield. Line 538 also features a state (ἐχεῖ); it describes the clothing of Κήρ. The line refers to the *res ipsae*, and does not describe the surface of the shield. Nevertheless, the line is concerned with visual appearance.

Let us now return to the occurrence of the diegetic discourse mode in 525-32. The diegetic discourse mode is inserted into a passage which contains the descriptive discourse mode. Whereas the descriptive discourse mode can be connected with the representation of an image in the text, the diegetic discourse mode seems, *a priori*, less fitting for the representation of an image. One could argue that the narrator is now...

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153 ἕσθην in 517 is a pluperfect (“had been clothed”), but equals an imperfect (“were wearing”); the aorist optative in 524 occurs in a subordinate clause and does not count.
154 See table 3.2 above.
155 See further my discussion of Agamemnon’s arming scene in section 2.4.2.
wholly immersed in the action depicted in the image, so that he has “forgotten” that he is describing an image and has now turned to narration (the evidence of which are the aorists and the temporal adverbs). However, this solution is unnecessary.

An alternative explanation is that the aorists refer to actions which are not depicted on the shield. This was first stated by Vanderlinden, who also argued that the aorists must be regarded as anterior. Primavesi has further elaborated Vanderlinden’s argument. He argues that the aorists are a textual sign for an explicit moving away from what is depicted in the image, and that they refer to non-depicted stages of the action that occur in between those stages of the action that are depicted. Following this line of argumentation, I would say that the imperfects in lines 525-32 refer to actions depicted on the shield, but the aorists to actions not depicted on the shield. This means that the imperfects in lines 525-32 are not used differently than the other imperfects in the shield ekphrasis.

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156 This is, for example, suggested by Friedländer (for whom see note 21 above).
157 Vanderlinden 1980: 123: “[l]es aorists eux expriment des actions non représentées, antérieurs (...). Ces aoristes correspondent donc, comme il est fréquent, à des plus-que-parfaits français”.
158 Primavesi 2002: 203-4: “[w]enn nun die durchweg durative bzw. zuständliche Prädikation die Eigenart der Bildbeschreibung gegenüber der Erzählung markiert, dann können die an zwei Stellen der ‘Stadt im Krieg’ eingeschalteten Aoristprädikate konsequenterweise nicht anders aufgefaßt werden denn als sprachliche Signale für die Durchbrechung der Bildbeschreibung. Auch der Inhalt dieser punktuellen Prädikate macht es plausibel, daß sie notwendige Handlungszwischenschritte explizieren, die auf dem virtuellen Bild des göttlichen Künstlers nicht eigens dargestellt sind, die man sich aber leicht denken kann” (emphasis in the original).
159 The observations of Bakker 1997: 15 on the use of tenses in a number of passages in Thucydides could also be relevant for the understanding of the use of tenses in the shield ekphrasis. Bakker observes that in some Thucydidean passages it is “(...) imperfect verbs, and not aorists, that express events that “happen” in the story, and so constitute the time-line or foreground. (...) We see imperfects used for events that happen in the narrative at this point, and aorists for what is off the time-line”. He associates this use of the imperfect and aorist with what he calls the mimetic mode, in which the imperfect is used not so much as a reference to an event but as the displacement of its observation in the past (ibid.: 37); by using these imperfects the narrator suggests that events are observed on the spot. Bakker (ibid.: 43) further states that “[i]t might not be too misleading to compare narrative presentation in Thucydides’ mimetic mode with a movie, or a series of pictures passing before the reader’s eye. To this flow of visual information, commentary may then be added, as background explanation (...). The result is a mixture of ‘showing’ and ‘telling’ in which the relation between the aorist and the imperfect is reversed (...):
In this way, the diegetic discourse mode can be harmonized with the representation of an image in the text. The aorists refer to actions that exist only in the primary layer, the text: they do not refer to an action in the secondary layer, the image. The narrator has various means at his disposal to refer to actions that are not depicted, i.e. actions that relate to the text only. We have witnessed this phenomenon earlier in the shield ekphrasis: the aorist participle ἀποφθιμένου in 499 and the infinitive δόμεν in 508.160

Lastly, the question whether the occurring aorists can be interpreted as anterior, as argued by Vanderlinden and Primavesi, merits discussion. An anterior aorist expresses a state of affairs which “(...) is completed with regard to (is anterior to) a state of affairs mentioned in the preceding context (‘past-in-the-past’).”161 The problem, however, is that the aorists in 525-32 are not anterior to a state of affairs mentioned in the preceding context, but to a state of affairs mentioned in what follows. On the other hand, all aorists express actions that are completed vis-à-vis what follows.162 Perhaps this is more a problem of translation than of Greek syntax. I do however want to draw attention to the use of the pluperfect in Latin ekphraseis, which similarly refers to actions that are not depicted.163 In Latin, anteriority is certain on account of the value of the pluperfect.

the aorist serves as background to a descriptive, visualizing foreground carried by imperfect verbs” (emphasis mine). This last remark fits the shield ekphrasis very well. The mimetic mode is, furthermore, associated by Bakker with foregrounded description (ibid.: 29; this term is borrowed from Lopes 1995); in addition, Allan’s descriptive mode is in some respects similar to Bakker’s mimetic mode (Allan 2013: 378, 382-3).

160 Byre 1976: 44-5 has a list of elements by which non-represented information (Byre speaks of “authorial comments concerned with the story”) may be recognized: “[t]he Greek poet may use pluperfects to indicate action that has attained completion by the time of the moment represented, aorists participles to indicate prior action, and independent or subordinate clauses whose temporal reference is expressed by the tenses of its verbs or implied by its context”; Byre does not mention finite aorist verbs.

161 Rijksbaron [1984] 2002: 20; he further states that “[t]his nuance may be made explicit by means of a modifier like πρότερον ‘earlier’; in other cases, we must rely on the context” (ibid.).

162 It should be noted that of the six aorists in the shield ekphraseis, five are verbs of motion (προγένοντο, 525; ἐπέδραμον, 527; μετεκίαιαθον, ἵκοντο, 532; μετεκίαιαθον, 581); only προνόησαν is not (526). These aorists could indicate that the figures have completed an earlier movement, on account of which they are now present in the image.

163 So Szantyr 1970: 33, who writes that that the pluperfect “(...) kann schon allein geradezu als Indiz dafür dienen, dass der betreffende Vorgang vom Dichter nicht als Gegenstand einer
The Latin pluperfect corresponds to the Greek anterior aorist. Further, Apollonius Rhodius uses an anterior aorist in the ekphrasis of Jason's cloak to refer to an action that is not depicted (ἦλασεν in 1.755).

I now turn to the narrativity of the image. In contrast to the preceding images and to most images that follow, the city at war has a high degree of narrativity. In the following analysis, I will show how this high degree of narrativity is achieved.

In the city at war (509-40), the same figures are involved in different actions: the townspeople are arming themselves in 513, marching out of the city in 516, waiting in ambush in 522; in 532-3 they are engaged in a fight. Some scholars have regarded this as clear proof of narration, as a sign that the narrator has stopped describing the image. However, there are indications that it is the image on the shield which depicts different phases from the war. First, the use of the imperfect: the same figures are involved in the different actions, but these actions are presented as happening at the same time. In my view, this resembles the way in which a picture triggers a narrative response: when a character is depicted as performing different actions, the viewer assumes that different moments in time are represented; after all, it is impossible for one and the same figure...
to be engaged in two different actions at the same time.\textsuperscript{167} If one assumes that the narrator is representing a static image, and if one allows for the fact that images can depict different moments in time, then the fact that the same figures are represented as involved in different actions at the same time can only lead to one conclusion: the narrator is describing an image which consists of different moments in time.\textsuperscript{168}

Starting from this assumption, I divide the city at war into six different moments in time or phases: 1) 509-15; 2) 516-9; 3) 520-4; 4) 525-6; 5) 527-9; and 6) 530-40. I also draw attention to the fact that phases 2-6 all start in a similar way, namely with ὁ δὲ (516, 20, 25, 30) or ὁ μὲν (527). The text thus progresses via enumeration: it is as if the narrator is pointing out the figures. In addition, the anaphoric pronouns help the narratee to keep track of the switches between the different phases. Two phases, furthermore, start with a temporal clause (526; 530); one with an aorist participle (527). These elements, too, suggest that the narrator has moved to a new phase.\textsuperscript{169}

The first phase (509-15) consists of two parts, 509-12 and 513-5. In the first part, the narrator sets the scene; in the second part, he focuses on the actions of the figures. Line 509 introduces the second main subtheme of lines 490-540, “that other city” (τὴν δ᾿ ἑτέρην πόλιν).\textsuperscript{170} Around it are lying two forces of armed men (δύω στρατοὶ...λαῶν).\textsuperscript{171}

\textsuperscript{167} See further section 1.4.3.

\textsuperscript{168} I am not the first to argue that the image of the city at war consists of different moments of time. Primavesi 2002: 203-4 argues for four tableaux (509-19; 521-4; 528-9; and 533-40); his division is based on the occurring temporal clauses and aorists: “[ı]ndem die Temporalsätze den Übergang zu einer anderen Handlungsphase markieren, durchbrechen auch sie [i.e. like the aorists] das Kontinuum der Bildbeschreibung. So ergeben sich insgesamt drei solcher ausdehnungslosen Übergänge [520; 525-7; 530-32] und mithin die Abgrenzung vier durativ-zuständlicher Tableaux, die der Erzähler als bildlich realisiert präsentiert (…)” (ibid.: 204; emphasis in the original); Cerri 2010: 181 distinguishes five quadri (“[o]gni quadro rappresenta un unico scenario e un solo momento della guerra sostenuta da un città assediata. I quadri sono collegati narrativamente tra loro, nel senso che concorrono a formare una storia scandita in cinque episodi (…)”; Cerri’s episodes are 509-19; 520-6; 527-9; 530-2; and 533-40. Cf. also Leaf [1898] 1902: 608-9 and Vanderlinden 1980: 110-1, 118.

\textsuperscript{169} An aorist participle at the beginning of a new phase is also found in line 582, for which see below.

\textsuperscript{170} The anaphoric pronoun τὴν in combination with ἑτέρην reinforces the contrast with the previous city (see Monro [1882] 1891: 228 and Chantraine 1953: 162).
Scholars are generally agreed that one besieging army, divided into two divisions, is represented. It is often stated that the attackers differ among themselves in their opinion on what to do with the city. Yet it is preferable to assume with Ameis-Hentze that the attackers are of one mind, and that their single plan consists of two possibilities: either to sack the city, or to accept half of its property (511-2) as payment for ceasing the war. Their plan forms an ultimatum to the city, whose inhabitants must either give up half of their possessions, or their city will be sacked.

This is the only interpretation of 510-2 that harmonizes with 513: “they [the townspeople] were not at all persuaded, and were secretly arming themselves for an ambush”. Line 513 indicates that the townspeople are rejecting the ultimatum, and that they are marching out to gather provisions, as can be deduced from lines 520 and following. If the attackers were not agreed, line 513 would be incomprehensible, for it would not be clear what option was rejected. In addition, the information that the attackers disagree among themselves is irrelevant for the ensuing action.

Line 513 presents some difficulties. Οἱ δ’ οὔ πω πείθοντο can be translated in two ways: “they were not yet persuaded”, or “they were not at all persuaded”. This line also contains one of only two negations that occur in the shield ekphrasis. Negations are
perhaps out of place in the description of an image, since something that does not happen cannot be depicted.\textsuperscript{177} Similarly, it may be asked how the narrator knows that the besieged are secretly arming themselves for an ambush (λόχῳ δ’ ὑπεθωρήσσοντο).\textsuperscript{178} Apparently, the narrator knows that an ambush is depicted on the shield (lines 520 and following), and uses that knowledge, so to speak, to indicate what the arming of the besieged – for this can be depicted in an image – is aimed at. As for οὔ πω, if it is translated with “not at all” it indicates that the townspeople are adamant in their rejection of the ultimatum; if translated with “not yet”, it means that the narrator looks forward to a certain moment in the future when the townspeople might accept the ultimatum.

After the narrator has set the scene in lines 509-12, he relates what the inhabitants are doing in 513-5. The fighting men of the city are marching out (513); women and children, as well as old men, are guarding the walls (514-5). Just as in 495-6, the narrator ends this phase with a static image: the women, children and old men are standing still.\textsuperscript{179}

In phase two (516-9), the fighting men of the city are marching out; this is related at the beginning of this phase (οἱ δ’ ἴσαν, 516).\textsuperscript{180} The focus shifts immediately to the two gods who are leading them, Ares and Pallas Athena. These gods do not play any role in the ensuing fight. The rest of this phase is dedicated to the opus ipsum: the gods are both gold, wearing golden clothes (517), beautiful and big in their armour, just as the gods are in reality (ὥς τε θεώ περ).\textsuperscript{181} With this comparison, the narrator emphasizes the fact that he is describing an image. Line 519 ends with the spatial relation of the gods

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{177} See section 1.4.3.
\item \textsuperscript{178} LSF translate ὑποθωρήσσομαι (hapax) with “arm oneself in secret”; similarly Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 141 and Edwards 1991: 219. Chantraine 1953: 138, remark II suggests another possible interpretation of ὑπό, “they were beginning to arm themselves” (“ils se mettaient à s’armer”).
\item \textsuperscript{179} In line 515, two spatial markers occur, ἐφ-εσταότες (“standing on”) and μετά (“among them”).
\item \textsuperscript{180} I follow Leaf in punctuating with a comma after ὄς τε θεῶ περ (518); and in writing ὑπ’ ολιζόνες (519) instead of ὑπολίζονες.
\item \textsuperscript{181} For ὥς τε θεῶ περ, I follow Ruijgh 1971: 575-6: “[c]onformément à l’emploi le plus central de ὥς τε, il faut admettre que ὄς τε θεῶ περ est une relative postpositive: les deux dieux représentés en or sur le bouclier sont comparés avec les deux dieux tels qu’ils sont en réalité. En effet, la particule περ, en soulignant la notion exprimée par θεῦ, signale pratiquement que la comparaison concerne les dieux réels, tout comme une vingtaine de vers plus bas, les hommes représentés sur le bouclier sont comparés avec des hommes réellement vivants (Σ 539 ὄς τε ζῳ βροτοί (...))”.
\end{itemize}
and men on the shield: Ares and Athena stand out on all sides (ἀμφὶς); the fighting men beneath them (ὑπὸ) are depicted smaller.\textsuperscript{182}

The third phase (520-4) also starts with οἱ δὲ, after which a temporal clause introduced by ὅτε follows. Both the subordinate clause as well as the main clause feature imperfect tenses (ἰκανον; ἔζοντο). I interpret ἵκανον here as "had arrived", a meaning this verb often has. Thus, although the subordinate temporal clause contains an imperfect, the state of affairs expressed by this subordinate clause is nevertheless completed.\textsuperscript{183} This means that the arrival of the scouts is already completed, and hence not depicted. In this sense, this temporal clause is similar to the temporal clause in 530-2, for which see below.

The fighting men of the city have chosen a spot where there is space for them to set an ambush (ὅθι σφίσιν εἶκε λοχῆσαι, 520), ἐν ποταμῷ (521), "by a river".\textsuperscript{184} Next to this river is a watering spot (ἀρδμός) for all cattle (521).\textsuperscript{185} This also explains, although the narrator does not explicitly state so, why this particular location is chosen, for it is likely that the attackers will come here to water their cattle. Away from those in ambush (ἀπάνευθε…λαῶν), two scouts are sitting (523).\textsuperscript{186} Here, as often, ἔπειτα ("further", "next")

\textsuperscript{182} Ἀμφὶς means "on all sides", according to the LfgrE (s.v. ἀμφὶς B I 1 b, "ringsum"; herein they follow Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 141); they reject the interpretation by Leaf [1898] 1902: 307 as "apart from their followers"; Edwards 1991: 219 follows Leaf. According Chantraine 1953: 89, both interpretations are possible ("[l']interprétation de Σ 519 est discutable (…) On peut entendre soit à l'écart, soit de part et d'autre").

\textsuperscript{183} Usually, an imperfect tense in a subordinate clause indicates that the state of affairs expressed by this subordinate clause is simultaneous with that of the main clause (see Rijksbaron [1984] \textsuperscript{2002}: 76; cf. also Fleischman 1990: 177-8). One could perhaps argue that this is the case here, too. This would mean that the arriving of the fighting men takes place simultaneously with their lying in ambush. Although this is impossible in real life, it could well be depicted in an image.

\textsuperscript{184} I follow Willcock 1984: 271, who derives εἶκε ("there was space for") from εἴκω, as do the LfgrE s.v. εἴκω B I a: "Platz machen, (bzw. unpers. bieten)". For ἐν as "by", see LSJ s.v. ἐν A I 4; similarly Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 141 ("am Flusse").

\textsuperscript{185} For the use of τε in 521, see Ruijgh 1971: 472 ("[c]omme cette phrase appartient à la description du bouclier d’Achille, dont les scènes représentent le ciel et la terre avec la vie des hommes et des leurs bêtes, il est très facile d’admettre ici une application temporaire. (…) L’analyse coordinative est bien possible: ‘… dans le fleuve et (=à savoir) là où il y avait une abreuvoir pour tout le bétail, …’").

\textsuperscript{186} I interpret τοῖσι as a dative of interest (following Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 141); I connect λαῶν with ἀπάνευθε (translated by Leaf [1898] 1902: 307 as "away from the main body");
functions as a presentational discourse marker: it signals a move to a new subtheme in the description (the scouts); there is no temporal progression, as the scouts have already taken their positions (ἐἴητο, “were sitting”, 523).

In 524, the narrator relates the intentions of the scouts: they are waiting (διέγομενοι) whenever/for the time when (ἵπποτε) they should catch sight (ἰδοίατο) of the sheep and crook-horned cattle (524). The narrator uses a participle followed by a temporal clause to refer to an indefinite moment in the future; the optative indicates that the seeing might happen.\(^{187}\) In line 508, the narrator had also referred to the future. Yet whereas in line 508 the future moment lies outside what is depicted on the shield, here the future state of affairs is immediately realized in what follows (note τάχα, “quickly”, in 525).

In phase four (525-6), the herdsmen have arrived with their cattle. This phase contains two aorists, and one imperfect. Since the imperfect describes what can be seen on the shield, this phase depicts the herdsmen with their cattle: δύω δ’ ἅμ’ ἕποντο νομῆες / τερπόμενο σύριγξι, “and with [the cattle] two herdsmen were following, delighting in their pipes” (525-6).\(^{188}\) The narrator adds two events (προγένοντο, 525; προνόησαν, 526) which are not depicted, but which are apparently regarded by the narrator as necessary for the narratee to understand what is depicted on the shield.\(^{189}\)

First, if the herdsmen are accompanying the cattle, the cattle (οἱ δὲ) must also be present. The presence of the cattle is expressed by the first event, οἱ δὲ τάχα προγένοντο, “and they quickly appeared”. The verb προγένομαι connotes suddenness or unexpectedness.\(^{190}\) In addition, the temporal adverb τάχα, “quickly”, is found.\(^{191}\) The

\(^{187}\) See LSJ s.v. ὁπότε I 2 b for this use: “after a verb of waiting, of a time future relatively to the past”. The optative indicates that the state of affairs could be realized (for this use of the optative, see Chantraine 1953: 260: “[l]orsque le verbe principal est au passé, l’optatif [avec ὅτε et ἵπποτε] peut s’employer avec une valeur éventuelle”).

\(^{188}\) According to Primavesi 2002: 203-4, lines 525-7 as a whole form a Handlungszwischenschritt (for this term, see note 158 above).

\(^{189}\) We may compare Bassett 1920: 41-2: “Homer had a horror vacui which in intensity, though not in kind, reminds one of the painter of geometric vases. He was averse to lacunae of all kinds”; see also Richardson 1990: 20.

\(^{188}\) LfgrE s.v. γίγνομαι B II 6, προγένομαι: “(plötzl[ich] bei jem[ande]m auftauchen (hervorkommen)”).

\(^{189}\) According to Edwards 1991: 220 τάχα means “soon”, and not “swiftly”; he gives no reason however why this should be so.
phrase indicates that the cattle were suddenly and quickly present. This suddenness and speed can, in my view, be connected with the spatial arrangement of the phases on the shield: this phase is positioned next to the previous one. Thus, because these phases are next to each other on the shield, the cattle have indeed appeared quickly – just one phase ago, they were not yet present in the image. I also note that the temporal adverb τάχα is connected with an aorist (and not with an imperfect), which means that the speed is associated with an action that is not depicted on the shield.¹⁹²

Second, the narrator adds that the herdsmen “foresaw in no wise the stratagem” (δόλον δ’ οὔ τι προνόησαν, 526).¹⁹³ This non-depicted event makes the significance of τερπόμενοι σύριγξι clear: the herdsmen are wholly absorbed in the playing on their pipes, and have therefore no thought for their surroundings; hence, they do not foresee the ambush.

I have stated above that lines 525-6 form a separate phase. Yet the evidence for this is perhaps not so strong: in this phase, we do not find earlier mentioned figures performing a new action. Rather, new figures have appeared: the herdsmen and their cattle. In addition, there is no movement towards a new location: the herdsmen have arrived at the watering spot by the river where the townspeople are lying in ambush (521-4). On the other hand, line 525 starts with information that is not depicted. This information fills the gap between lines 523-4 (the scouts are waiting for the arrival of the cattle) and 525 (the herdsmen and their cattle are present). For such filling of gaps, we might compare comics, where this typically happens between two panels.¹⁹⁴

¹⁹² According to de Jong 2011: 6, in lines 525-32 “(…) we are dealing not merely with a succession of actions but with a speedy succession of actions, and to express such speed is a property of a narrative not of a picture”. Of the four temporal adverbs that indicate speed (τάχα, 525; ὦκα, 527; αὐτίκα, 531; αἶψα, 532) not one modifies an imperfect; τάχα, αὐτίκα and αἶψα modify aorist verbs, and are thus associated with events that are not depicted on the shield; ὦκα modifies another adverb, for which see below.

¹⁹³ Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 141 indicate that “δόλον konkret = λόχον”.

¹⁹⁴ Kafalenos 2012: 47: “(...) the process of reading comics (...) requires readers to move from image to adjacent image and fill in gaps. In his study of comics as an art form, McCloud points out that readers animate the scenes each panel depicts by filling in the ‘gutter’ – the term that comics theorists use to denote the gap between adjacent panels”; the reference is to McCloud 1994: 66-9. The similarity between ekphrasis and comics has already been noted. Johnson 2011: 43 argues that “(...) comics and verbal description share some fundamental principles in how they tell stories (...) Comics and ekphrasis are both pictures in sequence”. Johnson then investigates how the shield of Achilles can be divided into different images. He identifies as
Similarly, between phases 4 and 5 (525-6; 527-9) and 5 and 6 (527-9; 530-40) we find such information that is not depicted (527; 530-2). Thus, it is on the basis of the information that is not depicted (the aorist in 525) that I regard lines 525-6 as a separate phase.

The fifth phase (527-9) consists of the attack on the besiegers’ cattle by the townsman in ambush. The phase starts again with an aorist verb, this time accompanied by an aorist participle, οἱ μὲν τὰ προϊδόντες ἐπέθραμον, “and they, after having seen them (τὰ) from a distance, rushed forward” (527). This clause contains two events (the seeing and the rushing forwards) which are not depicted. It explains how those who were earlier lying in ambush came to be involved in the actions that are depicted: they are cutting off the herds on both sides (τάμνοντ’ ἀμφί, 528) and are killing the shepherds as well (ἐπί, 529). Τάμνοντο is accompanied by two temporal adverbs, ὦκα δ’ ἔπειτα, “and quickly thereafter” (527). The adverb ὦκα modifies the adverb ἔπειτα, not the verb τάμνοντο. ἔπειτα has temporal force here; the two adverbs together indicate that the intercepting of the cattle occurs immediately after those in ambush have rushed forward. Again, the narrator emphasizes that figures are quickly present.

The sixth and last phase consists of a battle between the besiegers of the city and the townspeople. This battle is described in 533-4: “after having arrayed (στησάμενοι), they were fighting a battle along the banks of the river, and they were hitting one another with bronze-tipped spears”. The spatial information in 533 (ποταμοῖο παρ’ ὄχθας) indicates that the battle is happening near the place of the ambush (520-4; ἐν...
The aorist participle στησάμενοι refers to an earlier event, and makes clear that both parties are fighting in battle array. In lines 530-2 the narrator narrates how the besiegers, who are lying around the city in phase one, come to be involved in the fight: “and they, after they had heard the loud noise from the cattle, while sitting in front of their quarters, after having immediately mounted their chariots with high-stepping horses, followed after, and they arrived quickly”. These lines consist of aorist verbs only, and thus refer to events not depicted on the shield. Four events are mentioned: 1. the besiegers hear the noise from the cattle while sitting before the city; 2. they mount their chariots; 3. they follow after; and 4. quickly arrive. The first event is expressed by a temporal clause (ὡς) with an aorist indicative (ἐπύθοντο); thus, this event is anterior to that of the main clause. The second event is expressed by an aorist participle (βάντες), which is also anterior to the main clause. The third and fourth events are found in main clauses with aorist finite verbs (μετεκίαθον, ἵκοντο).

Lines 535-8 also appear in the Hesiodic Shield (156-9), with ἐθύνεον for ὁμίλεον (535); this has made these lines suspect. Consequently, it has been argued that they are interpolated. Their authenticity has also been defended. I will not repeat the debate here, but I am not convinced by the arguments against their authenticity, and I prefer to let the lines stand. In fact, they are appropriate: since lines 530-40 form the climax of the narrative, these personified spirits of strife cannot be said to be alien from Epic thought.

199 Edwards 1991: 220 speaks of a “pitched battle”.
200 According to the LfgRE s.v. ἔπη(η) B, the traditional meaning “assembly places” does not fit its use here in 18.531; instead, they propose “Wohnung, Bleibe”, “dwelling, whereabouts, quarters”. This fits the preposition προπάροιθε much better: who would sit before an assembly place? Edwards 1991: 220 bypasses the difficulty by stating that “προπάροιθε suggests an audience sitting in a camp meeting-place listening to speakers who stood in front of them”.
201 As Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 142 indicate, ἐφ’ ἵππων / βάντες (531-2) refers to the mounting of chariots, even though ἀερσιπόδων, “high-stepping”, is an epithet which properly refers to horses. According to Faulkner 2008: 267-8, the epithet implies speed.
202 Rijksbaron [1984] 2002: 76: “(…) ὡς + aorist indicative: the state of affairs of the dependent clause is anterior to that of the main clause”.
205 I quote Leaf [1898] 1902: 308: “[t]hese personified spirits of strife (…) cannot be said to be alien from Epic thought (…)”. 
of the city at war, it is fitting that the divine forces mentioned here join in the fight.\textsuperscript{206} Their presence, and especially the behaviour and look of Κήρ, emphasises the savagery of battle.\textsuperscript{207}

In lines 539-40 the narrator returns to the fighting humans of 533-4.\textsuperscript{208} Only here in the shield ekphrasis does the narrator twice describe the same figures involved in the same action (ἐμάχοντο, 533 and 539). This can be explained by the digression of 535-8. After the narrator has zoomed in on the activities of one individual (536-8), he returns to the general battle, to which he consequently adds new information. First, he states that the human figures are fighting just like \textit{living} people (ὡς τε ζωοὶ βροτοί, 539). This comparison makes clear that the narrator is describing a shield: the figures are not really alive. Second, the last line of the city at war focuses on a realistic but gruesome detail: the figures are dragging away each other’s (ἀλλήλων) dead bodies.\textsuperscript{209} This emphasis on the dead (νεκροὺς (…) κατατεθηνήτας) provides a certain closure to the city at war scene. Even though the battle will never finish – its outcome is not depicted – one thing is clear: war results in dead people.

I sum up the results of my analysis. The city at war is the most complicated scene on the shield. The analysis of tenses has made clear that the passage contains both the descriptive (509-524; 533-40) and the diegetic discourse mode (525-32). In addition, in lines 525-33 temporal adverbs occur. Thus, lines 525-32 contain a sequence of events. This means that the text in 525-32 has a narrative structure/organization, which might seem out of place in the description of an image. As I have argued above, this narrative structure can be understood by assuming that the aorists provide information that is not depicted on the shield. As such, the narrative textual organization can be harmonized with the representation of an image.

\textsuperscript{206} With the triple ἐν in 535 τοῖσιν must be supplied (\textit{LfgrE} s.v. ὁμιλέω B 2 c 2).
\textsuperscript{207} Alden 2000: 63. See \textit{Il.} 11.36-7 for similar depictions on Agamemnon’s shield (Γοργώ βλαστυρώπις (…) / Δείμος τε Φόβος τε). On Κήρ, see further section 4.3.2, 11.
\textsuperscript{208} The subject of ὡμίλευν δ’ ὥς τε ζωοὶ βροτοί are the human figures of 533-4 (so e.g. Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 142, van der Valk 1966: 480, and Alden 2000: 61, note 33; see also Ruigh in note 181 above), not Ἐρις, Κυδοιμός, and Κήρ (as e.g. Becker 1995: 122 will have it). That the human fighters are the subject is clear from τε in 540, which indicates that the subject of this line – which must be the humans on account of νεκροὺς (…) κατατεθηνήτας – is the same as the subject of 539.
\textsuperscript{209} Ἀλλήλων picks up ἀλλήλους from 534.
The reason why the diegetic discourse mode occurs in the city of war— and not, for example, in the city at peace— is due to the nature of the subject matter. The city at war as depicted on the shield consists of six different temporal moments: 1. a city is surrounded; the besieged are arming (509-15); 2. the besieged are marching out; Ares and Athena are depicted, too (516-9); 3. the besieged are arriving and lying in ambush (520-4); 4. the herdsmen of the besiegers have arrived (525-6); 5. the herdsmen are attacked (527-9), and 6. a battle between besiegers and besieged is being fought (530-40). These phases are snapshots that consist of one moment in time only. The narrator is anxious to fill in what has happened in between these snapshots: for example, between phase five and six he narrates how the besiegers came to be involved in the fight with the besieged (530-2). The speed with which the non-depicted actions are completed is striking: perhaps this can be connected with the arrangement of the images on the shield itself.

The images can be said to contain Herman’s first element of narrative, event sequencing. By depicting the same figures engaged in different actions, the image represents a sequence of events. The order in which the events are described by the narrator is chronological: he first describes the first phase, etc. This chronological order perhaps mirrors the way these events are depicted on the shield itself. The narratee may imagine a frieze or band, on which the different phases are depicted one after each other. This would mean that the images on the shield can be likened to a picture series.

The figures engaged in the actions depicted are mostly in the plural and anonymous. In lines 536-7 three individuals are singled out; in this respect, these lines are similar to 499-500, where two figures are singled out. Only non-human figures are named (Ares and Athena, 516; Strife, Battle-din, and Fate, 535). The human figures, then, are not particularized. Furthermore, such non-human figures are typically found in battle scenes.

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In the text, all actions are presented as ongoing and happening at the same time. On this point, cf. van der Valk 1966: 481: “[d]ans les passage de Σ, on a l’impression que les négociations entre les deux armées et l’embuscade dressée par les assiégés sont des activités successives. Mais le poète semble avoir voulu les présenter comme simultanées: le bruit qu’une embuscade a été dressée parvient, dit-il, aux assiégeants au moment où ils se sont réunis au conseil (Σ 531 εἰράων προπάροιθε) (...). Selon moi, dans ce passage le poète n’a pas réussi à construire un récit logique des événements”.

See for this term 1.4.3. I further discuss the shield’s visualisation below in 3.5.
Herman’s second element of narrative, world disruption, is present. A city under siege is a disruptive event, especially for those who are besieged. Even for the besiegers, the siege does not go according to plan. The inhabitants of the town are adamant in their refusal of the ultimatum (οἱ δ’ οὐ πείθοντο, 513), and they march out for an ambush. Whereas one would perhaps expect that the besiegers attack the cattle of the besieged, in the city at war the cattle of the besiegers is under attack. That this attack comes as a surprise is emphasized in 526: δόλον δ’ οὐ τι προνόησαν. Thus, the action depicted in the image does not develop according to a script, but deviates from it. This means that the siege depicted on the shield is not a typical one.

Herman’s third element of narrative, ‘what-it’s-like’, is present, but not very prominently. The narrator refers to the thoughts or intentions of the figures in 510-2, 524, and 526. The actions of Ker in 535-40 make the savage nature of battle clear.

The narrativity of the city at war is higher than that of the city at peace. This is due to two reasons: 1. the city at war consists of six different moments in time, and 2. the events are disruptive. In addition, the narrator adds many more non-represented events in the city at war, especially in lines 525-32. As for ‘what-it’s-like’, this narrative element does not feature prominently in either city. Lastly, it should be emphasized that although the city at war has many narrative qualities, the narrative is very much a visual one. The narrator presents the narratees with six snapshots, six frozen moments. The narratee does not learn the cause of the war, or how it has begun; neither will he know how the battle ends. In this sense, the city at war is indeed a visual narrative.

3. A field being ploughed (541-9)

Ἐν δ’ ἐτίθητε νείὸν μαλακὴν, πίειραν ἄρουραν,
εὐρεῖαν τρίπολον· πολλοὶ δ’ ἀροτῆρες ἐν αὐτῇ
ζεύγεα δινεύοντες ἐλάστρεον ἑνόα καὶ ἑνόα.

impf.

impf.

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212 Cf. Edwards 1991: 220: “[i]t is possible that the poet has seen juxtaposed pictures of a siege and the capture of cattle, and has interpreted it as the seizing of the besiegers’ cattle by the townsmen, though the reverse would seem a more likely event” (emphasis in the original).

213 I thus disagree with Giuliani 2003: 44, who regards this scene as a typical siege (“[d]ie durchgehende Verwendung des Imperfekts trägt zusätzlich dazu bei, daß auch kriegerische Aktionen nicht als eine Spannung erzeugende Handlung, sondern als ein Tätigkeit vorgeführt werden, wie sie im Kriegsfall eben allgemein üblich ist. Eine solche Tätigkeit aber ist kein geeigneter Stoff für eine Erzählung; sie will beschrieben werden”, emphasis mine).

214 Cf. my discussion of Sc. 237b-70a in 4.3.2, 11.
On it he placed a soft fallow, a fertile field, wide, thrice-ploughed. In it many ploughmen, while wheeling their yoked teams, were driving [them] this way and that way. And they, whenever after having turned they would reach the headland of the field, (545) to them next a man gave into their hands a cup of honeysweet wine, coming up [to them]; and the others turned along their furrows, eager to reach the headland of the deep fallow. It [the fallow] was growing dark behind [them], and it looked like a ploughed [fallow], even though it was of gold; it was exceedingly made as a wonder.

This is the first of three subthemes introduced by ἐν δ’ ἐτίθει (541-9, 550-60, 561-72).

These images are of an agricultural nature, and depict the seasonal work of the farmer’s year: ploughing, harvest, and vintage.215 I shall start again with the text. There is a difference in the use of tenses between 541-3 and 547-9 on the one hand (imperfects and pluperfects), and 544-6 on the other (iterative aorists). In addition, line 544 contains a subordinate temporal clause with ὁπότε; in line 545, we find ἔπειτα. Thus, whereas 541-3 and 547-9 clearly contain the descriptive discourse mode, it would seem that 544-6, on account of ὁπότε and ἔπειτα, contain the diegetic discourse mode.216

If we compare lines 544-6 with 525-32, which also contain the diegetic discourse mode, we notice that in 525-32 normal aorist tenses occur, but in 544-6 iterative aorists.217 How must these iterative verb forms be understood? Primavesi argues that

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215 Edwards 1991: 221. According to Taplin 1980: 7-8, these three scenes “clearly represent spring, summer, and autumn”; he further takes 573-86 to represent winter (Leaf [1898] 1902: 609 already suggested as much, but he is cautious). According to West 2011: 352-3, the ploughing takes places in November, the harvest in May, and the vintage in September. It seems best, then, not to connect these scenes with any particular season.

216 See also my discussion below of lines 599-602, where iterative aorists occur too (twice ἔρεξασκον, in 599 and 602).

217 According to Kühner and Gerth 1898: 162, Anmerkung 4, there is a difference in meaning between aorist and imperfect iteratives: “(...) in Verbindung mit diesen Endungen bewahren beide Zeitformen ihren ursprünglichen Charakter, indem der iterative Aorist ein wiederholtes
these aorists become durative by the iterative suffix, and are thus like the other imperfects used in the shield ekphrasis. Yet this solution is unnecessary, and the verbs can retain their iterative meaning. In fact, lines 544-6 differ from lines containing imperfects, in that they do feature a sequence of events – but of two events only, which are, furthermore, iterative. I will address this issue in the discussion of the image below.

The text, then, has a descriptive organization in 541-3 and 547-9, but a narrative one in 544-6. What are the other descriptive features present in the text? Lines 541-2 contain many adjectives, some of which are of a visual nature (μαλακήν, εὐρεῖαν, τρίπολον; perhaps πίειραν). Other visual details are found in lines 547 (βαθείης), and especially 548-9. In fact, these lines contain no ongoing events, and focus only on the way the shield looks. As such, these lines are prototypically descriptive.

Lines 548-9 are devoted wholly to the way the fallow looks: it is growing dark behind the ploughers (ἡ δὲ μελαίνετ' ὀπίσθεν). This phrase could refer either to the res ipsae or opus ipsum. The rest of the lines is devoted to the opus ipsum, and indicate that the narrator is describing a static image: the fallow looked (ἔῴκει) like a ploughed one, even though it was made of gold. This section is closed off by τὸ δὴ περὶ θαῦμα τέτυκτο, “it had been made exceedingly as a wonder” (549). The pluperfect makes clear that what is here reviewed by the narrator is finished; τὸ most likely refers to the preceding image. By emphasizing that the image or shield is a θαῦμα, the narrator anticipates unbelief on the side of the narratee (“how can a field that is made of gold become black and look like a ploughed field?” – “because it is a marvel”). At the same time, the narrator expresses his admiration for Hephaestus’ divine craftsmanship.

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Ereignis, das iterative Imperfekt eine wiederholte Handlung in ihrer Entwicklung, in ihrem Verlaufe bezeichnet", Stahl 1907: 104 denies any such difference in meaning.

Primavesi 2002: 198: “(…) da bei fünf Aoristen der Aspekt durch ein die Wiederholung anzeigendes Iterativ-Suffix oder durch iterative, eine Wiederholung anzeigenden Optativ wieder ins Linear-Zuständliche umgebogen wird (...)."


Explicit comparison between image and reality is rare in the Homeric shield ekphrasis, but much more frequent in the Shield (see Bühler 1960: 96, who has a list of such phrases in other ekphraseis; he does not list ὥς τε θεώ περ in 518 and ὥς τε ζωοὶ βροτοί in 539). On lines 548-9, see also Heffernan 1993: 4 and Squire 2011: 336-7.


Becker 1995: 129 appropriately quotes the T scholion on 548-9: ἡ ὀπίσω τοῦ ἁρώτου γῆ ἐμελαίνετο. ἀπιστὸν δὲ, καὶ αὐτὸς διὰ τοῦ θαυμάζειν πιστὸν εἰργάσατο, “the earth behind the plough...
Let us now turn to the narrativity of the image. Its main theme is a νειὸν μαλακήν, “a soft fallow” (541); μαλακήν refers to its loose and arable earth. The field is fertile (πίειραν ἄρουραν). It is also wide (εὐρεῖαν), which means that it can contain many ploughers; and it is τρίπολον, thrice-ploughed, which indicates that the image depicts a field that has already been ploughed. After having provided an overview of the whole field, the narrator focuses on the figures in it (ἐν αὐτῇ, 542): many ploughmen (πολλοὶ δ’ ἀροτῆρες) are driving their teams of oxen throughout the field (ἔνθα καὶ ἔνθα, 543).

Ἐλάστρεον (543) is the frequentative of ἐλαύνω ("were driving repeatedly"), and thus prepares for lines 544-7. In these lines, the narrator zooms in on the actions of the figures described in 543. As indicated above, in lines 544-6 the narrator uses a temporal clause with an iterative optative (ὁπότε…ἱκοίατο, 544), and two iterative aorists (δόσκεν, στρέψασκον, 546). In connection with the representation of a static image, the iterative verbs can be explained as follows. An iterative verb indicates that the action depicted in the image repeats itself ad infinitum: each time a plougher reaches the headland, someone gives him a cup of wine. On the shield, we may imagine one plougher being

was becoming black. This is incredible, but [the poet] himself has made it credible by his marvelling.


224 According to Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 143, μαλακήν means “locker”, i.e. “loose”, presumably of the soil. LSf translate with “fresh-ploughed fallow” (s.v. μαλακός I); the LfgrE translate “(sich) weich (anfühlend)” (s.v. μαλακός B 1), note that the adjective is used “von ritzbarer Oberfläche” and that it implies that the field is “gut pflügbar” (B 1 a).

225 For the relation between ἄρουρα and νειός, see LfgrE s.v. ἄρουρα B 1 a 2.

226 The scholia connect the epithet ἐρείπων with the many teams of oxen in the field (T-scholion, 542a: ἀκολούθως τῷ ἐπιθέτῳ· τὴν γὰρ εὐρεῖαν πολλοῖς ζεύγεσί φησιν ἀροῦσθαι, “[line 542b is] in accordance with the epithet, for by “wide” he means [that the field] is ploughed by many teams”).

227 For τριπόλον, see West 1978: 274: “[d]uring the fallow year the soil was broken up by plough or mattock two, three, or even four times (...). That the field has already been ploughed is also evinced by ἀρηρομένη δὲ ἐῴκει (548).

228 The LfgrE translate ζεύγα δινεύοντες ἐλάστρεον ἐνθα καὶ ἐνθα with “trieben (jeweils) wendend (...) die Gespanne hin u[nd] her” (s.v. δινεύω B).

229 The LfgrE translate ἐλάστρεον with “trieben auf und ab, wendeten jew[eils] am Feldrain” (s.v. ἐλαστρέω).
handed a cup. Yet there are more ploughers in the field: other ploughers (τοὶ δὲ, 546) are turning at the other side of the field (στρέψασκον), and are eager to reach the headland, too.230 The narrator, then, surveys the field with the ploughers as a whole. Since ploughing involves going up and down a field multiple times, he uses iterative forms to indicate that the action must be imagined as repeating itself. The iterativity is inferred by the narrator from a static image.

Scholars are agreed that iterative events acquire a descriptive aspect.231 Rather than designating a single, unique action, iterative verbs designate actions that repeatedly or habitually take place. In lines 544-6, a sequence of two events repeats itself: each time the ploughers reach the headland, a man comes up to them (ἐπιών, 546) and gives them a cup of wine. The relation between these two events is made clear by the temporal conjunction ὁπότε (544) in combination with ἔπειτα (545). The aorist participle στρέψαντες (544) refers to an earlier event, and indicates that the ploughers who are now being handed a cup of wine have earlier turned at the headland on the other side of the field.232 This earlier event is also depicted in the image, but it involves other ploughers (τοὶ δὲ, 546), who are depicted in making this very turn (στρέψασκον, 546). Event sequencing is thus implied by the image. Line 547 closes this section off by ring

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230 Cf. Byre 1992: 39: “most of these iteratives refer to the motions of a plurality of actors; here it is possible to interpret the poet’s words not as referring to the repeated actions of the same individuals, but rather as a synthesis and summary of different phases of the same action as they are performed by different actors on the represented scene before his mind’s eye”; similarly Becker 1995: 125: “the number of ploughmen (...) encourages the audience to imagine different figures engaged in different stages of ploughing, not a single figure engaged in consecutive actions”.

231 The locus classicus is Genette [1972] 1980: 117 (“...[t]he classic function of iterative narrative is thus fairly close to that of description (...”). See also Chatelaine [1986] 1987: 135, Mosher 1991: 434-5, Schmid 2003: 29 (“[r]epeated transformations, even if they are both relevant and unpredictable, represent at best a low level of eventfulness. (...) When it represents iteration, narration approaches the mode of description”; similarly Schmid [2003] 2010: 12), Herman and Vervaecck [2001] 2005: 66 (“[i]teratives are prevalent in the description of habits”), and Lyytikäinen 2012: 81-2 (“[o]ne way of downplaying the uniqueness of events, even on the level of narration, is by using iterative narration (...) emphasizing the iterative, or the things that keep repeating themselves in daily life, shifts the focus from the stories with dramatic plots and extraordinary events to pictures of the world”).

232 So the LfgrE s.v. στρέφω B I b a (“the τέλσον is the starting point on one side of the field, [στρέφε]ψαι denotes the turning on the opposite side”).
composition (τέλσον ἱκέσθαι, 547 = ἱκοίατο τέλσον, 544): the ploughers who are now at one side of the field are eager to reach the other side of the field, where they will receive a cup of wine. Their actions are thus not only repetitive, but also circular: they have no inherent beginning or end.\textsuperscript{233} The idea of circularity is strengthened by the ring composition in these lines.

The narrativity of this image is generic and thus low: the image depicts a number of easily recognizable moments from an everyday activity, ploughing.\textsuperscript{234} Most subjects are plural and anonymous, although in line 546 a man (ἀνήρ) is mentioned. Event sequencing is implied by the image in lines 544-46; world disruption is absent. As for ‘what-it’s-like’, the wine is said to be honeysweet (μελιηδέος, 545) but the drinking of this wine is not referred to. The figures are eager (ἱέμενοι, 547) to reach the headland of the fallow. Again, we see that the element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is present, but that references to feelings or experiences are made in passing.

4. A king’s domain: labourers harvesting the crop (550-60)

On it he wrought the estate of a king; there hired labourers were reaping, holding sharp sickles in their hands. Of the cuttings, some were falling along the swath, in a row, on the ground, the other [cuttings] the binders of sheaves were binding with sheaf-bindings. Three sheaf-binders were standing by; and behind [them] (555) boys, picking up the cuttings, carrying [them] in their arms, were unceasingly passing them on; and among them a king was standing at the

\textsuperscript{233} Byre 1992: 39: “[t]he movements, confined to the spaces in which they are initially set, are (...) not only repetitive but also circular (which is, incidentally, in keeping with the [presumably] round shape of the shield) – i.e. their actions have no inherent beginning and end”.

\textsuperscript{234} Similarly Byre 1992: 39.
swath, in silence, holding his sceptre, rejoicing in his heart. And heralds, at a distance, underneath an oak, were getting a banquet ready, and after having slaughtered a big ox they were preparing it; and they, the women, (560) were sprinkling abundant quantities of white barley as a meal for the reapers.

The second agricultural subtheme consists of a harvesting scene. I first discuss the image. In line 550, the narrator announces the main theme, τέμενος βασιλήϊον, “the estate of a king”. In contrast with the previous image (lines 541-2) and the next (561-2), the narrator does not state anything concerning the physical appearance of the main theme. He next moves on to the figures who are working on the land (ἐνθα δ’ ἔριθοι, 550). In lines 550b-51 the narrator provides a general picture of what is going on in the image: hired labourers are reaping.

In the following lines, the narrator further specifies what the labourers are doing. He first proceeds by enumeration (552-4): ἄλλα (…) / ἄλλα δ’ (…) / τρεῖς δ’ (…). The sheaf-binders in 554 stand out; they are said to be three in number, and are not engaged in any activity, but standing by (ἐφέστασαν). Behind them (αὐτὰρ ὄπισθε), boys are picking up the sheaves (δραγμεύοντες) and passing them on (πάρεχον) to the sheaf-binders (554-5). The narrator proceeds spatially through the scene. He does not

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235 We should perhaps read, with the majority of manuscripts, τέμενος βαθυλήϊον, “with deep crop, very fruitful”. This would provide the main theme with an adjective that describes its physical appearance. Βαθυλήϊον is also read by Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 143, who translate “eine Flur mit hoher Saatfrucht”. According to Leaf [1898] 1902: 309-10, both readings are equally possible and appropriate. The OCT and West print βασιλήϊον. According to Edwards 1991: 223, βασιλήϊον “is clearly correct”; he refers to 556 (βασιλεύς) and to Hes. Sc 288 (… αὐτὰρ ἔην βαθὺ λήιον…, “and there was a deep corn-field”), under influence of which the reading βαθυλήϊον might have occurred. I would rather turn his argument around: it makes more sense that the author of the Shield imitates Homer; the occurrence of βασιλεύς in 566 might have led to the reading βασιλήϊον.

236 Ερίθοι is a general name for hired labourers; ἢμων is used intransitively.

237 The meaning of ἐπήτριμα (552) is uncertain. See Edwards 1991: 171 (“the ancients took it to mean ‘close together’, from ἁτριον, ‘warp’”) and the LfgrE s.v. ἐπήτριμα B (who suggest “nebenenieder, reihenweise”); this was also suggested by Leaf [1898] 1902: 284 (“[i]n rows, one after another seems to be the sense required in all three places”, italics in the original).

238 ἐπήτριμα is used intransitively, “were at hand” (for which he refers to Il 23.835). LSJ s.v. πάρεχω A translate this instance with “hand over”, as do the LfgrE s.v. ἔχω B II 8 a
enumerate the ongoing events in their chronological order: first, of course, the cuttings have to be gathered and handed on (555-6), before they can be bound into sheaves (553). The silence of the king has attracted much attention; see e.g. Becker 1995: 132. According to Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 144 and Edwards 1991: 224, βασιλεύς refers to a local landowner.

240 The heralds are making ready a banquet (δαίτα πένοντο): after having slaughtered a big ox (ἱερεύσαντες, aorist participle) they are now preparing it (ἀμφεπον, 558-9). The women are sprinkling barley over the meat (παλύνω) as meal for the labourers (δεῖπνον ἐρίθοισιν, 559). What is being prepared, then, is a general feast for the labourers.243
The narrativity of this scene is low. Again, we may speak of generic narrativity. A king is singled out, but the βασιλέας does not represent a particular king, but someone who holds the office of king.\footnote{Feldman 1969: 79: "[a]uf dem Schild bleiben sie alle namenlos, ohne Eigenleben, und bekleiden hohstens ein Amt oder eine Pflicht, wie die Könige, die Richter, die Hirten".} In this sense, he resembles the ἱστωρ in 501 and the πάῖς in 569. The image does not depict a sequence of events, but with ἵερευσαντες in 559 the narrator refers to an earlier, non-depicted moment. In lines 552-6, the narrator describes the figures in their spatial arrangement: the boys are standing behind (αὐτὰρ ὄπισθε) the sheaf-binders. He could also have described the actions of the figures in the order in which these normally take place (as he does in lines 498-501, and in the city at war). The spatial arrangement, however, fits the description of a static image; furthermore, it makes clear that the way the narrator looks at the image is also driven by the composition of the image: apparently, the δράγματα catch his eyes first, after which he looks at the ἰμαλλοδετῆρες, behind whom he next spots the παῖδες. World disruption is absent, but 'what-it’s-like' is not: the king is said to rejoice in his heart (γηθόσυνος κήρ, 557).\footnote{The scholia derive this emotional state from the appearance of the king on the opus ipsum: ἐφαίνετο γὰρ τῷ προσώπῳ ἡδόμενος καὶ τοιαύτην ἐχόν κατάστασιν, “because it appears from his face that he has pleasure and that he has such a condition" (A scholion, 18.557c).}

Apart from its descriptive structure, the text contains some other prototypically descriptive features. I note the following visual details: possibly βαθυλήϊον (550, if this is the reading one adopts), ὀξείας (551), ἐπήτριμα (552), τρεῖς (554), μέγαν (559), and λεύκα, πολλά (560). Two pluperfects (ἐφέστασαν, ἑστήκει), equalling imperfects, designate states rather than ongoing events.

5. A vineyard: young men and women carrying grapes (561-72)

Ἐν δὲ ἔτιθε σταφυλῆσι μέγα βρίθουσαν ἀλώῃ
καλὰν χρυσεῖν· μέλαινες δ' ἀνά βότρυες ἦσαν,
ἐστήκει δὲ κάμαξ ἀργυρέῃσιν ἀλώῃ.
ἐφέστασαν δὲ καὶ ἐστήκει ἀργυρέῃσιν,
κατεστέρων: μία δ' οὐ ἀπεστάλθη ἕν ἐπ' αὐτήν.
αὐτῇ δ' ἔλασσε κασσιτέρου, τῇ νίσοντο φορῆε, ὅτε τρυγόεν ἀλώῃ.
παρθένικας δὲ καὶ ἠειθεῖς ἀταρπιτὸς
πλεκτοὺς ἐν ταλάροισιν, τοῖσιν δ' ἐν μέσσοισιν πάιδες φέροντες μελιηδέα.
παρθένικας δὲ καὶ ἠειθεῖς ἀταρπιτὸς
ἐπὶ τοῖσιν δ' ὑπὸ καλὸν ἀείδε ἠμερέον κιθάριζε
λίνον δ' ὑπὸ χαλόν ἀείδε.
On it he wrought a vineyard heavily laden with clusters, beautiful, golden; black were the grapes along it, and it [the vineyard] was set up with silver poles throughout. Around it he drove a trench of blue enamel, and around [it all] a fence (565) of tin; a single path only led to it [the vineyard], along which the carriers were going, whenever they were harvesting the vineyard. And young girls and young men, with light-hearted glee, were carrying the honeysweet fruit in wicker baskets. In their midst a boy was making delightful music with a clear-toned lyre, and he was beautifully singing a Linos-song in accompaniment with his delicate voice; and they, stamping [the ground] together, were following the dance and shouting, while jumping with their feet.

The third and last agricultural subtheme consists of a vineyard. I first discuss the text, which has a descriptive structure. Lines 561-5 are, in fact, prototypically descriptive: the lines are wholly devoted to a physical description of the vineyard. Much attention is paid to the opus ipsum: χρυσείην (562), κάμαξι (…) ἀργυρέῃσιν (563), κυανέην κάπετον (564). As for other visual details, the vineyard is heavily laden with clusters of grapes (σταφυλῇσι μέγα βρίθουσαν, 561), and the grapes are black (μέλανες, 562). The narrator also states that the vineyard is beautiful (καλήν, 562), and that only a single path leads to it (μία δ' οἴη ἀταρπιτός, 565). In the rest of the image (566-572), only one visual detail is found (πλεκτοῖς, 568); as for other qualities, I note ἀταλὰ φρονέοντες (567), μελιηδέα (568), λιγείῃ (569), ἱμερόεν, καλόν (570), and λεπταλέῃ (571); the details in lines 569-71 refer to sound.

In 564-5 the narrator refers to an action of Hephaestus, which he elsewhere only does at the beginning of a new image: περὶ δ' ἕρκος ἔλασσε / κασσιτέρου. That this reference occurs within this subtheme can perhaps be explained by the fact that whenever we hear of Hephaestus making something it is in reference to the scenery.

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247 According to Becker 1995: 134, μέλανες refers to the opus ipsum; it could also refer to the res ipsae (cf. ἡ δὲ μελαίνετ' δειπνούν in 548). At any rate, blue grapes are meant (Richter 1968: 129); perhaps one can also conclude from the adjective that the grapes are ripe and ready to be harvested.
Apart from this and the other reference to making in 561 (ἐτίθει), the narrator uses only verbs that designate states in lines 561-5 (ἦσαν, 562; ἑστήκει, 563, ἦεν, 565), which give the impression of stasis. The text progresses spatially. Nothing is happening in these lines: the narrator provides a picture of a vineyard in which not a single human figure is present.

Though the vineyard itself is empty of people, the path leading to it is not. Line 566 does not refer to anything which is depicted on the shield: the iterative imperfect (νίσοντο) in combination with the distributive-iterative optative (τρυγόῳεν) mark this line as a description of what habitually happens on this path. This is the path, then, along which the carriers (φορῆες) go to the vineyard every time they are gathering the vintage.

I now turn to the discussion of the narrativity of the image. In 568, the narrator first describes human figures that are depicted on the shield: they are carrying (φέρον) the honeysweet fruit in wicker baskets (567-8), presumably along the path mentioned in 566. As in 536, the narrator focuses on one individual in the midst of the others (τοῖσι δ’ ἐν μέσσοισι) who stands out from the crowd, presumably on account of his lyre (φόρμιγγι λιγείῃ, 569). While playing the lyre, he sings the Linos-song. Although song cannot be depicted, it should be noted that the narrator first describes the boy (πάϊς) with his lyre (φόρμιγγι λιγείῃ) in 569, after which 570-1 is easily accepted by the narratee as an inference from what is depicted in the image. After having described this individual, the narrator moves back to the group in 571-2 (τοὶ δὲ). Τοὶ δὲ could either

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248 The spatial indicators are ἀνά (562), διαμπερές (563), ὀμφλ., περί (564), ἐπί (565).
249 Cf. Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 144-5: “(...) der durch den Weingarten führende Pfad, auf dem sich alles Dargestellte abspielt”. They take ἐπ᾿ αὐτην as “über, d.i. durch ihn selbst hin, den Weingarten im Gegensatz zu Graben und Zaun”; for this meaning, see LSF s.v. ἐπί C I 5.
250 For the iterative imperfect, see Rijksbaron [1984] 2002: 14; Chantraine 1953: 260 lists τρυγόῳεν among the examples of “optatifs de répétition dans le passé”.
251 According to Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 145, the φορῆες are not the παρθενικαὶ δὲ καὶ ἠΐθεοι of 567, but labourers hired by the owner of the vineyard (“Arbeiter im Dienst der Winzer”). However, the similarity between φορῆες and φέρον makes it likely that the same figures are meant; in addition, their interpretation leaves the presence of the girls and boys unexplained.
252 According to the scholia, he relieves the labour of the workers (δηλονότι τέρπων καὶ ἐπικουφίζων τὸν πόνον, “that is to say delighting [them] and relieving the work”, T scholion, 569-70a).
refer to the παρθενικαὶ δὲ καὶ ἠΐθεοι of 567, or to other figures.\textsuperscript{253} In the former case, we must imagine that the girls and boys are dancing while carrying their baskets. In the latter, the narrator now describes different boys and girls who are dancing.\textsuperscript{254} The narrativity of this scene is low and generic. In the first six lines (561-6), the narrator does not refer to any human figures; these only appear in lines 563-72. Event sequencing and world disruption are absent. The narrator singles out one figure, but this individual is mentioned because of his occupation. ‘What-it’s-like’ is absent, too; ἀταλὰ φρονέοντες (567) does not refer to what the girls and boys are thinking about their activities, but to the fact that they are young and innocent.\textsuperscript{255}

6. A herd of cattle: two lions attacking a bull (573-86)

Ἐν δ’ ἀγέλην ποίησε βοῶν ὀρθοκραιρῶν·
αἱ δὲ βόες χρυσοῖο
tetteύχατο κασσιτέρου τε,
μυκηθμῷ δ’ ἀπὸ κόπρου
ἐπεσεύοντο νομόνδε
μακρὰ μεμυκῶς
τοὺς δὲ ἄναρρήξαντε
βοῶς μεγάλοι
ἔγκατα καὶ μέλαν
αὔτως ἐνδίεσαν
ταχέας κύνας ὀτρύνοντε
οἱ δὲ νομῆες
αὔτως ἐνδίεσαν
ταχέας κύνας ὀτρύνοντες.
οἱ δὲ ήτοι δακέειν
μὲν ἀπετρωπῶντο λεόντων,
ἱστάμενοι δὲ μάλ’ ἐγγὺς
ὑλάκτεον ἐκ τ’ ἀλέοντα.

\textsuperscript{253} Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 145 opt for the former; for the latter option, cf. the use of τοί δέ in 546 (“the others”).


\textsuperscript{255} See LfgRE s.v. φρονέω B I 1 c δ: ἀταλά (…) “unbeschwerte (von Zukunftssorgen unbelastete) Kinder u[n]d Jugendliche (...); Richardson 1974: 157 (ad h.Cer. 24) translates "with youthful spirit".
On it he made a herd of straight-horned cattle. And they, the cattle, had been made of gold and tin, and with lowing they were hurrying from the farmyard to the pasture beside the sounding river, beside the waving reed. Golden herdsmen were marching with the cattle, four in number, and nine swift-footed dogs were following them. Two fearsome lions among the foremost cattle were grasping a loud-lowing bull: and he, being dragged away; and the dogs and young men followed after him. And the two lions, after having torn open the hide of the mighty bull, were devouring the innards and black blood. And they, the herdsmen, were vainly setting the swift dogs on, while exhorting them. But they, with regard to biting, were turning away from the lions, and taking their stand very close by were barking and avoiding the lions.

The main theme of this section is not a location, but a herd of cattle (ἀγέλην… βοῶν ὀρθοκραιράων, 573). As is clear from 575-6, the cattle are moving from one location to the other. The fact that the cattle are not depicted in one single location but in movement is probably the reason why the main theme of this section is not a location.

I start with a discussion of the text. It consists mainly of imperfects; one pluperfect (τετεύχατο, 574) is found, too. These tenses are all associated with the descriptive discourse mode. Only the aorist μετεκίαθον in 581 is alien to the descriptive discourse mode. This aorist can be interpreted as referring to information that is not depicted, just as the aorists in the city at war. Rather than arguing that the text here contains the diegetic discourse mode, I analyse τὸν δὲ κύνες μετεκίαθον ἠδ’ αἰζηοί in 581 as a narrative sentence occurring in the descriptive discourse mode. Thus, apart from this sentence, the text has a descriptive structure.

I note the following other descriptive features. Line 574 refers to the opus ipsum, and describes the appearance of the surface of the shield; similarly χρύσειοι in 577. I note the following other visual details: ὀρθοκραιράων (573), ῥοδανόν (576), τέσσαρες, ἐννέα (578), δύο, πρώτῃσι (579), μέλαν (583). Some other details are also found: κελάδοντα (576, sound), πόδας ἀργοί (578), σμερδαλέω (579), ἐρύγμηλον, μακρὰ μεμυκώς (580, sound), ταχέας (584).

Let us now turn to the image. After focusing on the opus ipsum in 574, the narrator moves to the res ipsae in 575-6, with much attention going out to spatial details (ἀπό, νομόνδε; πάρ, παρά). After having provided an overview of the image as a whole (573-
6), the narrator focuses on the four herdsmen which accompany the cattle; nine dogs are following them (577-8). The narrator next moves to the front of the herd (ἐν πρώτῃσι βόεσσι), where two fearsome lions have caught a loud-bellowing bull (579-80). The bull is being dragged away, while bellowing mightily (μακρὰ μεμυκώς, 580). The focus on sound may seem striking, but is again easily accepted as an inference by the narrator from the action depicted in the image (see also on 570-1 above).

Lines 582-6 form a new phase. This is marked by the anterior aorist participle ἀναρρήξαντε (582), which indicates that the bull is now dead. I note, too, the anaphoric pronoun τὼ μέν, which is similarly used at the beginning of a new phase in the city at war. Again, an aorist tense is found (μετεκίαθον, 581) between two phases (for which compare 530-2 above). With this aorist tense, the narrator indicates that the herdsmen and dogs are now in the vicinity of the bull. The lions are devouring the innards and blood of the bull (583). The herdsmen are vainly (αὔτως, 584) inciting the dogs against the lions. Lines 585-6 can be regarded as an elaboration of αὔτως: the dogs do not bite, but bark and avoid the lions. I would hazard the suggestion – and

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258 Ἐστιχόωντο in 578 may indicate that the herdsmen are depicted in a row – perhaps two by two? (see LSJ s.v. στιχάομαι A; the LfgrE s.v. στιχάομαι B translate with “aufmarschieren”).

259 The use of the passive is rare in the shield ekphrasis; ἕλκετο perhaps emphasises the helplessness of the bull.

260 Furthermore, it is only logical that a ταῦρος ἐρύγμηλος (580) bellows mightily (μακρὰ μεμυκώς).

261 Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 43-4 has misunderstood the tenses in this passage (he sees, for example, a prolepsis in ἀναρρήξαντε, which he mistakes for a future participle), on account of which he arrives at a different conclusion.

262 For an aorist participle at the beginning of a new phase, see also 527 above. That line 582 marks a new phase is also recognised by Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 146: “[a]syndeton: ein neues Moment, aber innerhalb der vorher beschriebenen Situation”. Becker 1995: 139 states that “depictions can low and move in the describer’s experience of the images, which is what is being described by this ekphrasis”; I beg to differ.

263 Primavesi 2002: 204: “[i]n 579-81 sehen wir die beiden Löwen, die das Rind wegzerren; in 583-586 sehen wir Hirten und Hunde bei halbherzig-ängstlichen Gegenmaßnahmen. Dazwischen müssen Hirten und Hunde natürlich herangeeilt sein; das aber können wir uns denken, und so steht es, als Zwischenschritt, im Aorist”.

264 For αὔτως as “vainly”, see Edwards 1991: 228 and LfgrE s.v. αὔτως B 5. For ἐνδίεσαν, see Willcock 1984: 272 ("probably, 'set on'") and LfgrE s.v. δί(ημι), δίω B 2 ("hetzten hinein, auf").

265 For ἀπετρωπῶντο, see LfgrE s.v. τρωπάω B II 1 ("turn away (from: gen."); δάκεειν is an infinitive of respect (so Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 146 and Willcock 1984: 272).
this would be no point of discussion in a Hellenistic text – that αὐτῶς is a little metanarrative joke of the narrator: it is only natural that the exhortation of the herdsmen is "in vain" (αὐτῶς). After all, the narrator is describing a static image, in which an exhortation never has effect.\footnote{This suggestion was also made by Aristonicus, as appears from an A-scholion ad 18.584a (for which see Cullhed 2014: 207, to whom I owe this reference). For other examples, see Hes. Sc. 310-11 (discussed in 4.3.2, 12), ἐτώσια in Theoc. Id. 1.38 (discussed in 5.3.5, 1), and ἀφθίτῳ in A.R. 1.730 (discussed in 6.2.5, 1).}

The narrativity of this image is much higher than that of the previous three. Firstly, it consists of two different moments of time; thus, event sequencing is present. The narrator also refers to two non-represented events by an aorist verb and participle. World disruption is present, too, in the attack on the bull (579-86).\footnote{We may compare the similar simile in 17.61-7, in which one lion kills a bull; the savagery of the lion is emphasized (αἷμα καὶ ἔγκατα πάντα λαφύσσει / δῃῶν, "tearing it apart", 17.64-5) as well as the fear of the herdsmen and dogs (οὐδ’ ἐθέλουσι / ἀντίον ἐλθέμεναι· μάλα γὰρ χλωρὸν δέος αἱρεῖ, "[they] do not want to face him; because hard green fear has hold of them", 66-7).} In lines 573-8, the narrator creates a pastoral image, with emphasis on its loveliness (e.g. the waving reed beside the sounding river, 576). With σμερδαλέω (579) the narrator smashes this pastoral loveliness; the sound of the river has given way to the sound of a bull in death agony (μακρὰ μεμυκώς, 580). This is certainly an element of ‘what-it’s-like’.

Striking in this image is the attention to number: rather than an unspecified plurality of figures, the narrator specifies four herdsmen, nine dogs, two lions, and one bull.\footnote{The narrator had also used numerals in 523 and 525 (δώο σκοτοῖ and δώο ... νομῆς), and in 554 (τρεῖς ... ἀμαλλοδετήρες).} Fittschen notes that the narrator might be thinking of a symmetric composition, with two lions on either side of the bull.\footnote{Fittschen 1973: 14-5.} At any rate, the specified number of figures strengthens the idea that the narrator is describing an image, since it creates the illusion that the narrator has a specific image in front of him, in which there are nine dogs, not less and not more.\footnote{We could perhaps speak of an effet de réel (for which see 1.5.2).}

### 7. A sheep-pasture (587-9)

Ἐν δὲ νομὸ νομίζεις περικλυτός ὁμογινεῖς
eν καλὴ βρασσὴ μέγαν οἰῶν ἀργεννὰς,

σταθμοῖς τε κλισίας τε κατηρεφέας ἰδὲ σηκούς.

\(\text{aor.}\)
On it the famous crook-legged made a meadow in a fair valley, large, of white sheep, and farmsteads and roofed huts and pens.

This short interlude does not consist of human figures. On account of the lack of human figures, as well as its brevity, this subtheme has attracted attention. Perhaps it belongs closely to the previous one, in which the cows were said to be hastening νομόνδε, "to the meadow" (575); this image starts with ἐν δὲ νομὸν ποίησε. Lines 587-9 could very well be the meadow to which the cows are hastening. Two arguments may speak against this interpretation. First, ποίησε, which is usually interpreted as introducing a separate scene. As I have argued above (3.3.2), the introductory verbs should not be connected with any arrangement of the scenes on the shield. Second, the meadow in 587-9 is one in which sheep are found (οἰῶν ἀργεννάων, 588). Yet there seems to be no reason why cows and sheep could not share a meadow.

The narrativity of this image is zero: there are no human figures engaged in any actions. As for the descriptivity of the text: the location of the meadow (ἐν καλῇ βήσσῃ) and its size (μέγαν) are indicated (588), as well as the animals (588) and the buildings that are in it (589). This gives the narratee a basic idea of what the meadow looks like. Yet visual details are scarce, and the narrator only attributes two qualities to the meadow (μέγαν οἰῶν ἀργεννάων), and one quality to the huts (κατηρεφέας).

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271 I follow the interpretation of ἀμφιγυήεις by the LfgrE (s.v. ἀμφιγυήεις B, “beidseitig krumm, krummbeinig”). According to Leaf, “σταθμοί seems to be a general name like the modern ‘sheep-station,’ including both the κλισίαι, huts for the shepherds, and σηκοί, folds for the sheep”. Richter 1968: 25, note 138, on the other hand, states “[d]och ist nicht einzusehen, warum hier σταθμοί nicht feste Holzhütten sein sollen, in denen die Tiere bei Unwetter und in kalten Nächten Schutz suchen konnten”. According to Ameis and Hentze [1868] 1908: 147, σταθμοί are “Viehställe”, κλισίαι “Hütten der Hirten”, and σηκοί “unbedachte Pferche oder Hürden”. The LfgrE s.v. σταθμός B 1 translates with “Hirtengehöft”, and refers for discussion to Leaf, Richter and Ameis-Hentze.

272 For example, Taplin 1980: 9 thinks the lines may be interpolated; Becker 1995: 141 states that because they lack movement or sound, “they are anomalous on the shield”. Yet they are comparable to 483-9 and 607-8.

273 See e.g. Edwards 1991: 226.

274 In h.Ven. 168-9, shepherds are driving cows and sheep together from the flowery meadows (νομῶν ἐξ ἀνθεμοέντων) to the cattle-fold (εἰς σύλιν).
8. A dancing floor filled with dancers (590-606)

590 Ἐν δὲ χορόν ποικίλλε περικλυτὸς ἀμφυγνήεις, τῷ ἱελον ὀλόν ποτ’ ἐνὶ Κνωσῷ εὑρέθη
Δαίδαλος ἤφηςεν κολλὶπλοκάμῳ Ἀριάδνῃ,
Ἔνθα μὲν ἦθεοι καὶ παρθένοι ἀλφεσίβοιαι
ἀρχεύνετ’ ἀλλὰ λοιπού ἐπὶ καρπῷ χεῖρας ἔχοντες.

595 τῶν δ’ αἱ μὲν λεπτὰς ἀθέσας ἔχον, οἱ δὲ χιτῶνας
ἐπὶ τίνως ἔννοίτοι, ἤκα στὰλβοντας ἐλαίῳ·
καὶ ρ’ αἱ μὲν κολάς στεφάνας ἔχον, οἱ δὲ μαχαίρας
ἔχον χρυσαίας ἐξ ἀργυρέων τελαμώνων.

600 οἳ δ’ ὅτε μὲν ἢφασσαν ἐπίσταμένοι πόθεσιν
θρέξασκον ἐπισταμένοις πόδεσσι
ῥεῖα μάλ’, ὡς ὅτε τις τροχὸν ἢφασσεν ἐν παλάμῃσι
ἐξόμενος κεραμεὺς ἐξόμενος, αἰ κε ἢφησον·
ἄλλοτε δ’ αὕτη ἢφασσεν ἐπὶ στίχας ἀλλήλοις.

605 πολλὸς δ’ ἴμελπεν χορὸν περιστάτ’ ἵμαλος
tερπόμενοι [μετὰ δὲ σφῖν ἐμέλπετο θείος ὁίδος]
φορμίζων; δοιὼ δὲ κυβιστητῆρε κατ’ αὐτοῦς
μολῆς ἢδαρχοντες ἠθένεας κατά μέσους.

On it the famous strong-armed god made an elaborate dancing floor, like the one which once, in broad Knossos, Daedalus had fashioned for fair-haired Ariadne. There young men and maidens worth many cattle were dancing, holding one another’s hands at the wrist. (595) Of these the maidens were wearing fine cloths, and the young men were wearing fine-spun tunics, softly glistening with oil. And the maidens were wearing fair garlands, and the young men had golden daggers hanging from silver sword-belts. And they, at one time, moved with skilled feet, (600) very nimble, just as when a potter, sitting [before it], tries his wheel, fitting in his palms, to see if it will run; at another time again they moved in lines towards each other. A great multitude was standing around the lovely dance, delighting in it; [and among them a divine minstrel was singing, (605) while playing on his lyre:] and two tumblers were spinning around among them, in their midst, taking the lead in dance.

The last image with human figures consists of a dancing floor (χορόν).275 I start with a discussion of the text. It consists mostly of imperfects and pluperfects; this means that the text largely has a descriptive structure. In this respect, lines 591-2 and 599-602 are

275 That χορόν designates a place for dancing, rather than a dance, was already recognised by the scholia (see A and T scholion, 18.590 a and b). See also Marg [1957] 1971: 37, note 50 and Elliger 1975: 33, note 8 (who notes, furthermore, that χορόν in 603 can also have spatial meaning).
different. The comparisons in 591-2 and 600-1 account for different tenses in those lines (aorist and iterative subjunctives). Both comparisons do not refer to what is depicted on the shield. As for lines 599 and 602, these contain two iterative aorists accompanied by two temporal adverbs, ὁτὲ μὲν (599) and ἄλλοτε δ’ αὖ (602). This means that lines 599-602 (excluding the comparison) contain the diegetic discourse mode; I discuss this further below.

The text has a number of other prototypically descriptive features. Lines 595-8 consist of states only and explicitly describe the appearance of the dancing boys and girls; they are full of visual details (λεπτάς, 595; στίλβοντας ἐλαίῳ, 596; χρυσείας, ἀργυρέων, 598; other qualities relate to beauty: ἐὕννήτους, 596; καλὰς, 597). In the other lines, I note the following visual details: πολλὸς (603) and δοιώ (605). Other qualities are ἀλφεσίβοιαι (593), ἐπισταμένοισι (599), and ἱμερόεντα (603). I leave the two comparisons out of consideration, since they do not relate to what is depicted on the shield.

Let us now turn to the image. After the narrator has introduced the dancing floor in 590, he describes its appearance indirectly, by comparing it with the dance floor which Daedalus had once fashioned for Ariadne. The comparison has attracted much attention, because it compares a scene from daily life to the heroic past, instead of vice versa. At any rate, the comparison signals a move away from the shield to a reality outside it, in this case the past.

With ἔνθα, the narrator focuses on the figures depicted on the dancing floor. Young boys and girls are dancing (ὀρχεῦντο) – just as one might expect in a χορός (593-4). In these lines, the narrator surveys the ongoing action as a whole. He further specifies the nature of the dance in 599-602, but first describes the appearance of the figures in 595-8. He uses only verbs that designate states (three imperfect verb forms of ”to have” in 595, 97 and 98; and a pluperfect in the sense of an imperfect, ”to wear”, 596). The narrator proceeds by enumeration, and twice contrasts the girls with the boys (τῶν δ’ αἳ

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276 See e.g. Edwards 1991: 229 and Aubriot 2003: 139. Bassett 1938: 96 notes that "[t]he only reference to the past is the mention of Daedalus, and this is no more than an epic superlative: τῷ ἱκέλον, οἷόν ποτ’ ἐνὶ Κνωσῷ, κτλ., means nothing more than that the dancing place on the shield was as wonderful as the most famous in legend".

277 As is clear from ποτὲ (591) and the anterior aorist ἰσχεσθεν (592). De Jong has listed this comparison, as well as that below in 600-1, as a form of narration (see section 3.2 above). However, descriptions may also feature comparisons, for which see e.g. Hamon 1982: 163; one of his examples is "the fore-topmast staysail is as white as snow". On comparison and metaphor in descriptions, see also Bal 1982: 119-23.
μὲν (…) οἱ δὲ, 595; αἳ μὲν (…) οἱ δὲ, 597; the parallel lines are connected by καί in 597). The narrator moves from their general appearance (their dress, 595-6) to a particular element of it (garlands and golden daggers, 597-8).

Lines 599-602 further deal with the nature of the dance. They feature the temporal adverbs ὁτὲ μὲν (599) and ἄλλοτε δ' αὖ (602) with two iterative aorists (θρέξασκον, for which see the discussion above). The narrator refers to two successive events. These events can be represented in a single image, which must be imagined as simultaneously depicting two different stages of a dance. First, the narrator looks at the first stage, and states that “one time” the figures are dancing in this way (599-600). He next looks at the second stage of the dance, and states that “another time” they are dancing in that way (602). The iterative indicates that the figures perform the same dance over and over again.

The narrator next zooms out, and describes the crowd, who are standing around the dance and enjoying it (603-6). Lines 604b-605a are not found in the manuscripts, but were inserted here by Wolf. They are not genuine, and I therefore do not discuss them here. The narrator ends this scene with two solo-dancers (δοιὼ δὲ κυβιστητῆρε, 605). They are spinning around (ἐδίνευον, 606) in the midst of the other dancers (κατ’ αὐτούς / (…) κατὰ μέσσου, 605-6), and are thus leading the dance (μολπῆς ἐξάρχοντες, 278 I translate θρέξασκον with the LfgE as “sich (schnell/geschmeidig) bewegen” (s.v. τρέχω B). For the adverbial use of ὁτὲ, see LSJ s.v. ὁτέ C.

279 Similar adverbs are found in Theoc. Id. 1.36-7 (for which see 5.3.5.1). 280 Cf. the depiction of a dance on an Attic Geometric oinochoë and the discussion in Snodgrass 1998: 64-5.


282 Χορός may refer both to the dance as well as the dancing place (see Elliger, quoted in note 275 above, and LfgE s.v. χορός B 2)

283 Wolf did so on the authority of Athenaeus, who claims that Aristarchus had removed them from the text. See for discussion West 2001: 250-2.

284 According to Edwards 1991: 231, “[t]he omission of an instrumental accompaniment to the dancing remains odd (…), especially since both the wedding and vintage scenes concludes with phorminx-players (494-5, 569-70).” That a picture of a dance does not necessarily require “instrumental accompaniment” is made clear by a Geometric oinochoë (figure 26 in Snodgrass, for which see note 280 above).

606). With κατ' αὐτούς / (...) κατὰ μέσσους the narrator zooms out again; he ends this image with a reference to the boys and girls of 593.

The narrativity of this image is generic and low. Event sequencing is implied in the two stages of the dance. World disruption is absent; ‘what-it’s-like’ is present in 603-4 (τερπόμενοι); again, the narrator refers to the feelings of the bystanders.

9. The Ocean around the shield’s rim (607-8)

On it he put the great strength of the river Ocean around the outermost rim of the strongly-made shield.

The last image contains no human figures. Neither does the narratee learn much about the appearance of the Ocean. More important is its location: it is located around the rim of the strongly-made shield (608). Ekphraseis often end with mentioning the Randstücke. This provides a sense of closure, which is further strengthened by ring composition (ἀντυγα πάρ πυμάτην σάκεος πύκα ποιητοῖο = σάκεος πύκα ποιητοῖο = σάκεος in 481), as well as the phrase πύκα ποιητοῖο: the shield is now “strongly made”. The narrativity of the image is zero. As for the descriptivity of the text, I note the visual details μέγα (607, which can perhaps be connected to the huge size of the shield) and πυμάτην (608); πύκα ποιητοῖο (608) relates to the quality of the shield.

3.4 Conclusion

The ekphrasis of the shield of Achilles (Il. 18.478-608) is in more than one way a mixture of narration and description. The backbone of the passage is narrative, as the narrator has Hephaestus forge the shield. Most attention, however, is devoted to what the images on the shield represent (the res ipsae). They are presented in the text as finished. In order to understand the narrativity and descriptivity of the ekphrasis, a


287 Cf. also Spitzer 1955: 207, note 5 (quoted by Krieger 1967: 8): “[s]ince already in antiquity the poetic ekphrasis was often devoted to circular objects (shields, cups, etc.), it was tempting for poets to imitate verbally this constructive principle in their ekphraseis” (italics in the original).
distinction must be made between the text (the primary layer) and the image (the secondary layer).

An analysis of the discourse modes has made clear that the largest part of the text, through which the images are represented, has a prototypically descriptive structure. It features mainly imperfects and pluperfects, and consists of themes and subthemes. These are mostly enumerated, often in combination with spatial indicators, which frequently occur at the beginning of new subtheme. Sometimes, other prototypical elements of description are present, such as visual details. At times, the narrator explicitly describes the appearance of the figures on the shield (516-9; 561-5; 595-8). In such cases, he uses verbs that designate states. Most verbs, however, designate ongoing events.

The text, however, does not always have a prototypically descriptive structure. In lines 525-32, 544-6, and 599-602 it has a narrative structure. On the one hand, we find ordinary finite aorists, accompanied by adverbs of manner expressing speed in 525-32; on the other, lines 544-6 and 599-602 contain finite iterative aorists, accompanied by temporal adverbs. In both cases, the occurring tenses can be harmonized with the representation of an image in the text. The finite aorists in 525-32 do not refer to actions that are depicted on the shield, but to non-represented events that the narrator regards as essential for the narratee to comprehend what is going on in the “now” of the images on the shield. The events expressed by these aorists, then, belong to the primary textual layer only; they do not refer to actions represented by the secondary visual layer. The iterative aorists in 544-6 and 599-602 do refer to what is depicted on the shield. The iterative verb forms indicate that the actions must be imagined as repeating themselves ad infinitum, as befits their depiction in a static image.

The images on the shield of Achilles have various degrees of narrativity. Most of them have a low degree of narrativity. This is due to the fact that event sequencing and world disruption are mostly absent. We can say that most images on the shield possess (implied) generic narrativity: they provide a picture of human life. They do not,

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288 It is thus not the case that “[t]he Shield [i.e. the ekphrasis] appropriates visual images by translating them into stories. The translation includes motion, thought, motive, cause and effect, prior and subsequent action, and sound” (Becker 1995: 152, emphasis mine). As I have argued, the images on the shield are stories.

289 This has often been remarked. See e.g. Bassett 1938: 96 (“[t]he scenes give a picture of human life”), Edwards 1991: 208 (“[a]ll the scenes are full of ordinary people taking part in the activities
however, present ordinary events, but events which have a special significance for
human beings. This means that even though such events often recur in human life,
they are not mundane.

Sometimes, the narrator refers to events prior or subsequent to the depicted
events, and thereby places the events depicted in the image in a larger framework of
cause and effect. Three images imply a sequence of events that is not disruptive: the
lawsuit (497-508), the ploughing (541-9), and the dance (590-606). In these images, we
find different figures engaged in different actions.

Images with a low degree of narrativity also have a certain degree of descriptivity.
World disruption is absent, which means that the images depict the world as it is.
This is a prototypically descriptive feature. Thus, to a certain extent Giuliani is right
(see section 3.2 above). Yet one cannot, as Giuliani does, deny that the images possess
narrativity. Here, the advantages of a prototype approach are evident: an image can
have both narrative and descriptive features at the same time.

Two images on the shield, the city at war (509-40) and the attack on the herd of
cattle (573-86), possess a considerably larger amount of narrativity than the rest of
the images. This has to do, first, with the fact that both images feature world disruption.
Second, both images represent a sequence of events in which the same figures are
performing consecutive actions: the attack on the cattle consists of two distinct
temporal moments, the city at war of six. They are thus complex images. It is,
furthermore, no coincidence that it is in the city at war that the text contains the
diegetic mode (525-32; aorist verbs, adverbs of speed): the complexity of the image
requires that the narrator fills in the gaps between the different represented moments.

I have so far not discussed the element of ‘what-it’s-like’. In the images on the
shield, this element is not foregrounded: to my mind, the images do not “(...) convey the
experience of living through [a] storyworld-in-flux, highlighting the pressure of events

of ordinary life”), and Putnam 1998: 167 (“Homer offers us (...) vignettes that epitomize the
regularity of human existence. His shield details a timeless realm of universals (...”).

In connection with the wedding processions and lawsuit scene, van Wees 1992: 34 aptly
speaks of “highlights of life in town”.

See further sections 1.4.2 and 1.5.1 above.

See section 1.5.2 above, and Wolf 2007: 34: the typical suggestion of narrative is that
“something happened because of something else and led to a certain end”, but the typical
suggestion of description is simply that “something is there and like that”.

See section 1.5.2 above, and Wolf 2007: 34: the typical suggestion of narrative is that
“something happened because of something else and led to a certain end”, but the typical
suggestion of description is simply that “something is there and like that”.
on real or imagined consciousnesses affected by the occurrences at issue (...). Nevertheless, the narrator does sometimes refer to the feelings or experiences of the figures, often of the bystanders. One could argue that ‘what-it’s-like’ is a textual element only: after all, pictures cannot directly express feelings or experiences. Yet as I have demonstrated in my analyses, references to ‘what-it’s-like’ can always be understood as inferences by the narrator from what is depicted in the picture.

All in all, I would say that the Homeric narrator clearly aims at representing images. Even in the city at war, which is the most narrativized image, the narrator makes it clear that we are looking at an image. The images are snapshots: the action therein depicted is imagined as ongoing, but how it is started, or how it will end is not narrated. All events are described as ongoing at the same time, which mirrors the way multiple events are depicted in a visual narrative. Images cannot create an explicit sequence of events, and the narrator – by employing the imperfect and thus avoiding explicit event sequencing – iconically mirrors this situation in his representation of the res ipsae in the text.

Even though the narrator does not explicitly link events in the text, he chooses to present the ongoing events in their chronological order. This is especially clear in the city at war. This temporal arrangement has a number of reasons. First, it helps the narratee to keep track of what is happening: it would have been confusing if the general battle (530-40) had been enumerated before the attack on the herdsmen (527-9). By following a temporal ordering, the narrator is also able to suggest causality (post hoc ergo propter hoc), although this is nowhere explicitly expressed (γάρ is nowhere found in the shield ekphrasis, nor any causal conjunctions). Second, it also allows the narratee to infer that in the “original” static image (i.e. on the opus ipsum) the events are depicted in this order. It is very likely, of course, that a craftsman would depict the siege of a town in its chronological order, too. I further reflect on this and similar issues in the next section.

3.5 Coda: Visualizing the Shield of Achilles

The results of this chapter have important consequences for the visualisation of the shield, since it has been argued that the shield cannot be visualised. For example, Otto writes:

293 Herman 2009: 1 (emphasis in the original); also quoted in section 1.4.2 above.
294 See section 1.4.3.
295 In one case only (553-6) the narrator prefers a spatial arrangement over a temporal one.
[z]unächst ignoriert Homer gewisse Regeln, die bei der Wiedergabe eines Produktes der Bildenden Kunst in Worten obligatorisch sind, sofern der Erzähler wirklich beabsichtigt, seinen Gegenstand wenigstens einigermaßen vorstellbar zu machen. Dazu gehört beispielsweise der Versuch, dem Hörer/Leser einen irgendwie gearteten Überblick über die Komposition zu verschaffen, ihm die Anordnung der einzelnen Teile des Bildes einsichtig zu machen, das Material, aus dem sie jeweils gearbeitet sind, die dabei verwendete Arbeitstechnik usw. Das tut Homer nicht.\footnote{Otto 2009: 212.}

Further on, Otto writes "[z]udem ist seine [Homers] Darstellung auch nicht darauf angelegt, wieder in ein Bild rückübersetzt werden zu können. Achilles Schild ist im ganzen nicht visualisierbar, nicht vorstellbar".\footnote{Otto 2009: 216. Cf. Heffernan 1993: 12-4 (discussed in sections 3.1 and 3.2 above).} I think that Otto approaches the shield ekphrasis with the wrong expectations. Otto expects a focus on the opus ipsum – in fact, she posits this as a rule ("gewisse Regeln"). Yet this is not the way ancient ekphrasis works, as I have argued in 1.3.2. In the shield ekphrasis, as in every other ekphrasis of this study, the narrator focuses mostly on the res ipsae.

The predominant focus on the res ipsae means that the narrator presents the narratees with his visualisation of what is in the reality of the fabula only a static image. Perhaps visualisation is not the right word: the narrator also adds elements which are not depicted. Therefore, I propose to speak of the narrator’s imaginative response, or of his imaginative response.\footnote{Cf. Becker 2003: 8 (quoted in section 1.3.1).} At any rate, the narratee does not have direct access to the “original images” on Achilles’ shield, but accesses these only through the narrator’s imaginative response to these images. Yet does this mean that it is therefore impossible for the narratee to visualise the shield of Achilles, i.e. that the narratee cannot form a mental image of what the shield might have looked like?

I do not think so. Otto rightly draws attention to the fact that the narrator does not describe the position of the images on the shield vis-à-vis each other, or always name the material of which these images are made. Yet this does not therefore mean that the images on the shield cannot be visualized by the narratee.\footnote{Cf. Crielaard 1995: 219-24: “especially the Shield of Achilles shows clearly that the poet and his audience were accustomed to the concept of rather complex narrative representations, which spectators could ‘read’ and from which a detailed story could be constructed. The important point here is that apparently poet and audience could mentally visualize what such complex figurative art looked like” (emphasis mine).} As we have seen above, the
res ipsae are described meticulously, with much attention for spatial detail. The text certainly allows for their visualization as scenes, but perhaps not so much for their visualization as static images on a shield.300

Otto mentions a number of other elements which make visualization difficult. She draws attention to the multitude of figures, which would never fit on a real shield.301 Yet Achilles’ shield is made by a god, and it is huge. She also notes movement and different temporal moments.302 However, movement is only added by the narrator’s imagination, and the visual arts, too, can depict different moments of time.303 As I have argued in section 3.3.3 above, the representation of different temporal moments on the shield itself is clearly signalled. The narrator thus makes it very clear that he refers to different moments of time as represented on the object.

I reiterate here that I assume that it is the aim of the narrator to describe an image.304 A similar judgement is found in the scholia.305 For example, when the narrator

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300 So Primavesi 2002: 204: “[d]iese durch die sprachliche Gestaltung vorgezeichnete Gliederung darf jedoch (...) nicht als Anleitung zur Rekonstruktion von Bildern verstanden werden, sondern ausschließlich als Repräsentation virtueller Bilder im Text” (emphasis in the original).
301 Otto 2009: 213: “[a]bgesehen von den Bedürfnissen des Lesers/Hörers kümmert sich Homer aber auch in mehreren Hinsichten nicht um die Bedürfnisse und Fähigkeiten der Bildenden Kunst selbst: Allein schon die Masse dessen, was da angeblich auf dem Schild alles abgebildet sein soll, ist auf einem echten Schild nicht unterzubringen”. Why the idea persists that the narrator describes a “real” shield is unclear to me; cf. also Edwards 1991: 202, who argues that a shield constructed out of five layers of metal “makes little practical sense”.
302 Otto 2009: 213: “[z]udem schildert Homer Bewegung, d.h. in der Zeit ablaufende Vorgänge, wie sie die Bildende Kunst schlechterdings nicht darstellen kann”.
303 Contra Finkelberg 1994: 1-2, who argues that “(...) even if a plausible interpretation of this scene [the city at war] along the lines of primitive art cannot be ruled out (one may think, for example, of a series of scenes rather than a single scene), there is no explanation for the fact that the figures of the shield are described not only as moving but also as making sounds (...) The result is an impossible blend of colours, movements and sounds which can hardly be thought of in terms of a real piece of craftsmanship”.
304 I thus disagree with statements such as the following, made by Heffernan 1993: 14: “[a]ll we can see – all that really exists in this passage [497-508] – is Homer’s language, which not only displaces the work of art it ostensibly describes and salutes”.
305 Cullhed 2014: 207 notes “(...) that Lessing’s idea of the poet translating the artwork into a free narrative is never anticipated in the scholia, and Homer’s language is generally interpreted as describing the figures on the surface of the shield, not the represented realities” (emphasis mine).
refers to sound in 495 (σὐλοι φόρμιγγές τε βοὴν ἔχον (...), “the flutes and lyres were sounding”), an exegetical scholion comments on βοὴν ἔχον that οὐχ ὡς ἀποτελουμένου ἥχου τινός, ἀλλ’ οἶν τὰ εἴθωλα ως σὐλοῦντα καὶ κιθαρίζοντα ἦν, “not because any sound is produced, but because the figures were depicted as if playing the flute and the cithara”. Eustathius is of the same opinion: ἰστέον δὲ καὶ ὅτι τὸ “ὑμέναιος ὀρώρει” ἐγράφη οὐχ’ ὅτι ἐξηκούετο, ἀλλ’ ὅτι τῷ σχήματι τῆς ζωοπλαστίας οὕτως ἐῴκει. τοιοῦτον δὲ καὶ ἑξῆς τὸ “σὐλοι βοὴν ἔχον” (...), “and one must also know that ‘a wedding-song had arisen’ [493] is written not because it was audible, but because it resembles in this way the form of the artistic representation. Something similar [is found] also in what follows, the ‘flutes were sounding’ (...).” Both views, though from different eras, draw attention to the fact that behind the imagination of the narrator a static image can be sought.

The narrator presents the shield of Achilles as a divinely made shield, which is huge and on which a multitude of different images is depicted. These images have a high degree of complexity. As such, the shield is larger and more complex than anything that might have existed in reality, but this does not mean that real examples of visual art from Homer's lifetime might not have served as inspiration for the shield of Achilles. These examples need not be shields, of course. It is unclear from which era the art...
that served as inspiration for Homer stems, whose lifetime is also a matter of debate.\textsuperscript{310} Important for my argument is that all of the images that the narrator incorporates in the shield ekphrasis could have been realized, too, by artists working in the time of Homer.

Of these elements, the representation of different moments of time might be regarded as the most advanced. How could these have been depicted on a shield? Snodgrass argues for the synoptic method.\textsuperscript{311} He notes that in the city at war, the narrator avoids any suggestion that a figure or figures are repeated.\textsuperscript{312} Yet in my discussion of this scene above, I have argued that the figures are repeated, and that this repetition is essential in indicating that the shield depicts different moments of time. As for the attack on the cattle (573-86), Stansbury-O’Donnell has argued that “[f]rom the passage, it is evident that the poet did not image multiple depictions, but rather a single scene on the shield”.\textsuperscript{313} Unfortunately, Stansbury-O’Donnell has misunderstood the tenses that are used, which leads him to this erroneous conclusion.\textsuperscript{314} In this scene, too, it is clear that figures are repeated.

Rather, I would suggest that these images on the shield are similar to a polyphase single picture or a picture series.\textsuperscript{315} They consist of different snapshots which each represent one moment in time. Seeing that it is most likely that the scenes are arranged in friezes, one can easily imagine the city at war as unfolding in a number of separate images depicted after each other in a frieze.\textsuperscript{316} The repetition of figures indicates a new

\textsuperscript{310} See the overviews in Fittschen 1973: 5, note 20, Crielard 1995: 218-9, and Snodgrass 1998: 42-4. For a list of parallels between the shield ekphrasis and artwork, see also the extensive discussion in Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 200, note 53. He concludes that “(…) these parallels between the poetic ekphrasis and contemporary works open up the use of ekphrasis as a model for Geometric pictorial narration”.

\textsuperscript{311} For which see 1.4.3.

\textsuperscript{312} Snodgrass 1998: 58: “[n]ote how, in his narrative (…), Homer avoids any suggestion that a figure or figures was repeated: the sallying force as a whole arrives at the river-bank, the scouts are posted, the cattle and sheep arrive – with each advance in time, the subject of the next sentence changes. This is a tell-tale hint of an essential feature of this convention”.

\textsuperscript{313} Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 43.

\textsuperscript{314} See note 261 above.

\textsuperscript{315} See for the terminology employed in this paragraph section 1.4.3.

\textsuperscript{316} For the idea that the images on the shield are arranged in friezes, see Stansbury-O’Donnell 1995: 320 (the shield “(…) is divided into long, continuous friezes that circle back upon themselves”; similarly Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 200, note 53). See also Fittschen 1973: 7-9.
temporal phase. The various spatial settings (from the city to the river, for example), may also function as an indication for a new phase. I am not sure whether we must imagine the frieze as divided into separate segments, like a comic. This seems unlikely. For examples of friezes we may turn to Phoenician bowls, which were most probably around in Homer’s time. These do not feature a division into separate parts.

The shield can be visualized as consisting of a number of friezes that contain various images. It contains a mixture of different type of images, which can be divided into two groups. The first group consists of the city at war and the attack on the cattle. These are most likely comparable to picture series. The second group is made up out of the other images on the shield. They are single images. These images do not have repeated figures. The various actions in which the figures are engaged are all happening at the same time, in a single location. Some of these images can be regarded as a subtype of polyphase single images: although they do not feature one and the same character engaged in different actions, they do depict various stages of a larger series of events (e.g. the lawsuit in the city at peace and the ploughing).

The material of which the images are made is not consistently described, and their position vis-à-vis each other on the shield remains unknown. This does not prevent their visualisation, as I have tried to show in 3.3.3. In order to visualize the shield, Homer’s original audience would undoubtedly have used their knowledge of contemporary visual narrative. Most of this material is lost, which makes it very difficult to reconstruct the way the shield may have been visualized by Homer’s original audience.

The shield is a divinely made object that surpasses anything that could have existed in both quality and quantity. Yet throughout the shield ekphrasis the narrator is at pains to describe the action of every figure that is depicted on the shield. Indeed, the very point of all this is to create (a picture of) Achilles’ shield for the narratee, so that he, too, may visualize it. Every narratee will arrive at a different picture of Achilles’

317 On Phoenicians bowls with episodical narrative ("a story in cartoon fashion featuring the same characters in successive scenes, the whole forming a temporal sequence"), see Markoe 1985: 29-30; see especially figure 3 in Edwards 1991: 206 (= Markoe 1985: 278), which consists of nine episodes.

318 Cf. Sonesson 1997: 244: "(...) the multiphase picture, which is a single, static picture, containing persons and events which are known to represent various phases taken from the same event series, or action scheme (...)" (italics in the original).

319 Cf. the remarks of Squire, quoted in 1.3.3 above.
shield, as the many reconstructions that have been made witness. Yet that this attempt at visualizing the shield should be made is beyond doubt. This is, in my view, the very point of ekphrasis – the verbal representation of a visual representation.

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320 See for a number of reconstructions Fittschen 1973: Tafeln II and III.
321 I thus wholeheartedly agree with the remarks made by West [1975] 1990: 303 regarding the shield ekphrasis in Virgil’s *Aeneid* 8: “[t]his paper has not argued that the shield of Aeneas was a real shield, or that there ever was a shield like this (...), but rather that its illustrations would be conceivable and effective on a real metal shield. This is one of the poetic purposes of the passage, and if we forget or deny it we fail to understand the poetry”.

4. The Shield of Heracles (Hes. Sc. 139-320)

4.1 Introduction

The next extant ekphrasis in ancient Greek Literature is found in the pseudo-Hesiodic *Shield*. The *Shield* is a small-scale epic poem of 480 hexameters, named after its central section which deals with Heracles' shield. It is usually dated to the first third of the sixth century BC. The poem narrates an episode from the life of Heracles: the killing of Cycnus, a son of Ares; Ares himself is wounded, too. Heracles is portrayed throughout the poem in a positive light: Zeus has fathered Heracles as a protector against ruin for gods and for men (…ὥς ῥα θεοῖσιν / ἀνδράσι τ’ ἀλφηστῇσιν ἀρῆς ἀλκτῆρα φυτεύσαι, 28-9). By killing Cycnus, who robs travellers on their way to Delphi, Heracles lives up to this purpose.

The poem is generally regarded as a product of an oral tradition. In the words of Martin, “[s]tudy of heroic oral traditional literature in other cultures (…) will easily…”

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1 I use the Loeb text (Most 2007); the translation has been extensively modified.
3 This is the currently scholarly consensus, for which see Bing 2012: 179 (who cites earlier literature on the poem’s dating).
4 The first 56 lines of the poem, which tell how Alcmene eventually gives birth to Iphicles and Heracles, are also found in Book 4 of the *Catalogue of Women* (see e.g. Ercolani and Rossi 2011: 99). For a brief overview of issues concerning the integration of this first part with the rest of the poem, see Stamatopoulou 2013: 273-4, note 5.
7 Lamberton 1988: 140 (“[t]he overall organization is a sufficient approximation of a huge compositional ring to suggest that it is an authentic product of the oral traditions of the Hesiodic bards”); Ercolani and Rossi 2011: 99 (“traditionelle mündliche Dichtung”).
show that the single episode, lasting a few hours in performance, and chosen by the
singer to fit the mood and politics of his immediate audience, is the basis for live
composition in performance. Or in other words, the 480-line, single-episode Aspis looks
much more like an oral poem than does the Iliad. The fact that the Shield is oral
poetry has consequences for its understanding. Thus, the idea that the Shield is a mere
imitation of Achilles’ shield in Il. 18.478-608 – a verdict that goes back to Aristophanes
of Byzantium – must be rejected. It is doubtful whether in the sixth century BC fixed
texts of the Iliad existed, to which another text, that of the Aspis, could refer. This is
very much a Hellenistic point of view. Rather, it is more plausible that both texts came
into being in a still-fluid oral tradition, which contains certain stock formulae and
themes. One common element in the tradition might well have been a shield
ekphrasis, which could serve as a showpiece of the poet.

9 See Andersen 1969 [1974]: 10-1. Aristophanes’ verdict is found in hypothesis A (quoted in note 11
below).
10 Of course, the author of the Shield may have heard performances of (parts of) the Iliad.
11 Thus Bing 2012: 187: “(...) the relationship between these works in their original Archaic setting
might have been less a matter of one fixed text’s allusion to another than of each poem’s
dependence upon a common reservoir of formulae and themes. By Hellenistic times, however, the pervasive intertextuality between the Aspis,
Hesiod, and Homer came to be understood in terms of deliberate emulation of one written work
by another, a later piece modeling itself on a specific antecedent; that much is clear from the
report in the ancient hypothesis that Aristophanes of Byzantium doubted the Hesiodic
authorship of the Aspis because it was the work of someone attempting to imitate the Homeric
shield (διὸ καὶ υπώπτευκεν Ἀριστοφάνης ὡς οὐκ οὖσαν αὐτὴν Ἡσιόδου, ἀλλὰ ἐτέρου τινὸς τὴν Ὄμηρος ἀσπίδα μιμήσασθαι προαιρουμένου). Hellenistic readers, in other words, reinterpreted
the relationship between these poems in terms of their own readerly preoccupations, amongst
which imitation and allusion were prominent” (emphasis in the original).
12 So Andersen 1969 [1974]: 11-2: “the tradition underlying the two poems may have contained in
its store of set pieces, among others, the topics ‘description of an elaborate warrior-shield, made
by Hephaestus’”; and Martin 2005: 173: “[t]he Aspis...is most likely to be akin to the Iliadic shield
not as an inferior copy to a superior model, but as two instantiations of a tour de force that
rhapsodes could choose to do in performance: the ‘extended armament-ekphrasis’”; Martin
refers to Revermann 1998: 37, who states that the Homeric shield ekphrasis “(...) would be ideal
for separate recitation, as an encore for example”. For a similar idea of the shield of Achilles as a
showpiece, cf. Minchin 2001: 130: “(...) a composition, such as the description of the shield of
Achilleus or the palace of Alkinoos, can be a showpiece: the poet has prepared in advance a
The poet of the *Shield* has indeed composed his shield ekphrasis as a showpiece: Heracles' shield is noisier, more sensational, more gruesome, but above all bigger than Achilles' shield. It takes up no less than 181 lines, which amounts to almost 38% of the poem. Accidentally, it is also 38% longer than Achilles' shield (131 lines). Some scholars even argue that the shield ekphrasis is the *raison d'être* of the whole poem. This goes perhaps too far, but the length of the shield ekphrasis is certainly striking. This length is acquired by inclusion and expansion. In this respect, the ekphrasis is not different from the rest of the poem, the aesthetics of which could be summed up by the credo "more is more". For example, the fight between Cycnus and Ares is preceded by no less than four similes, increasing in length (374-9, 386-92, 393-401, and 402-12). The poem also contains a number of lines which are almost identical. Many of these occur in the

special composition, which he may use if the occasion is right and the audience responsive. (...) a sustained descriptive piece offers listeners diversion from the narrative mode; and it provides an occasion for the poet's self-promotion".

13 Cf. Scott 1994: 5-6: "[i]f the shield is designed to strike horror into the hearts of Herakles' opponents, it is also meant to dazzle and amaze its literary audience. In this sense, the 'Shield of Herakles' is a much more self-conscious literary construct than Homer's ekphrasis and much more aware of its rhetorical role as entertainment. The author continually stresses the shield's function as spectacle (...)".

14 E.g. Mazon [1928] 1964: 125: "[c]e poète a pris pour thème la légende de Kycnos parce qu'il voulait décrire un bouclier et que, dans le cycle des légendes d'Héraclès, le combat avec Kycnos était le seul où Héraclès combattit avec l'armement complet d'un guerrier épique"; Mazon is followed by Debray-Genette 1988: 215: "le récit semble avoir été écrit pour la description".

15 Martin 2005: 164. Cf. also van der Valk 1966: "[s]i cet auteur est un poète faible, qui n'est pas doué de beaucoup de talent, on comprendra qu'il cherche à *éblouir son auditoire par la quantité*, parce qu'il ne sait pas *l'impressionner par la qualité*" (emphasis mine). Van der Valk here cautiously expresses what many scholars have stated, that the poet of the *Shield* was not a very good one. For an overview of such opinions, see Martin 2005: 154-5 ("Who says the Aspis (...) is trash? Just about every Hellenist who bothers to mention it", ibid.: 154).

16 Cf. West [1949] 2003, who states that "[d]isproportion is characteristic of the work; the Homeric apparatus of arming, divine machination, brave speeches, and long similes is lavished on an encounter in which two blows are struck in all".

17 See e.g. Janko 1986: 39: "[t]here can be absolutely no doubt that in places there are epic doublets incorporated into the text: the case is strongest at (i) 201b-203a = 203b-205a; (ii) 209b-211a = 211 b-213a; (iii) 281-2 = 283; (iv) 293-5 = 296-7 + 299-300; (v) 402-4 = 405-11. The alternative versions of these passages have every appearance of oral variants, and are no doubt owed to rhapsodic performances of a text that attained a real popularity in later sixth-century Athens".
Most scholars regard these lines as interpolations. Yet the notion of interpolation is highly problematic in an oral tradition. Although these nearly-identical lines may strike a modern reader as superfluous, it is best to regard them as an integral part of the text.

This chapter focuses on the ekphrasis of Heracles' shield (139-320), and aims to establish which prototypically descriptive and/or narrative elements are present (section 4.3). There is considerably less scholarship on this ekphrasis than on Achilles' shield, but the question of the narrativity or descriptivity of Heracles' shield has been addressed (see section 4.2). After the conclusion (section 4.4), the shield's visualization is briefly discussed (section 4.5).

4.2 Shield of Heracles: Description, Narration or Both? A Brief State of the Art
As is clear from section 3.2, most scholars are agreed that the shield of Achilles has many narrative elements. When it comes to the shield of Heracles, the picture is different, as scholars seem to regard this ekphrasis mostly as descriptive. Thus Schmale writes:

Im Gegensatz zum homerischen Schild lassen sich kaum narrative Elemente (nur vereinzelt gibt es z.B. Hinweise auf Akustisches) feststellen, stattdessen werden stillstehende Tableauszenen geboten. Psychische Vorgänge sind an äußeren Gesten erkennbar gemacht, und was als sukzessives Geschehen im Text präsentiert wird, ist – wie bei der Kriegsszenerie (238ff.) – als Nebeneinander auf der Abbildung vorstellbar. Auch bei besonders spannenden Szenen wie der Jagd (301ff.) wird nicht die Gelegenheit genutzt, die Szene narrativ auszugestalten.21

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18 This is no surprise, since it is especially descriptions that can be easily extended. See e.g. Cobley 1986: 399 (who states that descriptions are “indefinitely extendable”) and Wolf 2007: 51-2.
19 For this point in connection with the Shield, see also Dubel 1997b.
20 See the discussion in Martin 2005: 168-70. He argues that only one of the several pairs does not make sense as it stands, 282-3 (ibid.: 168). However, we may compare Dornseiff 1933: 51, who states “[i]ch habe sämtliche angeblichen Zusätze oder Doppelfassungen geprüft und glaube nicht einen einzigen Fall. Alles stammt wie die Verse 51-56 vom Verfasser. Sie sind seine persönliche Note” (emphasis mine). Indeed, lines 282-3 can stand; only line 298, which is not part of a doublet, must be rejected (see further below).
21 Schmale 2004: 113, emphasis mine.
Schmale’s remarks seem to go back to Friedländer, who regarded the *Shield* as a step forward in the technique of description. According to Friedländer, the poet of the *Shield* is very much concerned with the reality of the image, on account of which he avoids, or only scarcely refers to, non-representable elements such as movement and thought. The poet thus simplifies the image, but also enriches it with details fitting for an image, as well as with a clearer spatial arrangement of the various parts.

Friedländer also notes that the poet frequently draws attention to the contrast between art and reality by stating that the images on the shield merely *resemble* reality.

Other scholars have drawn attention to the narrative aspects of the shield of Heracles. Palm does not agree with Friedländer that everything that is non-representable is eliminated. He argues that “[i]n den mehr homerisch anklingenden Partien ist aber das beschreibende Element nicht so stark fühlbar; die Ekphrase nähert sich hier ein wenig der Erzählung. Oder richtiger: Die Beschreibung beginnt als Ekphrase von plastischer, recht statuarischer Kunst und endet als Ekphrase von gemalten Bildern; eine solche steht immer der Erzählung näher (...).” Thus, it is especially in those lines which resemble the shield of Achilles (i.e. 237b-317) that narrative elements are found. Lamberton, too, emphasizes the similarities between the

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22 Friedländer 1912: 11. Although the poet sometimes refers to sounds ("ein(en) Rückfall in die homerische Weise"), Friedländer concludes that "bei Hesiod ein bewußter Fortschritt der beschreibenden Technik vorliegt", and that the poet of the *Shield* "gehört die Zukunft, und wenn ein Dichter unserer Tage ein Kunstwerk beschreibt, so tut er das in hesiodischer, nicht in homerischer Weise".

23 For the idea that the poet of the *Shield* is concerned with describing an *image on a work of art* (and not reality, as is often argued in the case of Achilles’ shield), see also Van Groningen 1958: 117 ("il n’oublie jamais qu’il décrit des représentations") and Elliger 1975: 41 ("[w]enn die jüngere Beschreibung trotz ihrer grelleren Farben so viel statischer wirkt als die ältere, dann nicht zuletzt deswegen, weil ihr Dichter nicht eine Schilderung des Lebens, sondern einer bildlichen Darstellung eines Kunstwerkes geben wollte (...)").

24 Friedländer 1912: 10 (quoted in section 4.5 below).


26 Palm 1965-6: 125. Palm concludes that the poet "(...) ist ein sehr guter Beschreiber; zumindest hat er sich ganz darauf eingestellt, eine gute Beschreibung zu machen; die Vorkommnisse interessieren ihn weniger. Er scheint damit mitten in der Entwicklung zu einer mehr beschreibenden als erzählenden Literatur zu stehen" (ibid.: 126).
two shields: "(...) both have a preference for narrative, readily elaborating static images into running stories that imply colorful movement".27

As is clear from the remarks by Palm and Lamberton, the narrator of the Shield focuses on the res ipsae;28 in this respect, the shield of Heracles resembles the shield of Achilles: the images are, at least partially, of a narrative nature. If we are to believe Schmale and Friedländer, the poet of the Shield focuses but rarely on elements which are non-representable, whereas Homer does this more often.29 This they regard as an avoidance of narrative. I thus conclude that there is no consensus on the shield's narrativity or descriptivity. In the next section, this issue will be investigated anew.

4.3.1 Shield of Heracles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Overview of Tenses
In this section, I will establish which discourse modes are found in the text. The shield of Heracles (139-320a) is part of Heracles' arming scene (122-320a). For my analysis of tenses, lines 122-38 are also taken into consideration, as well as the lines immediately after the shield ekphrasis (320b-26). In lines 122-38 and 320b-26 we find an alternation of imperfects and aorists. These lines contain a sequence of events, which consists of Heracles' successive acts of arming (122-38), and his jumping on the chariot, Iolaus' guiding it, and Athena's approach (320b-26). In the ekphrasis proper (139-320a) imperfects and pluperfects predominate, but aorists and two present tenses occur, too.30

27 Lamberton 1988: 141.
28 For the focus on the res ipsae, see Becker 1992: 16-7 (= Becker 1995: 33-4). Thoughts and motives of the figures are included, as well as movement and sound. Becker is unjustly criticized by Schmale 2004: 111-2, note 46: "Becker deutet jedoch den Herakles-Schild zu sehr im Sinne seiner Interpretation des homerischen Achill-Schilds und übersieht dabei, dass die narrative Umsetzung der visuellen Präsentation in der Aspis so nicht stattfindet".
29 See section 3.2 for the views of Friedländer and Schmale on the Homeric ekphrasis.
30 The following tenses have not been counted because they do not occur in main clauses: ἔδωκε (125), ἐμέλλε (126), εἴρυτο (138), εἴητο (149), φέροιεν (150), φοβέεσκον (162), φέροιεν (163), μάχοιτο (164), ἐσον, μέμαρπεν (245), μεμάποιεν (252), ἀρέσαντο (255). Κατενήνοθεν (269), in form a perfect, has been counted as pluperfect because the verb form functions as such.
If we look more closely at 139-320a, and count only tenses that refer to the images on the shield, the following table results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>122-38</th>
<th>139-320a</th>
<th>320b-26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aorists</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperfects</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pluperfects</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>presents</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1: use of tenses in main clauses in 122-326

Table 4.2: tenses used to refer to the images in 139-320a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>number of times used</th>
<th>percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aorists</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperfects</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pluperfects</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In lines 139-320a, only seven aorists occur that refer to the images. Three aorists occur in a cluster (262-3); the others are scattered throughout the text. On account of the aorists in 262-3, these lines can be said to be in the diegetic discourse mode. Lines 252-7 also contain the diegetic mode. The rest of the text is in the descriptive discourse mode. As far as discourse modes are concerned, then, the shield of Heracles is similar to the shield of Achilles (for which see section 3.3.1). In other words, their textual organization is largely similar, viz. descriptive. Yet there is one important difference: in Homer, it is suggested by the repeated actions of Hephaestus that both fabula and story time progress. Heracles’ shield, however, is finished, which means that lines 140-320 constitute a pause; only story time advances.

31 The following aorists have not been counted: εἷλε (139, referring to an act of Heracles), ἔρρηξε, ἔθλασε (140, anterior aorists referring to the history of the shield), τεῦξεν (219, anterior aorist referring to the making of the shield by Hephaestus), ποίησε (319, anterior aorist referring to the making of the shield); the present tenses (δύνουσι, 151; πύθεται, 153) do neither refer to the images.

32 πλῆτο (146), μελάνθησαν (167), ἔθεντο (261), δράκον (262), ἰσώσαντο (263), μελάνθησαν (300), ἐπηνύσθη (311).

33 See further my analysis in section 4.3.2. 11.
In the next section, the images will be discussed separately. As a rule, the text will first be discussed, after which I turn to the images.

4.3.2 Shield of Heracles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Images (144-317) and the Lines surrounding the Images (139-43; 318-21)

In Homeric arming scenes, the shield always comes fourth (as the penultimate item, after the sword and before the helmet), but the narrator of the Shield saves Heracles’ shield for last.\textsuperscript{34} It has the following images depicted on it:\textsuperscript{35}

1. Fearful snake [in the middle] (144-53)
2. Catalogue of demonic figures: Pursuit, Rally; Tumult, Murder, Slaughter; Strife, Battle-Din, Fate (154-60)
3. Twelve serpent heads (161-7)
4. Battle of wild boars and lions (168-77)
5. Battle of Lapiths and Centaurs (178-90)
6. Ares with Fear and Rout (191-6)
7. Athena (197-200)
8. Group of immortals; Apollo (201-6)
9. Harbour with dolphins and fisherman (207-15)
10. Perseus and the Gorgons (216-37a)
11. Mortals at war (237b-70a)
   a. (237b-48) Men at fight [above Perseus and the Gorgons]
   b. (248-57; 261-3) Keres [behind them]
   c. (258-60) Clotho, Lachesis, Atropos [next to them]
   d. (264-70a) Death-Mist [beside them]
12. Mortals in peace time (270b-313)
   a. (270b-80) Festivities [beside Death-Mist]
   b. (281-85) Revel [on the other side from there]
   c. (285-6) Men on horseback [in front of the city]

\textsuperscript{34} For the differences in the order of elements, see Russo [1950] 1965: 102-3. Russo suggests that the shield is mentioned last in order to pass directly to the following description ("in modo da passarne alla descrizione", ibid.).

\textsuperscript{35} The overview is based on Byre 1976: 74-6 (who distinguishes twelve scenes, because he takes Ares and Athena together) and Van Groningen 1958: 116-7 (who distinguishes fourteen scenes; he divides 270b-313 into two scenes, "scènes de ville" (270-85) and "scènes de campagne" (286-313)).
d. (286-301) Ploughing, harvesting, wine-making

e. (301-2) Boxing and wrestling

f. (302-4) Hare-hunting

g. (305-13) Chariot racing [beside them]

13. Ocean [around the rim] (314-7)

As the overview makes clear, more images are depicted on the shield of Heracles than on the shield of Achilles, which has nine. In addition, these images are more crowded. The narrator of the Shield also uses more spatial indicators. The first image is located in the middle of the shield (ἐν μέσσῳ δέ, 144). The next images (2-10) are all introduced with ἐν δέ followed by a verb that designates a state. After line 237a, the narrator uses other spatial indicators to introduce a new image. In 237 and 270, the change to a new image occurs mid-verse. On the basis of the fact that the narrator starts in the middle of the shield and ends with its rim, it has been inferred that the description progresses from the centre outwards.

Scholars have also tried to divide the images into coherent groups. A distinction often made is that between non-Homeric (114-237a) and Homeric scenes (237b-317). Toohey states that the shield ekphrasis is organized around Perseus, and divides the images into three groups: 139-215, 216-37a, and 237b-320. Van der Valk also distinguishes three groups, 144-67, 168-200, and 201-313. Yet the text offers no clue for any such grouping. Rather, the different images are enumerated (with δέ), just as in the

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36 ἐν δὲ…τέτυκτο (154), ἐν δ’…ἐσαν (161), ἐν δὲ…ἐσαν (168), ἐν δ’ ἦν (178), ἐν δ’ ἦστασαν (193), ἐν δὲ (ellipsis of ἦν, 197), ἐν δ’ ἦν (201), ἐν δὲ…ἐτέτυκτο (207-8), ἐν δ’ ἦν (216).

37 οἵ δ᾿ ὑπὲρ αὐτέων (“and they, above them”) in 237; παρὰ δ᾿ εὔπυργος πόλις ἀνδρῶν (“and beside [it was] a well-towered city of men”) in 270; ἀμφὶ δ᾿ ἴτυν (“and around the rim…”) in 314.

38 Toohey 1988: 23 states that “[w]here in v. 139-215 the narrative is paragraphed, imprecise, almost staccato, the narrative of v. 237b-320 dovetails or enjambes”.

39 Byre 1976: 77: “a progression from center outwards is clearly implied”. This outward movement is also assumed in the case of the shield of Achilles (see e.g. Edwards 1991: 206: “[i]n the usual view, the heavenly bodies (...) occupy the central position, surrounding the boss (if there is one), and the following scenes occupy successive bands moving outwards to the rim”).

40 See e.g. Friedländer 1907: 109-11 (who does note that some scenes have no counterpart, such as e.g. 12e-g).


42 van der Valk 1966: 454-65. The first part consists of apotropaic images, the second of images of combat, and the third images of life in its diverse aspects.
shield of Achilles, the difference being that the narrator of the *Shield* uses spatial adverbs, too. In what follows, I will discuss certain images together, but this does not mean that I therefore consider them to be a distinct group.

0. Heracles grasps his shield (139-43)

With his hands he grasped his shield, shot with many colours, and no one had ever broken through it by striking it nor had smashed it, a wonder to see; for the whole thing glittered in a circle with gypsum and white ivory and electrum, and shone with gleaming gold, and dark blue stripes had been driven through it.

This first passage, which does not refer to any image on the shield, has both a narrative textual organization (139-40) and a descriptive one (141-3). I start with lines 141-3, which are wholly devoted to the *opus ipsum*. The verbs designate states (ἔην, ἠλήλαντο).

Textual progression is spatial (δία, 143). The narrator starts by mentioning the shield as a whole (πᾶν, 141) and its shape (κύκλῳ), after which he enumerates the various materials of which the shield is made. The brilliant appearance of the shield is

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43 Cf. van Groningen 1958: 117: "il est impossible d'y découvrir une intention d'arrangement plus ou moins systématique: animaux, héros, dieux, hommes, nature, se suivent sans qu'on sache pourquoi", and Fittschen 1973: 20: "[e]ine durchdachte Ordnung des Ganzen ist nicht feststellbar, die Schilderung wirkt vielmehr bunt und verwirrend, obwohl sie zum ersten Male Angaben über die Lage einzelner Szenen enthält".

44 I have altered the punctuation in 140 (Most punctuates οὔτ' ἔρρηξε βαλὼν οὔτ' ἔθλασε, θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι.).

45 The *LSJ* translate τίτανος with gypsum, but the *LfgE* (s.v. τίτανος B) note that this cannot be meant here, because gypsum is brittle and easily washed out. "Ἠλέκτρον is probably an alloy of gold and silver, rather than amber (so *LfgE* s.v. ἤλεκτρον B). See for the materials further Fittschen 1973: 20 and Chiariini 2012: 50-60. The πτύχες do not refer to the inner layers of the shield (as in Achilles' shield in 18.481), but to "stripes" or "bands" on the shield (see *LfgE* s.v. πτυξ B 1, and Myres 1941: 21-2). They are thus similar to the δέκα οἴμοι...μέλανος κυάνοιο on Agamemnon's corselet in 11.24 (so Schwarz 1932: 43). For the difficulties involved with διελαύνω (143), see the *LfgE* s.v. ἤλεκτρον B II 1: "entweder 'Streifen...wären hindurchgezogen' od[er]
emphasized (ὑπολαμπές, φαεινῷ, λαμπόμενον). Neer even argues that the shield casts light. The occurrence of the visual details – the radiance and the colours of the shield – make lines 141-3 prototypically descriptive.

On account of the three aorists, lines 139-40 realize the diegetic discourse mode. The first aorist, ἐἷλε (139), refers to an event that is part of the fabula. By having Heracles grasp it, the narrator introduces the main theme of the description, the shield (σάκος). The shield is called παναίολον (139) on account of its many colours and materials (mentioned in 141-3). Heracles’ shield is already finished. This means that it can have a history, which indeed it has: “no one had ever broken through it by striking it nor had smashed it” (139-40). Whereas in other ekphraseis the narrator deals with the maker and/or provenance of the object in question, in the Shield the history of the object’s use is narrated: it has never been broken or smashed. This indicates that Heracles’ shield is invulnerable, and perhaps even magical. The maker of the shield, Hephaestus, will not be named until line 219.

Mißverständnis von Σ 481”; this latter suggestion is made by Russo [1950] 1965: 107-8. According to Chiarini 2012: 59-60, the πτύχες do refer to the inner layers of the shield; she states that κύανος refers to black copper, and draws attention to μέν (141) and δέ (143): the μέν-clause refers to the surface of the shield, and the δέ-clause to its interior. This interpretation solves the difficulties with διελαύνω.

See Faber 2000: 52. Faber notes that this brilliance is expanded in A.R. 1. 725-726, and that ἤλεκτρον “is associated in early Greek literature with the sun’s brilliance” (for which he refers to the ἤλεκτρον).

Neer 2010: 59-60: “(…) it is radiant. (…) Herakles’ shield does not simply reflect light: it actively casts it”.

According to Bershadsky 2010: 23, the fact that the shield is called σάκος (and not ἀσπίς) indicates that Heracles will be victorious in battle.


For the history of the other objects in this study, see Theoc. Id. 1.39-42, A.R. 1.722-4, and Mosch. Eur. 39-42. In Q.S. 5.3-5 Achilles’ shield does have a history (…ἀμφὶ δὲ πάντῃ / δαίδαλα μαρμαίρεσκεν ὅσα σθένος Ἡραίας / ἁμφὶ σάκος ποίησε δρασύφρονος Αἰακίδαο, “and all round the cunning works were gleaming, which the mighty Hephaestus had made on the shield of the bold-minded Achilles”), as does Dionysus’ shield in Nonnus (D. 25.386b-93; see on this shield Hopkinson 1994: 22-4).


Earlier critics were bothered by this fact, for which see Byre 1976: 72-3.
By using the phrase θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι (140), the narrator anticipates unbelief on the part of the narratee, who might be baffled by the statement that the shield is invulnerable. The phrase creates a ring with 318, where the shield is "a wonder to see even for deep-thundering Zeus" (θαῦμα ἰδεῖν καὶ Ζηνὶ βαρυκτύπῳ). The phrase θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι (140) also elicits the lines beginning with γάρ (141-3), thereby starting the description of the images. These are not introduced as a single main theme: a phrase such as δαίδαλα πολλά (II. 18.482; A.R. 1.729; Mosch. Eur. 43) is lacking.

1-3. Snake, Demonic Figures, and Serpent Heads (144-67)

ἐν μέσσῳ δὲ δράκοντος ἐδήμη φόβος ὦ τι φατεῖος,
ἐμπαλίν ὀσσοίσιν πυρὶ λαμπομένοις δεδορκώς·
tοῦ καὶ ὀδόντων μὲν πλῆτστα λευκαθεόντων,
δεινῶν, ἀπλήτων, ἐπὶ δὲ βλαστυροῖς μετώπων
δεινὴ Ἐρις ἐπεπότητο κορύσσουσα κλόνου ἀνδρῶν,
σχετλίη, ἤ ἢ χθόνιοι τοῖς ἐκ φρένας εἵλετο φῶτων
καὶ μὲν ψυχαὶ μὲν χθόνα δύνουσ᾿ Ἀιδος εἴσω
αὐτῶν, ἀστέα δὲ σφι περὶ ῥινοῖο σαπείσῃς
Σειρίου δαίδαλοι κελαινῇ πύθεται αἴη,
ἐν δὲ Προϊώξις τε Παλίωξίς τε τέτυκτο,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἔρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
ἐν δ’ Ὅμαδός τε Φόνος τ’ Ἀνδροκτασίη τε δεδήει,
ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Κυδοιμὸς ἐθύνεον, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις, ἐν δ’ Ἐρις,
In the middle was a fearful snake, terrible, glaring backwards with eyes shining like fire. Its mouth was filled also with white teeth, terrible, dreadful, and over its frightful forehead was flying to and fro terrible strife, who intensifies the battle of men, cruel one, who takes away the mind and sense of any men who wage open war against Zeus’ son. Their souls too go down beneath the earth to Hades, [the souls] of themselves, and their bones, after the flesh has decayed around them, rot away on the black earth under parching Sirius. Upon it were wrought Pursuit and Rally, (155) upon it were raging Tumult and Murder and Slaughter, upon it [was rushing] Strife, upon it was rushing Battle-din, upon it deadly Fate, holding one who was alive but freshly wounded, another who was unwounded, was dragging another who was dead by the feet through the battle. Around her shoulders she was wearing a cloak, dark red with the blood of men, (160) while glaring terribly and bellowing with a clanging sound. And upon it were the heads of terrible snakes, horrible, twelve of them, who frightened the tribes of any men on the earth who waged open war against Zeus’ son. Of their teeth too there was a grinding, whenever (165) Amphitryon’s son fought. They were shining, these marvellous works; and it was as though there were spots to be seen on the terrible snakes, [which were] (dark) blue along their backs, and their jaws had become dark.

The first three images on the shield are designed to strike terror into Heracles’ opponents, as is clear from lines 146-50 and 162-3. Two images of snakes (144-7 and 161-7) frame an image with symbolic monsters (154-60). The images are apotropaic, such as one expects to find on a shield. In this respect Heracles’ shield differs from Achilles’ shield, which lacks such an apotropaic section.

The text which represents these three images contains a mixture of various tenses. The imperfects, pluperfects and omnitemporal present tenses are all associated with the descriptive discourse mode, but the aorists in 146 (πλῆτο) and 167 (μελάνθησαν) are not. As I shall argue below, these aorists can be accounted for within the descriptive discourse mode.

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57 Agamemnon’s corselet also features twelve snakes (11.26), his shield strap one with three heads (39-40). Strife, Battle-din and Fate are also on Achilles’ shield (535-8).

58 See Fittschen 1973: 20-1.

59 Although the Myrmidons do not dare to look at Achilles’ shield in 19.14-5 (Μυρμιδόνας δ’ ἄρα πάντας ἔλε τρόμος, οὐδέ τις ἔτλη / ἄντην εἰσιδέειν, ἀλλ’ ἔτρεσαν (...), “trembling took hold of all the Myrmidons, and none dared to look straight at it, but all became afraid”).
discourse mode. I also draw attention to the subordinate temporal clause 164-5. I conclude that the text has a largely descriptive structure.

The first image (144-53) depicts a fearful snake (δράκοντος...φόβος, 144). It is terrible (οὔ τι φατειός, 144), and glares backwards with eyes shining like fire (ἔμπαλιν...δεδορκώς, 145). The narrator uses an aorist (πλῆτο, 146) to indicate that its mouth was full of white teeth; another aorist occurs in line 167 (μελάνθησαν; this form recurs in line 300). It has been argued that these aorists are used in the sense of a pluperfect, because the pluperfects of both verbs are not found in Archaic epic. It is

60 According to Russo [1950] 1965: 109, δράκοντος...φόβος equals φοβερὸς δράκων (for this use he compares E. Ph. 1120, but see Mastronarde 1994: 465). For what a δράκων is, see Ogden 2013: 2-4; and 3, note 6 for a list of serpents decorating arms. Heracles has battled with many serpents, for which see ibid.: 193-5. On the shield, the serpents fight on Heracles’ side.

61 The LfgrE translate οὔ τι φατειός with "(wovon man nicht reden darf =) schrecklich, grässlich" (s.v. φατειός B); similar phrases in 161 (οὔ τι φατειῶν) and 230 (οὐ φαταί). Becker 1992: 19 emphasises the original sense of the words ("not in any way expressible"), and argues that "[i]n such acknowledgements that some phenomena are indescribable, the focus of the description becomes the poet's attempt to turn visible images into word. These expressions of inexpressibility suggest not only the mediator (describer), as do expressions of wonder, but also the medium (language". Differently again Neer 2010: 60, for whom "the sight of 'unspeakable' fear [Neer reads δ’ ἀδάμαντος ἔην Φόβος] renders the beholder mute, like an image – 'silent poetry,' as Simonides puts it".

62 For a discussion of ἔμπαλιν, see Chiarini 2012: 65-6, who notes that ἔμπαλιν can also mean "contrariwise, the opposite way" (LSJ s.v. ἔμπαλιν II), in which case the snake would be looking at Heracles’ opponents. The LfgrE refer to Myres 1941: 23, note 29 for arguments against this interpretation.

63 They differ from the aorists in the shield of Achilles, which provide background information that is not depicted on the shield. See further 3.3.3.3, 2b for a discussion of the aorists in the Homeric shield ekphrasis.

64 Russo [1950] 1965: 110 notes that the aorist "(...) fa certa difficoltà in un contesto descrittivo. Saranno mancate al poeta le forme del piu che perfetto, ché altrove viene sempre usato l'imperfetto e il piu che perfetto (...'). The idea that the aorists are used as pluperfects is derived from Schwarz 1932: 63, who comments on the aorists in 146 and 167 that "[a]c ne de eventu quidem agitur sed de condicione, cui nihil aliud nisi plusquamperfectorum adaptatum sit. Tamen specie tantum hanc legem poeta migravit, nam omnino non suppetchuperfecta a verbis πιπλημὴ 'sich füllen' et μελάνθησαν 'sich schwaerzen' derivata. Itaque aoristis plusquamperfectorum loco uti coactus est".
preferable, however, to analyse them as anterior aorists: πλήτο is intransitive ("had been/was filled"); μελάνθησαν is passive ("had become dark").

In lines 147b-8, the narrator focuses on Eris, who is flying over the snake’s forehead. According to Russo, the pluperfect πεπότητο in 148 indicates that the image is static.\(^65\) The perfect of ποτάομαι may have present sense, which means that πεπότητο can equal an imperfect.\(^66\) The verb has, furthermore, iterative-frequentative force.\(^67\) The verb, then, refers to the res ipsae. It could be the case that the image is static, and that it merely suggests iterative movement. It could also be argued that Eris really flying above the shield, in which case the movement is not imagined by the narrator, but real.\(^68\) Though this may seem improbable, the snakes in lines 163-4 really produce sound, and Perseus in lines 216-8 is really moving.

In the remainder of this passage (148b-53), the narrator moves away from what is depicted on the shield. With the participle clause κορύσσουσα κλόνον ἀνδρῶν ("who intensifies the battle of men", 148) the narrator indicates that Eris makes the battle more savage.\(^69\) The narrator uses an exclamation, σχέτλίη (148), to emphasize her cruel nature. The following relative clause, containing a gnomic aorist (εἵλετο, 149) and a distributive-iterative optative (φέροιεν, 150), indicates that Eris takes away the mind and

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66 LSJ s.v. ποτάομαι A and LfgrE s.v. ποτάομαι, ποτέομαι B.
67 So LfgrE s.v. ποτάομαι, ποτέομαι B; they translate “fly (about), flit, flutter” and add “at least mostly of erratic, shifting movement”.
68 Eris is probably depicted as a winged woman (see Shapiro 1993: 52). Some scholars assign a metaphorical value to Eris only, which would mean that she is not depicted; for this interpretation, see Chiarini 2012: 71, who cites earlier literature. A metaphorical interpretation has also been proposed for the personifications in 153-4 (so recently Torelli 2006: 32, who writes that “[d]obbiamo quindi leggere questa incredibile serie di ‘figure’ non come vere immagini effettivamente esistenti nello scudo, ma piuttosto come personificazioni di sentimenti che il poeta vuole evocare alla vista dell’immagine mostruosa di Gorgone (...)").
69 For the meaning of κορύσσουσα κλόνον ἀνδρῶν, I follow Brügger, Stoeverst, and Visser 2003: 86 (ad Il. 2.273, πόλεμον... κορύσσουν), who take the phrase to mean ‘to intensify battle’, and who note that is used similarly in Sc. 148 and 198 (“wohl wie ‘Hes.’ Sc. 148 u. 198 zu verstehen: ‘den Kampf anspitzend’, erregend, intensivierend’). This meaning is proposed by Leumann 1950: 210; cf. also Kirk 1985: 144 (ad Il. 2.273, "bringing war to a head"). Although Brügger et al. note that the LfgrE propose a different meaning, the LfgrE also translates with "d[en] Kampf erregen" (s.v κορύσσω B).
sense of any of Heracles’ opponents (οἵτινες, 150).70 This probably means that Heracles’ enemies lose their senses, so that Heracles can easily kill them. Lines 151-3, which describe what happens to those who are killed by Heracles, thus arise naturally out of what precedes. The narrator uses two omnitemporal present tenses (δύνουσι, 151; πύθεται, 153). He thereby indicates that this terrible fate always befalls those who wage war against Heracles.71

The second passage (154-60) contains an enumeration of eight subthemes, personified figures of battle.72 Only the appearance of the last figure is described. Προώξις and Παλίωξις are Pursuit and Pursuit-in-turn; they symbolize the constant turning of the tide of battle.73 Ὅμαδος is the Din of battle, Φόνος is Murder, and Ἀνδροκτασίη is Slaughter.74 Ἔρις is Strife, Κυδοιμός is the Din of battle, and Κήρ is Fate.75 The repetition of (near) identical figures, such as Ομαδος and Κυδοιμός, has bothered scholars. Yet repetition is typical of the narrator of the Shield, who often adds details in the form of triplets.76

The first pair of figures is introduced with the pluperfect τέτυκτο (154), and the triplet in 155 with the pluperfect δεδήει. The pluperfect τέτυκτο refers to the opus ipsum,

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70 The idea that arms are animated and collaborate with their hero against his enemies is also found in the Iliad (see van der Valk 1966: 456).
71 These omnitemporal presents can be compared with those on the shield of Achilles in Il. 18.485-9 (which are found in relative clauses). Those lines also provide background information, which is however irrelevant in the context. In the case of the shield of Heracles, the information is relevant, in that it relates the effect of the figures on the shield on Heracles’ opponents.
72 Shapiro 1993: 21 notes that some of these are unknown either to Homer or to later writers and artists.
73 See LSJ s.v. παλίωξις A: “pursuit in turn, when fugitives rally and turn on their pursuers”; similarly Dihle 1985: 9: “(...) das Paar Προώξις and Παλίωξις, welches das Hin- und Herwogen des Kampfgeschehens in Angriff, Flucht, und wiederum Angriff beschreibt”.
74 Two manuscripts read Φόβος instead of Φονός. Shapiro 1993: 208 calls these figures “personified war gods”.
75 Lines 156-9 are also found on the shield of Achilles (18.535-8), with ἐθύνεον for ἐθύνεον. For Ker, see note 162.
76 Martin 2005: 166: “[l]ines 154-6 (...) make a nice triple crescendo: ἐν + τε + τε (two items); then ἐν + τε + τε + τε (three items); then ἐν + ἐν + ἐν, three items, and an adjective for good measure. This triplet trips another wire. Kêr has three victims, nicely arranged in waxing style (157-8). And a third triplet completes the set of three. For Fate wears a bloody garment (159), glares terribly (160) and is gnashing her teeth (160) (...)."
but δεδήει to the res ipsae.\footnote{The LfgrE translate δεδήει with “wütete” (s.v. δαίω B 1).} The focus on the res ipsae continues in the following lines (156-9): two imperfects (ἐθύνεον, 156; ἕλκε, 158) refer to ongoing actions. One could wonder, however, whether Ker could actually be dragging three victims on the shield, rather than merely being depicted as doing so (cf. Perseus in 216-8). If this is so, then Ker is also really producing sound and glaring terribly (δεινὸν δερκομένη καναχῆς τε βεβρυχύα, 160). Though this may seem improbable, in line 164 the shield certainly makes noise.

The third passage (161-7) is wholly devoted to the opus ipsum. Three imperfects (ἔσαν, 161; πέλεν, 164; ἐδαίετο, 165) designate states. The twelve snake heads are terrible (δεινῶν, οὐ τι φατειών) and thus frighten Heracles’ opponents, which is related in 162-3. These lines are a relative clause with an iterative imperfect (φοβέεσκον), followed by another relative clause with a distributive-iterative optative (163 = 150). The snakes produce sound by gnashing their teeth (ὀδόντων...καναχῆ). The narrator uses a temporal clause (εὖτε μάχοιτο / Ἀμφιτρυωνιάδης) with a distributive-iterative optative to indicate that this happened every time Heracles fights.\footnote{Such temporal clauses occur frequently in descriptions; cf. Od. 13.101 (in section 2.3.2).} The snakes react to what happens in the world.

The snakes are said to be shining or burning (τὰ δ’ ἐδαίετο), which could mean that they emit light.\footnote{Mazon translates “et ce prodige d’art lançait aussi des feux”. The LfgrE translate ἐδαίετο with “sprühten Feuer” (s.v. δαίω B 1); Russo [1950] 1965: 116 refers to the scholia, who gloss ἐδαίετο as ἔλαμπε.} Line 166 is difficult; I have translated “and it was as though there were spots to be seen on the terrible snakes”.\footnote{My translation is based on that by Evelyn-White (Loeb, 1914). Russo [1950] 1965: 116 glosses στίγματα δ’ ὣς as “come se fossero delle macchie” and ἐπέφαντο…δράκουσι as “ἐφάνησαν ἐπὶ τῶν δρακόντων”.} The narrator ends this section with two references to colours, the snakes are (dark) blue along their backs, and their jaws are black.\footnote{According to Byrne 1976: 76, “[t]he authorial comment θαυματὰ ἔργα seems here to refer, not to aesthetic reactions of a hypothetical observer, but to the more practical reactions of Heracles’s enemies”. In my view, it is the narrator’s own reaction that is referred to.}
I sum up. The descriptivity of the text is high. Textual organization is descriptive: the text progresses by enumeration; some spatial markers occur, too. Most verbs – imperfects and pluperfects – designate states. Many visual details are included: there are references to colour and the shield’s radiance, but most attention is paid to the terrible appearance of the images, the adjective δεινός being a favourite of the narrator. In fact, the image itself seems to be looking back at the viewer (145, 160). Sounds are described, too. On account of the present tenses, lines 151-3 do not refer to what is depicted on the shield. They, too, can be regarded as descriptive: they do not narrate what happens to particular people in particular circumstances, but describe what befalls anyone who happens to be killed by Heracles.

The narrativity of the images is low: none of the basic elements of narrative is present. In those lines that focus on the res ipsea (155-60), the personified figures of battle are depicted in their prototypical capacity.

4-5. Battles between wild boars and lions, and between Lapiths and Centaurs (168-90)

Ἐν δὲ συῶν ἀγέλαι χλούνων ἔσαν ἡδὲ λεόντων ἐς σφέας δερκομένων κοτεόντων δ’ Ιεμένων τε.

170 τῶν και ἰμιληθῶν στίχες ἦσαν, οὐδὲ νὺ τῷ γε ὀμίλετοι τρεięćην, φισῶν γε μὲν αὐχένας ἄμφω.

ηδὴ γὰρ σφὸν ἐκεῖτο μέγας λίς, ἀμφὶ δὲ κάπροι δοιοί, ἀποιμάμονοι ψυχὴς κατὰ δὲ σφὶ κελαίνων αἱμ’ ἀπελειβὰς ἐρας.” οἱ δ’ αὐχένας ἀξεριπόντες

καὶ κατὰ τενηγάτες ὑπὸ βλασυροὶ λέουσιντ’ οἱ δ’ ἐτι μάλλον ἐγειρέσθη εἰς σφέας δεκτὸν μάχεσθαι, ἀμφὶστοι, χλούνας τε ὑπὸ χρησὶκείν τε λέοστες.

Ἐν δ’ ἡ ἱμίλῃ Λαπίθων αἰχμητάων Καινά τ’ ἀμφὶ ἄντα δρόσαι τὰ Πειριβάδον τε

83 ἐν μέσσῳ δέ (144), ἐπὶ δέ (147), ἐν δέ (154-6; 160), κατά (167).
84 References to colours: πυρὶ λαμπομενοίσι (145), λευκαθεόντων (146), βαφονεόν (159), κυάνεοι, μελανθεόν (167); reference to the terrible look of the shield: ὁ τ’ φατειός (144), δεινῶν, ἀψπλεόν, βλασυροί (147), δεινή (148), ἀλφι (156), δεινών (160), δεινῶν, οὗ τ’ φατειῶν (161), δεινοῖσι (166).

86 ἐν μέσσῳ δέ (144), ἐπὶ δέ (147); ἐν δέ (154-6; 160), κατά (167).
Upon it were herds of wild boars and lions glaring at them, angry and eager. (170) Of them too in groups the rows were advancing, and neither side was fleeing, but both sides were bristling up [the hairs of] their necks. For already for them a great lion was lying dead, and on either side [were lying] two boars, deprived of life; and their black blood was dripping down onto the ground; and they, having fallen with regard to their necks, (175) were lying, killed by the frightful lions. And they were yet more roused to fight, angry, both sides, the wild boars and the fierce-eyed lions. Upon it was the combat of the spear-bearing Lapiths around Caineus their king and Dryas and Peirithous and (180) Hopleus and Exadius and Phalerus and Prolocus, and Mopsus of Titarus, Ampycus’ son, scion of Ares, and Theseus, Aegeus’ son, equal to the immortals; [they were] silver, having golden arms around their bodies. The Centaurs, on the other side, opposite them, were gathering together (185) around great Petraeus and Asbolus the augur and Arctus and Orius and black-haired Mimas and Peuces’ two sons, Perimedes and Dryalus; [they were] silver, having golden fir trees in their hands. And rushing against another as if they were alive, (190) they were keeping their spears and fir trees drawn, close together.

The next two images are scenes of combat. The text which represents the images has a prototypically descriptive structure. As for other prototypical elements of description, I note the following visual details in 168-77: the look of the lions (169), the bristling of the hairs by either party (171), the dead lion is a big one (μέγας, 172), the blood is black (κελαινόν, 173); βλοσυροῖσι (175) and χαροποί (177) refer respectively to the appearance and look of the lions. The number of the dead animals is specified (δοιοί, 173). The opus ipsum is not referred to. All attention goes out to the figures; the narrator does not specify the location or setting of the action, which is always the case in the shield of
Achilles. In lines 178-90, the catalogue of fighters is a prototypically descriptive element. Lines 183 and 188 refer to the *opus ipsum*, and are full of visual details; I note especially the contrast between the silver figures and their golden arms or weapons.

The first image (168-76) depicts a battle between wild boars and lions that is about to enter its final stage. The narrator has personified the animals. This means that the image can acquire narrative qualities, since human or human-like agents are a basic requisite for narrative. The narrator focuses on the *res ipsae* only. The scene is characterised by ring composition: an outer ring (168-9 = 176-7) encloses an inner frame, which forms the centre of the image. This ring mirrors the composition of the image: two parties, located at either side; in their midst the dead lion and boars. The image can be divided into three distinct parts: 1) 168-71, 2) 172-5, and 3) 176-7.

1) The narrator first introduces the two parties in 168. In 169, the narratees look, together with the lions, at the boars (ἐς σφέας δερκομένων), and learn their state of mind: they are angry, and eager to fight (κοτεόντων θ’ ἱεμένων τε). This cannot be depicted, but is easily accepted as an inference from what is depicted, which will be related in 171 below. The animals advance in rows, grouped closely together (ὁμιληδόν), as if they were rows of soldiers. The narrator again refers to something that is not depicted: οὐδὲ νυ τώ γε / οὐδέτεροι τρεέτην, “and neither side was fleeing” (170-1). The use of the negative (οὐδὲ.../ οὐδέτεροι) is striking. Yet the narrator has inferred this determination to fight from the way the animals are depicted on the shield: “but (γε μέν) both sides were bristling up [the hairs of their] necks” (171b). In these lines, the narrator has set, as it were, the scene: two advancing armies of animals, both preparing for battle.

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86 Cf. e.g. the first scene on the shield of Achilles: ἐν δὲ δύω ποίησε πόλεις μερόπων ἀνθρώπων / καλάς, ἐν τῇ μέν... (18.490-1).
87 Thalmann 1984: 10: “[t]he verbal description, by its form, embodies the composition of the picture that we are to imagine. Both are unified, contained within boundaries”.
88 In Homer, στίχες are always made up out of human soldiers (Russo [1950] 1965: 11).
89 The dual emphasizes the fact that the lions and boars form two opposing armies; it recurs in 171 (ἄμφω) and 176 (ἐγειρέσθην κοτέοντε). The *LfgrE* translate this instance (as well as 213 below) with “to flee” (s.v. τρέω B).
90 Only two negatives occur in the Homeric shield ekphrasis, for which see 3.3.3.3, 2b. In the pseudo-Hesiodic ekphrasis, negatives are rare, too. Apart from the negatives belonging to an adjective (οὗ τι φατειός, 144; similarly 161 and 230; οὗ τι...μεγάλη, 259) only one other negative occurs, in 310-11 (οὐδὲ ποτέ σφιν / νίκη ἐπηνύσθη, 310-11), for which see below.
91 According to Russo [1950] 1965: 117, γε μέν is adversative, as in 300 below; Denniston [1934] 1954: 387 lists γε μέν in 300 as adversative, but in 139 as progressive, or weakly adversative.
(2) Lines 172-5 form the central section of the image, in which the narrator focuses on three individuals that are all dead. This section starts with ἤδη γάρ; both words do not occur in the Homeric shield ekphrasis. Γάρ makes clear that this line expresses the reason why the animals do not flee. The temporal adverb ἤδη implies a previous stage of the battle, which is however not depicted. The image on the shield depicts a dead lion (172), flanked (ἀμφί) by two dead boars (172-3). The blood of all three victims is dripping down onto the ground. Three participles refer to earlier non-depicted moments: the boars are dead (aorist participle: ἀπουράμενοι ψυχάς, “having been deprived of their life”), their necks are lying on the ground (aorist participle: αὐχένας ἐξεριπόντες, “having fallen with regard to their necks”), and they have been killed by the lions (perfect participle: τεθνηῶτες ὑπὸ βλοσυροῖσι λέουσιν).

170-1 are particularly rich in particles. I further note νυ…γε in 170; the narrator is drawing attention to this striking feature of the image. For the value of νυ, see Ruijgh 1971: 843 (“la valeur de νυ est donc proche de celle de ἄρα (ῥα) et de δή, particules qui servent à soulignier l’intérêt du fait exprimé”).

(3) The narrator ends the description of this image by ring composition. He returns to the same animals he had referred to in lines 168-9. He adds information which can be understood only after lines 172-5: on account of their dead comrades, both sides are yet
more (ἔτι μᾶλλον) roused to fight.97 The words ἔτι μᾶλλον imply a lapse of time, in which the animal’s eagerness to fight has increased. Thus, the narrator has been able to suggest temporal progression by the way he moves through the image. In part (1), the animals are about to start fighting. In part (2), the narrator reveals another fact about the image: three dead animals are also depicted. They are casualties of an earlier stage in the battle (ἤδη), as well as the reason why the battle is about to begin. In part (3), finally, the narrator states that the animals’ fierceness has increased. They are, however, the very same animals that were described in part (1).

The image thus suggests a sequence of events. It also refers to earlier events that are not depicted. World disruption and ‘what-it’s-like’ are present. As for world disruption: in the preceding battle three animals have already been killed, and the coming battle promises to be a fierce one (lines 171 and 176). The narrator draws attention to the black blood dripping on the ground (173-4). As for ‘what-it’s-like’, it is said that the animals are angry (κοτεόντων, 169; ἐγειρέσθην κοτέοντε, 176) and eager to fight (ἱεμένων, 169; 176).

The narrative depicted in this image thus has a high degree of narrativity. The image depicts a pregnant moment, the moment just before the final stage of the battle. It allows the narrator-focaliser to infer what has gone before, as well as what will happen next.

The second image of combat (178-90) is of a mythical nature.98 Mythical scenes are not found on the shield of Achilles.99 The description is characterised by parallelism: two catalogues of fighters (179-84; 185-8) follow after their introductory lines (178; 184).100

97 Cf. Russo [1950] 1965: 118: “[l]a scena è vigorosamente condensata, perché i brevi cenni del poeta lasciano immaginare quel che è passato fra le due schiere, che ora si accingono all’ultimo combattimento, infuriate dalle precedenti perdite”.

98 For a possible reason for the inclusion of this myth, see Toohey 1988: 26-7. According to Stamatopoulou 2013: 279, note 32, the Lapiths and Centaurs are Heracles’ contemporaries, whereas Perseus (another mythological figure, in 216-29) represents the heroic past.


100 Thalmann 1984: 24-5. The fact that the names of the fighters are listed might be an indication that the narrator envisages these names as actually being written on the shield (see e.g. Cook 1937: 208 and Chiarini 2012: 83-4).
In the opening line, the narrator only mentions the Lapiths as forming part of the combat (ὑσμίνη Λαπιθάων αἰχμητάων). The fact that the Lapiths fought with the Centaurs was well-known, on account of which the Centaurs need not be mentioned. The image depicts a multitude of Lapiths, grouped around (ἀμφί, 179) their leaders, who are enumerated in 179-82. The narrator ends with a reference to the opus ipsum: the Lapiths are made of silver, their armours of gold. The Centaurs are located opposite the Lapiths (ἑτέρωθεν ἐναντίοι, 184) and also grouped around their leaders (ἀμφί, 185). The narrator ends again with a reference to the opus ipsum: they are silver, too, and their weapons made of gold. Their weapons, fir trees, characterize them as wild beasts vis-à-vis the civilized Lapiths.

In line 178, the narrator surveys the image as a whole, which depicts a battle (ἐν δ’ ὑσμίνη). He does not refer to any specific actions in which the Lapiths are engaged. In line 184, the narrator does refer to a specific action: the Centaurs are gathering together (ὑγερέθοντο, 184). In lines 189-90, it becomes clear that the battle consists of a hand-to-hand fight: “and rushing against another as if they were alive, they were keeping their spears and fir trees drawn, close together”. It would seem that “gathering” and “fighting” are mutually exclusive actions. The contradiction can be solved by assuming that the image depicts both the gathering and the fighting. The narratee would then have to assume that some figures are still gathering, while others are already fighting.

The image thus depicts two stages of the battle, which are happening simultaneously. It does not contain a sequence of events, for the same figures are not involved in consecutive actions. World disruption is present: a fight is always a disruptive event. The battle is a general mêlée; the narrator does not focus on individuals. The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is absent, since no attention is paid to the feelings of the figures. Even so, I conclude that the image has a high degree of narrativity.

101 Thalmann 1984: 24: “[h]ere the civilized humans and the wild semibeasts are contrasted by their implements of warfare, and the parallel manner of their presentation also balances them each against the other”; see also Russo [1950] 1965: 121.

102 I follow the LfgrE in translating ὠριγνῶντο with “hielten gezückt” (s.v. ὀρέγω, ὀρέγνυμι, ὀριγνάομαι B 1 b). LSJ translate with “they fought with outstretched spears” (s.v. ὀριγνάομαι A). For the value of καί τε in 189, cf. Ruijgh 1971: 774 (”[l]a particule καί (…) fonctionne (…) comme coordonnant non corresponsif introduisant un membre à verbe fini sans changement de sujet (…). L'idée du climax y est sensible (…)”).

103 In this respect, it is similar to the battle which ends the city at war in Homer (18.539-40).
The mythical subject matter does not augment the narrativity of the image. In fact, it is not clear how this image relates to the larger myth of which it is a part. It is unlikely that the battle takes place at the wedding of Peirithous and Hippodameia. This version of the myth is not attested before the second quarter of the fifth century.\(^{104}\) Furthermore, the battle seems to take place out of doors, as the Lapiths are wearing their armours.\(^{105}\) As for the cause of the battle, this may have been an incident at the wedding, but the narrator gives no information from which the narratee can deduce this.\(^{106}\) There is no hint either at the outcome of the fight, although traditionally the Centaurs lose. Thus, even though the fight is a mythical one, it is not possible for the narratee to reconstruct, from clues in the text, the larger story.

I want to address one last point. In line 189, the narrator emphasizes the lifelike qualities of the figures with ὡς εἰ ζωοὶ περ ἐόντες, “as if they were alive”.\(^{107}\) The narrator compares “art” with reality; the phrase serves as a reminder to the narratees that actions on a work of art are described, not actions in reality.\(^{108}\) Yet what about the nature of this work of art, the shield of Heracles? In the case of Achilles’ shield, it is clear that the figures are static. Heracles’ shield, on the other hand, is magical. It is clear, furthermore, that some figures really move (see Perseus below in 216-37a). Thus, the expression ὡς εἰ ζωοὶ περ ἐόντες could refer to actual movement: the figures are moving as if they were alive – but they are not alive, because they are made of metal and part of a shield.

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\(^{104}\) Barron 1972: 25-6; see also Chiarini 2012: 58-7.

\(^{105}\) So Gantz 1993: 278: “(…) the fact that the Lapithai do wear armor, would seem to suggest a nondomestic context, while there is no mention at all of women or other noncombatants”.

\(^{106}\) Gantz 1993: 278 summarizes what may have been the larger story: “(…) there would seem to have been an initial isolated incident (whether or not at the wedding) leading to general hostilities and finally to an all-out war, which the Kentauroi lose”; this story is based on the references in the Iliad (1.262-70; 2.742-4) and Odyssey (21.295-303), although Gantz rightly notes that the epics need not refer to the same version.

\(^{107}\) A similar expression in 194 (but see discussion below); two such expressions are found in the Homeric shield ekphraseis (18.518 and 539). Cf. also the somewhat different phrases with forms of εἰκὼς and the like in 198, 206, 209, 215, 228, 244, and 314.

\(^{108}\) E.g. Becker 1992: 17: “[w]hen calling attention to the interpretation of the describer, this ekphraseis breaks the illusion that we are viewers (...). (...) here an explicit expression of similarity reminds us of the describer: a simile openly interprets, and so brings the visual representation into the describer’s own understanding of the world. It reminds us that we are ‘seeing’ a human response to depicted phenomena, not the phenomena themselves”.

Upon it stood the swift-footed horses of frightful Ares, made of gold, and upon it too was spoil-bearing, dire Ares himself, holding a spear in his hands, giving orders to foot soldiers, dark red with blood as though he were slaying living men, (195) mounted on his chariot. Beside him stood Fear and Rout, eager to plunge into the battle of men. Upon it stood Zeus’ daughter, leader of the war-host, Tritogeneia, and she looked as though she wanted to intensify battle, holding a spear in her hand, and [having on her head] a golden helmet, (200) and the aegis around her shoulders. And she was going off towards dread battle. Upon it was the holy dance of the immortals; and in the middle the son of Zeus and Leto was playing music, rousing desire, upon a golden lira. The seat of the gods was hallowed Olympus; upon it was the place of assembly, and around it measureless wealth was placed (205) in the assembly of the immortals. Goddesses were leading the song, the Pierian Muses, and they looked as though they were singing with high voices.

The text that represents these images has a prototypically descriptive structure. As for other prototypically descriptive elements, the opus ipsum does not receive much attention. The material is referred to thrice, once in every image: χρύσεοι (192), χρυσέην (199), and χρυσείῃ (203); there is one other reference to colour (φοινικόεις, 194). Other

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199 Χρυσέην in 199 does not scan, but a number of manuscripts read χρυσείη, which does scan if the υ is taken as short. Russo [1950] 1965: 125 denies the possibility of a short υ, but not so Paley.
visual details are ἐναρσφόρος (192) and ἀπείριτος (204). Some other details are also found: οὔλιος (192), αἰνήν (200), ἱερός (201), ἱμερόεν (202, referring to sound), ἁγνός (203), and λιγύ (206, sound).

The images all depict gods: Ares on his chariot, flanked by Fear and Rout (191-6), Athena (197-200), and a group of immortals, with Apollo and the Muses (201-6). It has been suggested that Ares and Athena are taking part in the fight between the Lapiths and Centaurs of the previous image, but also that this is unlikely, since the introductory formula ἐν δὲ points to separate images. Reinhardt argues that these two images are

1883: 139, who reads ἐν χερσὶ (also in some manuscripts) χρυσείην and notes that “[t]his verse contains a clear proof of an unskilful composer. The tragic writers frequently shorten the ν in χρύσεος, but never the Epic poets of the good age. There is little reason to suppose the verse corrupt, though it may possibly be an interpolation”.

110 According to Thalmann 1984: 62, “[a]t the center of the poetic account lie three scenes of gods (ll. 191-206), which stand out from the five scenes that precede and the five that follow them. In these flanking parts there is a general progression from monstrous personifications of war and violence through strife in the animal world to warfare among mankind”. The inclusion of Ares and Athena – who are fighting against and with Heracles in the narrative of the Shield – has attracted the attention of scholars. For Russo [1950] 1965, they are symbols of hostile opponents, which is the reason why they are not engaged in battle with each other (“(…) simboli di nemici avversi, e però non li mette veramente in mezzo ad una battaglia armati l’uno contro l’altro (191-200).”). According to Effe 1988: 163, their occurrence here mirrors the antagonism between the two gods in the rest of the poem, which will be decisive for the battle to come (“Hier spiegelt sich der göttliche Antagonismus, der für den Kampf des Herakles bestimmend sein wird”). Janko 1986: 40 notes that the three gods (Ares, Athena and Apollo) are portrayed in the order in which they appear in the narrative.

111 van Groningen 1958: 117, note 2: “[i]t is tout juste possible que les deux dieux prennent part à la lutte des Lapithes et des Centaures; dans ce cas il y a une longe scène de combat comptant 23 vers. Mais la formule ἐν δὲ en 191 et 197 plaide plutôt pour des scènes nouvelles”. Toohey 1988 : 27 thinks van Groningen’s suggestion is not unlikely (“[i]t deserves to be noticed, furthermore, that the appearance of Ares (... and Athena (...) may link with this conflict”). It has also been argued that Ares and Athena must be imagined as preparing to fight with each other, but that there are no references to this fact in the text (see Chiarini 2012: 97: “(…) mancano in effetti nei vv. 191-200 riferimenti a episodi precisi del mito che videro Ares e Athena su fronti opposti e tantomeno viene esplicitato che essi muovano l’uno contro l’altro, ma potrebbe anche essere immaginato come due gruppi figurativi affiancati e distinti”; I think the text points towards the latter interpretation, for which see my discussion below).
independent portraits of Ares and Athena. On this point, Heracles' shield differs from the Homeric shield ekphrasis, where Ares and Athena take part in the ongoing action.\textsuperscript{112}

The first passage (191-6) has two finite verbs only (ἕστασαν, 191 and 196; these pluperfects equal imperfects, "were standing").\textsuperscript{113} The picture lacks movement: the horses are said to be standing, and so is Ares himself, with a spear in his hand (193), on his chariot (195).\textsuperscript{114} The narrator also states that Ares is "giving orders to foot soldiers" (πρυλέεσσι κελεύων, 193).\textsuperscript{115} Ares is dark red with blood as though he were slaying living men (αἵματι φοινικόεις ὡς εἰ ζωοὺς ἐναρίζων, 194). This phrase does not mean that Ares is depicted as if he were killing men, but that his colour is blood-red as if resulting from the killing of actual men.\textsuperscript{116} The narrator thus comments on the realism of the colour. Ares is flanked by Fear and Rout, who are eager to enter the fight (ἵέμενοι πόλεμον

\textsuperscript{112} Reinhardt 1961: 408; the reference is to 18.516-9. According to Cook 1937: 208-9, “the choice of Ares and Athena is probably due to their presence on the shield of Achilles”.

\textsuperscript{113} The meaning of ἕστασαν is close to “were” (for this meaning, see LSJ s.v. ἵστημι B, “freq[ently] merely a stronger form of εἶναι, to be in a certain place or state”).

\textsuperscript{114} Differently Martin 2005: 159, who notes that “(…) there is movement and colour. Fear and Dread stand straining to enter the fight. Ares is urging on the fighters, stepping onto the chariot”. He also notes that Ares is, at this very moment, facing Heracles: “[i]f we imagine the polished shield as both depicting and reflecting, it is interesting that the same god is facing Heracles at this very moment, as if his picture has been caught on the lens of the shield surface” (ibid.).

\textsuperscript{115} According to Russo [1950] 1965: 123-4, the foot soldiers are not depicted on the shield (“Ares, ancora lontano dalla mischia (cf. 195 sg.), incita con la voce degli uomini che combattono. Questa scene lontana, e non descritte, è fatta balenare con πρυλέεσσι κελεύων (cf. la stessa cosa al 201 e in Σ 519)

\textsuperscript{116} Russo [1950] 1965: 124, who notes on this line that “sc. αἰμοτώδης ἦν, ὡσπερ φόνεύς. L’espressione non indica, come può sembrare a prima vista, che Ares stia uccidendo, e quindi sia in battaglia: il dio era insanguinato come un omicida”. There is thus a difference with 189 (ὡς εἰ ζωοὶ περ ἐόντες), where the phrase is attached to a predicate; here, the phrase modifies an adjective only, φοινικάεις.
καταδύμεναι ἀνδρῶν, 196). This cannot be depicted, but it is a likely inference by the narrator in this context.

The second passage (197-200) is short, and introduces Athena by a paraphrase (Διὸς θυγάτηρ ἀγελείη Τριτογένεια). She “looks as though she wanted to intensify battle” (τῇ ἱκέλῃ ὡς εἴ τε μάχην ἐθέλουσα κορύσσειν). With such phrases (see also 209, 211, and 215 below), the narrator does not describe the res ipsae directly (“Athena wanted to intensify battle”), but indirectly, thereby drawing attention that he is describing an image. Athena is wearing her common attributes: spear (in her hand), helmet (on her head), and the aegis (around her shoulders) (199-200). The narrator ends with a reference to the res ipsae: Athena is going off towards battle (ἐπὶ δ’ ᾤχετο φύλοπιν αἰνήν, 200). This probably means that Athena is depicted as moving – that she is going off to battle can only be an inference by the narrator from the way she is dressed. This means that Athena, just as Ares, is not depicted as part of a battle, but by herself.

The third passage (201-6) presents the first peaceful image on the shield. The ἀθανάτων ἱερὸς χορός could refer to a dance, or to a dancing place. In the middle, Apollo – who is also introduced by a paraphrase – is playing on a golden lyre (202-3). The narrator locates the scene on the Olympus (203b), in its gathering place (204). The narrator thus zooms out: the ἱερὸς χορός is a more likely subtheme of the Ὄλυμπος than vice versa. The narrator also refers to the immense wealth that is placed in the assembly of the gods. There is music, too: the Pierian Muses are leading the song, looking as if they were singing with high voices (λιγὺ μελπομένῃς ἐικυῖαι, 206).

Fear and Rout are also found on Agamemnon's shield (Il. 11. 37); on Phobos, see further Shapiro 1993: 208-10.

For the meaning of κορύσσω, see note 69 above.

I take ἐν χειρί with ἔγχος only, and interpret χρυσέην τε τρυφάλειαν [sc. ἔχουσα] as referring to the helmet on her head (translated by Mazon with “casque d’en tête”). It seems unlikely that Athena has her helmet in her hands, if she is depicted as going off to battle (200).

LfgrE s.v χορός B 2 b.

According to van der Valk 1966: 474, the poet mentions Apollo and the choir of immortals first to create a contrast with the war gods of the previous scenes.

LfgrE s.v. χιμάρα B 12; χιμάρα to the assembly itself (LfgrE s.v. χιμὰρα B 1: “Ensemble, Versammlung (Zusammensein einer Mehrzahl)”). According to Chiarini 2012: 193, “[c]on χιμάρα il poeta potrebbe veicolare la disposizione circolare degli dei attorno ad Apollon, che di fatto però si realizza graficamente in un χιμάρα, ossia una fila di divinità raffigurate una accanto all’altra in mancanza di profondità (...)” (emphasis mine).
The narrativity of these three images is low. All of the three basic elements of narrative are lacking. The images depict the gods in their prototypical activities: Ares shouting to foot soldiers, Athena moving towards battle, and the gods enjoying themselves on the Olympus with dance and music. No reference is made to a specific event.

9. Harbour with dolphins and fisherman (207-15)\

Ἐν δὲ λιμήν εὐφόρον ἄμφιμακέτοιο θαλάσσης κυκλοτερής ἐπάτυκτο πολεόμυον κασσιτέριον κλισθομέαν ἱκέλος πολλοί γε μὲν ἀμέν μέσον αὐτοῦ δελφίνες τῇ καὶ τῇ ἐθύνον ἱχθύαστες νιχομένοις ἱκέλοι δ' ἀναφυσόντες ἀργύρεοι δελφῖνες ἐφοίτων ἐλλοπας ἱχθύως τῶν δ' ὑπὸ χάλκειοι τρέον ἱχθύες. αὐτάρ ἐπ' ἀκτὰς ἥστο ἀνὴρ ἁλιεὺς δεδοκημένος, εἶχε δὲ χερσὶν ἰχθύσιν ἀμφίβληστρον ἀπορρίφοντι ἐοικῶς.\

Upon it was wrought a harbour, with good mooring places, of the invincible sea, semi-circular, of completely refined tin, looking as though it were undulating; in the middle of it many (210) dolphins were rushing this way and that, while hunting, looking as though they were swimming; and two silver dolphins, spouting, †were going to and fro† the mute fish. Below them, the bronze fish were fleeing; on the shore a fisherman was sitting, watching, and in his hands he was holding (215) a casting-net for fish, looking as though he was just about to cast it.

In between two mythical sections (178-206; 216-37a), the narrator inserts an image of daily life. The text which represents the image has a prototypically descriptive

123 In 212, Solmsen prints ἐφοίβεον (following von der Mühll, after manuscript F). According to Capone 1971-2: 6, "(...) ἐφοίβεον si inserisce bene nel contest col significato di ‘mettere in fuga’, pur se, a prima vista, susciti qualche riserva, poiché potrebbe sembrare un esempio di banalizzazione". Parts of these lines (from 207-13) are also found in a papyrus (PBerol. 9774); in the papyrus, these parts follow after Il. 18.608 and provide the ocean on Achilles' shield with a harbour and fishes too. On this papyrus, see further West 1967: 132-6 and Martin 2005: 169-70. The papyrus reads ἐφοίνεον ἐλλοπας ἱχθύως (the meaning of which is unclear; the LfgrE s.v. φοινέω note that the verb is a hapax and tentatively propose "röten, hetzen"). In 213, I read ἐπ' ἀκτὰς with the manuscripts.

124 Some scholars, among whom Cook 1937: 209-10, have associated this scene with the following one. Chiarini 2012: 106 comments that "[d]al punto di vista testuale non vi sono elementi che
structure: its organization is enumerative, and its three main parts are connected spatially (ἂμ μέσον αὐτοῦ, 209; αὐτὰρ ἐπ’ ἀκταῖς, 213a). Further spatial indicators are found in 210 (τῇ καὶ τῇ), 211 (ἀναφυσιόωντες), and 213 (τῶν δ’ ὕπο). Reference is made to the *opus ipsum* in 208 (πανέφθου κασσιτέροι, and perhaps κυκλοτερής), 212 (ἀργύρεοι), and 213 (χάλκειοι). These are all visual details; two references to number (πολλοί, 209; δοιώ, 211) are also found. Other details are ἄμαιμακέτοι (207) and ἔλλοπας (212).

The extensive focus on the scenery (207-9a) is found only in this *image* on the shield. The harbour is introduced as part of the *opus ipsum* with the pluperfect ἐτέτυκτο, followed by the material of which it is made (πανέφθου κασσιτέροι, 208). The narrator also focuses on the *res ipsae*: the harbour has good mooring places (εὔορμος); κυκλοτερής, "semi-circular", could refer to both the *res ipsae* and the *opus ipsum*.

After this static picture of the scenery, the narrator focuses on the *res ipsae* (209b-213a): many dolphins are swimming in the middle of the harbour (ἂμ μέσον αὐτοῦ), this way and that, while hunting (ἰχθυάοντες, 210). The narrator next zooms in on two dolphins: they are spouting, and scaring the other fish. Notwithstanding the fact that ἐφοίτων in 213 is corrupt, this much is clear from 213: beneath the dolphins (τῶν δ’ ὕπο), the fish, distinguished by their bronze colour, are fleeing (τρέον). This, too, indicates that the dolphins are hunting.
Lastly, the narrator focuses on a human figure, a fisherman (213b-15), sitting on the cliffs (ἐπ’ ἀκταῖς / ἧστο, 213-4).128 He is watching the fish (δεδοκημένος, 214).129 The picture seems one of stasis: the fisherman is holding a casting net in his hands (εἶχε δὲ χερσὶν / ἰχθύσιν ἄμφιβληστρον, 214-5). Yet from the last words of line 215, it appears that the fisherman looks as though he is just about to cast his net (ἀπορρίποντι ἐοικώς).130 This might indicate that the fisherman, at least as far as his hands and net are concerned, is depicted in motion. The picture would then consist of a pregnant moment: the fisherman is depicted in such a way as to suggest that he is just about to cast his net. Thus, the future participle looks to an event that is not depicted, but which is suggested by the image.

The image is low in narrativity. All three basic elements of narrative are absent, although the narrator does look forward to an event subsequent to the ongoing event depicted in the image. As is the case with most scenes on the shield of Achilles, this image has generic narrativity. Although the narrator focuses on an individual in 213b-15, this individual is depicted in his capacity as fisher, in the exercise of his profession.131

superficie dell’acqua”. It should be noted that the verb ἐθύνεον (210) is always used in a martial context, the exception being Sc. 286 (LfrE s.v. θύν(έ)ω B).

128 For ἐπ’ ἀκταῖς, see Russo [1950] 1965: 130 (“[i]l pescatore sta seduto su degli scogli”). For σύταρ, see my discussion of Od. 13.102 (σύταρ ἐπὶ κρατὸς λιμένος…) in 2.3.2.

129 According to Martin 2005: 168, the fisherman plays the role of internal audience for this scene, as would Achlus do in 264 below (but see my discussion). Such internal audiences are also found on the shield of Achilles, see e.g. 18.436.

130 Chiarini 2012: 110 notes that an ἄμφιβληστρον is a small net, used to catch small fish and which may be used in combination with a fish-hook.

131 According to Elliger 1975: 41-2, the fisherman is a more independent part of the image than the human figures on the shield of Achilles: “(…) so ist der Angler auf den Klippen vom Vorhergehenden deutlich abgesetzt als eigener Teil im Bildganzen. Man mag ihm ruhig mehr als die Funktion einer Staffagefigur zubilligen, aber den Stellenwert des Menschen in der homerischen Schildbeschreibung erreicht er auf keinen Fall. (…) In den homerischen Szenen sind alle Szenenteilen in das Ganze integriert, die Hafenbeschreibung des jüngeren Dichters wirkt eher wie ein Kompositgebilde, bei dem jeder Teil mit einer gewissen Selbständigkeit neben dem anderen besteht” (emphasis mine). Elliger concludes “daß bei dem jüngeren Dichter [pseudo-Hesiod] das Typische hinter dem Individuellen zurücktritt” (ibid.: 43). Whereas I agree that the fisher occupies a distinct part of the image, more so than the figures in the Homeric shield ekphrasis do, the Homeric narrator focuses on individuals, too (see e.g. the king in 556-7).
10. Perseus and the Gorgons (216-37a)

'Ἐν δὲ ἦν ἡμερῶν Δανάης τέκος, Ἰππότα Περσεύς, 
οὗτος δὲ ἀρ' ἐπιφαίνων σάκεος ποσὶν ὁδῷ ἐκάς αὐτοῦ, 
θαῦμα μέγα φράσσασθ', ἐπεὶ σύναξῃ ἀστήρικτα, 
tῶς γὰρ μὴν πολλὰς τεῦξεν κλυτὸς Ἀμφιγυής, 

χρύσουν ἅμωρ τῇ ποσοῖν ἤχον περεόντει πέδωλα- 
ωμοῖσιν δὲ μὴν ἅμωρ μελάνδετον ὁδῷ έκειτο 
χαλκέοις ἐκ τελαμῶνος. τῇ δὲ τοῖς τε χαρά ἐποτά- 
pαν δὲ μεταθρήσκευσιν ἤχοι κάρη δεινοίσι πελώρου, 
Γοργοῦς ἁμωρ τῇ μὴν κώμεις δᾶς, θηρίμων ιθαστά, 

ἀργυρίας- ὀμοῖοι δὲ κατηκόρευτο φαενοί 
χρύσεις- δεινοὶ τῇ περὶ κροτάφοις ἀνακτος 
κατ' Ἀιδος κυνή νυκτὸς ζόφον αὐτὸν ἔχουσα. 
αὐτὸς δὲ σπευδόντο καὶ ἐρρήγοντο έσοικως 
Περσεὺς Δαναΐδης ἐπιταίνειος- ταῖ δὲ μετ' αὐτῶν 

Γοργοῖς ἐπιλητοί τε καὶ οὐ φατοί ἐφώσιντο 
ἰέμεναι ματισῖν· ἐπὶ δὲ θλωροῦ αθάμαντος 
βασινεσίων ἱέγεσκε σάκος μεγάλῳ ἀρμογῆν 
δύσκα καὶ λυγεώς· ἐπὶ δὲ κάρης δρακοντε 
διώς ἀπημοίρευτ' ἐπικυρτώοντε κάρηνα- 

λύχμαξι δ' ὄρα τῷ γε, μὲνε δ' ἐχαραγέων οἴόντας 
ἀγρία δερμημένω· ἐπὶ δὲ δεινοῖς καρῆνας 
Γοργοίς εὔβονετο μέγας Φόβος... 

Upon it was the fine-haired son of Danae, the horseman Perseus, neither touching the shield with his feet nor far from it, a great wonder to perceive, since nowhere was he attached to it. For that was how with his hands the renowned crook-legged had wrought him, (220) of gold. Around his feet he was wearing winged sandals; on his shoulders, about him, was a dark-bound sword from a bronze baldric; and he flew like a thought. The head of the terrible monster was covering his whole back, [the head] of the Gorgon, and around it a pouch was running, a wonder to see, (225) of silver; and shining tassels were hanging, dangling down [from it], of gold; and the terrible helmet of Hades was set around the king's temples, having the dread darkness of night. Perseus himself, Danae's son, was exerting himself, looking as though he were hastening and shuddering; and they, (230) the Gorgons, dreadful and terrible, were rushing after him, eager to catch him; as they ran on the pallid adamant, the shield resounded with a large noise, sharply and piercingly; and on their girdles, two serpents were hanging, dangling down, bending their heads forward; (235) both were playing with their tongues, and they were grinding their teeth with strength, glaring savagely; and upon the terrible heads of the Gorgons great Fear was shaking.
The next image on the shield depicts Perseus, pursued by the Gorgons. I first discuss the image on account of its complex nature. The image can be divided into two parts: 1) 216-29a, in which the narrator focuses on Perseus, and 2) 229-37, in which the narrator focuses on the Gorgons. The structure of these lines is chiastic: A. (216-227) appearance of Perseus; B. (228-9a) action in which Perseus is involved; B. (229b-31a) action in which the Gorgons are involved; A. (231b-37) appearance of the Gorgons.

In the first five lines, the narrator introduces Perseus as part of the *opus ipsum*. This part of the shield is of a miraculous nature: Perseus is hovering just above the surface of the shield (217), "since he was nowhere attached to it" (ἐπεὶ οὐδαμῇ ἐστήρικτο, 218). Anticipating disbelief on the part of his narratee, the narrator adds that Perseus is "a great wonder to perceive" (θαῦμα μέγα φράσσασθαι, 218); and that Hephaestus had really made him that way (219). Both phrases serve to heighten the credibility of the narrator.

After having described Perseus' position on the shield – i.e. after having introduced the subtheme of this section as a whole – the narrator describes Perseus' well-known attributes (220-7). The narrator moves spatially through the picture, moving from...
bottom to top. The following items are listed: winged sandals (220), a black-bound sword (221) hanging from a bronze baldric (222a), a pouch for the Gorgon’s head (223-4) including tassels (225-6), and the helmet of Hades, which makes its wearer invisible (226-7). Apart from ἐποτᾶτο in 222, all verbs in 220-7 designate states, and all but one are accompanied by spatial indicators. Only δ’ ὥς τε νόημ’ ἐποτᾶτο, “he flew like a thought” (222), does not refer to an attribute. The comparison most likely illustrates the speed with which Perseus is flying around just above the surface of the shield.

Apart from Perseus’ traditional attributes, the items that are listed in 220-7 may remind the narratee of the traditional story of Perseus cutting off the head of the Gorgon, i.e. Medusa. This part of the story is not depicted. The image depicts one moment only, Perseus fleeing from the two remaining Gorgons, who pursue him as a result of his killing their sister Medusa. Thus, the winged sandals make Perseus’ swift flight possible. In addition, their presence makes it likely that Perseus is “really” flying just above the surface of the shield. The narratee will probably regard the sword as the weapon with which the Gorgon’s head has been cut off. Similarly, the helmet “with the dread darkness of night” (νυκτὸς ζόφον αἰνὸν ἔχουσα, 227), which makes its bearer...

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137 Byre 1976: 81: “[n]owhere are vivid, visual details arranged in a spatial sequence more evident than in the description of Perseus and the Gorgons behind him, where the general movement is from bottom to top”.

138 The LfgrE translate κατῃωρεῦντο with “hingen schaukelnd herunter” on account of Perseus’ swift flight (s.v. αἰωρέομαι B); they translate ἀπῃωρεῦντο in 234 below similarly.

139 On this phrase, see Lamberton 1988: 142, who speaks of “a simile whose daring juxtaposition of the archaic immediacy of the mythic scene with an extreme psychologizing abstraction is stunning. The idea is by no means foreign to Homer – in fact a Homeric simile closely parallels it (Il. 15.80-83) – but its incorporation into this ekphrasis, or artifact-description, is nevertheless a beautiful and suggestive adaptation of traditional material”.

140 See Janko 1994: 237 (ad. Il. 15.80-3), who has a list of instances of the phrase ὥς τε νόημα.

141 So Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 62-3. “[m]ost of these [attributes] would probably serve as indexes for earlier moments of the story when Athena helped him get the necessary equipment for the adventure. It is noteworthy that these articles enable Perseus to approach unseen, to cut off the head, and to get away quickly, all of which would serve as nuclei in narrating verbally the entire episode”.

142 As Russo [1950] 1965: 133 notes, the two other Gorgons were immortal.

143 Chiarini 2012: 113-4. For the significance of μελάνδετον, see the discussion in the LfgrE s.v. μελάνδετον B.
invisible, can be regarded by the narratees as the reason why Perseus was able to approach the Gorgon unseen.

The description of the κίβισις, the proper name for the pouch containing the head of the Gorgon, the so-called Gorgoneion, is striking. The narrator first notes that the head of the Gorgon was covering Perseus' whole back (223-24a), which might give the impression that the Gorgoneion is visible. Next he states that the pouch was running around it, a wonder to see (θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι, 224). Scholars have argued that this line means that the pouch is covering the Gorgon's head, thereby indicating that only the pouch, and not the head, is depicted on the shield. However, the phrase θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι indicates that the narrator again describes something that is hardly credible, which could well be a visible Gorgoneion, with the pouch literally running around it, rather than covering it. The Gorgoneion was known for her horrible gaze, and is frequently used as an apotropaic device.

After having described his attributes, the narrator returns to Perseus himself with αὐτὸς δέ in 228. Focus is now on the action in which Perseus is engaged: Perseus, looking as though he were hastening and shuddering, is "exerting himself" (ἐτιταίνετο, 229). At first sight, it might seem that the narrator focuses on the res ipsae, and that Perseus is depicted as a static figure. However, the narrator had already stated that Perseus was not attached to the shield (217-8), flying like a thought (222). Furthermore, while the Gorgons are running around (231-2), the shield repeatedly resounds with a large noise, sharp and piercingly (ἰάχεσκε σάκος μεγάλῳ ὀρυγματίῳ / ὀξέα καὶ λιγέως, 232-3). Thus, the action of these lines is not merely imagined, as part of the res ipsae, but

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145 For example, the Gorgon is depicted on Agamemnon’s shield (II. 11.36-7, τῇ δ’ ἐπὶ μὲν Γοργώ βλεπονταὶς ἐστεφάνωτο / δεινὸν δερκομένη…). For a depiction of Perseus with both bag and the head of Medusa visible (ca. 630 BC), see Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 72, figure 28.

146 Mazon translates "(...) fuyait à grandes enjambées – on croyait voir sa hâte et sa terreur".
really happening, and thus part of the *opus ipsum*.\textsuperscript{147} In this light, ἐοικώς in 228 does not compare art with reality, as the participle does elsewhere (see e.g. 206). Rather, the phrase is an interpretation of reality: Perseus’ flying around on the shield is interpreted as being executed with haste and fear. Yet the narrator does not know this for sure: for Perseus is only resembling someone who is hastening and shuddering – hence ἐοικώς.

That Perseus is hastening and afraid is a likely inference, in that he is pursued by the horrible and terrible Gorgons (229-31), probably two in number. They are eager to catch him (ἵεμεν μαπέειν, 231). This inference might indicate that the Gorgons are depicted while stretching out their hands to catch Perseus.\textsuperscript{148} After this brief reference to the action in which the Gorgons are engaged, the narrator gives a visual and auditory description of the shield. The iterative form ἰάχεσκε (232) suggests that the Gorgons keep running in circles around the shield; they thereby produce a very unpleasant noise: loud, sharp and piercing (232-3). The snakes on their girdles also produce a loud noise (μένει δ’ ἐχάρασσον ὀδόντας, 235), while looking fiercely (ἄγρια δερκομένω, 236).\textsuperscript{149} Lastly, the narrator returns to the Gorgons’ heads, on which great Fear is shaking (ἐδονεῖτο μέγας Φόβος).\textsuperscript{150}

The narrativity of this image is high. The figures on the shield are involved in one action: Perseus is fleeing the Gorgons, who are pursuing him. This one action is literally ongoing and will never stop. Event sequencing is absent. The action is part of a well-known story, which means that the narratees can infer what has gone before, and what will come after. In addition, Perseus’ attributes refer to earlier events. Such references

\textsuperscript{147} See Becker 1992: 16, note 32 and Martin 2005: 160. Differently Schmale 2004: 113 (who speaks of “die Beschreibung der perfekten Illusion des fliegenden Perseus, die durch ein Paradoxon ausgedrückt wird”) and Chiarini 2012: 117 (following Hirschberger 2000: 61), who argues that the picture is one of stasis (“[s]e si tiene infatti presente che Perseus è immortalato in un’ immagine, il contrasto tra la mobilità estrema della fuga e il terrore agghiacciante dipinto sul suo volto, si risolve perfettamente nell’ eterno immobilismo dell’ azione fissata dall’ arte”).


\textsuperscript{149} The ambiguity of Φόβος is described by Paley 1883: 143, who writes that the narrator “(...) may mean simply that the heads were terrible; that terror seemed to move or range on their heads. But Φόβος may perhaps be personified, like Ἐρις on the dragon’s head (...).” Most scholars opt for the first interpretation (so e.g. Russo [1950] 1965: 137 and Chiarini 2012: 120, who consequently print φόβος). The *LfgrE* translate ἐδονεῖτο with “wogte” (“was undulating”), and note that it is a reference to hair consisting of snakes (s.v. δονέω B 2).
are implicit.\textsuperscript{151} As for the end of the story, the narrator gives no clue as to how it might finish. In fact, although in the myth Perseus ultimately escapes the Gorgons, on the shield he is forever caught in the same moment, and the pursuit will never end.\textsuperscript{152} In sum: event sequencing is absent, but the image does refer to earlier events.

The other two basic elements of narrative, world disruption and 'what-it's-like', are present. Being pursued by two horrible and terrible monsters is a disruptive event: the narrator emphasizes the effort that Perseus has to make (ἐτιταίνετο, 229) to stay ahead of the Gorgons. In 228 (σπεύδοντι καὶ ἐρρίγοντι ἐοικώς) the narrator draws attention to 'what-it's-like': Perseus is fleeing in haste and fear.\textsuperscript{153}

I now turn to the text, which has a prototypically descriptive organization. I further note that the opus ipsum receives much attention. Lines 216-20 are devoted to the opus ipsum; only 219 refers to an act of Hephaestus, and is thus a small analepsis. In the listing of Perseus' attributes (220-7), states abound and textual progression is spatial (220-7). The information related in these lines could all be part of the opus ipsum: apart from the explicit mention of the materials (χαλκέου, 222; ἀργυρέη, 225; χρύσειοι, 226), the other details also refer to the surface of the shield (visual: πτερόεντα, 220; μελάνδετον, 221; φαεινοί, 225; perhaps visual: δεινοῖ, 223; δεινή, 226).

In the second part (229-37), progression is spatial, too (ἐπί is used thrice, in 231, 233, and 236; note also ἐπὶ-μαρφέοντα and ἐπὶ-κυρτῶντε in 234). Again, all details may refer to the opus ipsum. There are fewer visual details in this section: the material with its colour is named once (χλωροῦ ἀδάμαντος, 231); emphasis lies on the horrible look of the Gorgons and the snakes (ἀπλητοί τε καὶ οὐ φαταί, 230; ἄγρια δερκομένω; δεινοῖσι, 236). The narrator focuses on the sound that the figures make (μεγάλῳ ὀρυμαγδῷ / ὀξέα καὶ λιγέως, 232-3; μένει δ’ ἐχάρασσον ὀδόντας , 235).

\textbf{n. Mortals at war (237b-70a)}

\[...οἱ δ’ ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν \quad \text{impf.}\]

\textsuperscript{151} Such implicit references are typically associated with visual narratives, in which a certain object functions as a reminder for those who know the story of previous or future events. In the case of non-mythical stories, references to earlier events must always be explicit: cf. e.g. the temporal adverb ἤδη in 172, or the use of (aorist and perfect) participles in 173-5.

\textsuperscript{152} The narrator does not make this point explicit; he does so only once, at the end of the shield ekphrasis (see 310-1 below).

\textsuperscript{153} The \textit{LfgrE} translate σπεύδοντι καὶ ἐρρίγοντι ἐοικώς (228) with "wie einer, der unter Schock steht und sich beehlt" (s.v. ῥιγέω B 11 a 3, "in schreckenerregender Sit.").
And they, above them, the men, were fighting, wearing warlike armour, some warding off destruction for the sake of their city and their parents, others eager to sack it. Many were lying [dead], and more being still engaged in conflict were fighting; and they, the women on well-built towers of bronze, were crying out sharply, and they were rending their cheeks, looking as though they were alive, works of the renowned Hephaestus. (245) The men who were elderly and whom
old age had seized were crowded together outside the gates, and they were holding up their hands to the blessed gods, fearing for their sons; and they, in turn, were engaged in battle. And behind them they, the dark Fates, while gnashing their white teeth, (250) terrible-faced and grim and blood-red and dreadful, were fighting for those who were falling; all were eager to drink black blood; and whomever they caught first, lying [there] or falling while freshly wounded, around him she was clenching her great claws, and his soul was going down to Hades, (255) to chilling Tartarus. And they, when they had satisfied their spirits with [his] human blood, him they would hurl backwards, and they were rushing again into the battle-din and mêlée, while going back (again). Clotho and Lachesis stood next to them; and she, Atropos, somewhat smaller, was [there], in no way a big goddess, but she (260) was superior to these others and the oldest one. All were causing bitter battle around one man; they were glaring terribly with their eyes at each other, angry, and on him they were equally laying their claws and fierce hands. And beside [them] Achlus was standing, gloomy and dread, (265) pallid, parched, covered in hunger, thick-kneed, and long claws were under her hands; and from her nostrils [streams of] mucus were streaming, and from her cheeks blood was dripping on the ground; and she, grinning dreadfully, was standing there, and much dust was lying on her shoulders, (270) wet with tears.

This image depicts men at war (ἆνδρες ἐμαρνάσθην, 238). Whereas all previous images were introduced with a stative verb plus ἐν δέ, here a new image is opened with an other spatial marker (οἳ δ’ ὑπὲρ αὐτέων, 237), followed directly by a verb that designates an ongoing action. The narrator thus focuses directly on the res ipsae. The image can be said to consist of two parts: 1. the fighting of mortals (237-48a); 2. the actions of various demonic figures (248b-70). This second part can be further subdivided into three parts, which form a triple crescendo: 1. the Keres (248b-57 and 261-3), 2. the Μοῖραι or Parcae (258-60), and 3. Ἀχλύς or Death Mist (264-70).

I first discuss the text. It largely has a descriptive textual organization, but 252b-7 and 261-3 stand out. Lines 261-3 contain three aorists and thus contain the diegetic

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154 In 229-30, the similar phrase ταὶ δὲ μετ’ αὐτὸν / Γοργόνες occurs, but there μετ’ αὐτὸν goes closely with the verb ἐρρώοντο (230). This means that the action described in the following lines (229b-37a) is part of the previous scene. In 237a, two separate images are spatially connected vis-à-vis each other; the ongoing actions in both images have nothing to do with each other. Although such phrases may seem absent from the Homeric shield ekphrasis, in one instance the Homeric narrator uses a specific spatial adverb, too, to introduce a new image (18.509, τὴν δ’ ἐτέραν πόλιν ὄρμι...). As for the meaning of οἳ δ’ ὑπὲρ αὐτέων, Russo [1950] 1965 argues that it means that this scene is found in the next concentric circle or band ("sc. nel circolo, nella zona supra di loro"); Chiarini 2012: 121 approves. I find the reference still rather vague; how must the narratee imagine a scene above another one on a shield that is round?
discourse mode; lines 252b-7 contain a number of elements associated with the diegetic discourse mode, and express iterative events. Both will be further discussed below. The various subthemes are connected spatially to each other: μετά in 248 separates subtheme one (men at war) from two (demonic figures); the subthemes of part two are separated by ἐκφέστασαν (258) and πάρ (...) εἴστήκει (264).

The following other prototypically descriptive elements are present. First, lines 258-60 and 264-70 contain genuine descriptions of the appearance of the personified spirits of war; verbs designating states abound. As for the passage as a whole, I note the following visual details: πολλοί, πλέονες (241), χαλκέων (243), κυάνεαι, λευκούς (249), line 250 as a whole, μέλαν (252), μεγάλους (254), ύφήσσων (…), μεγάλη (258-9), ἑνί (261), δεινά (262). Apart from χαλκέων, there are no unambiguous references to the opus ipsum. Lines 264-70 as a whole are a visual spectacle. The passage contains many other details.

Let us now turn to the image. In the first part (237-48a), an ongoing fight for a city is depicted. Whereas the city at war in the Homeric shield ekphrasis (18.509-40) consists of six different moments in time, here only one moment is depicted. The ongoing battle is fought between two different armies. They have contrary goals: one is defending the city (239-40a), the other wants to sack it (240b). Although this cannot be depicted, the inference by the narrator of the armies’ intentions is a likely one. Many men (of both armies, I presume) are already dead (πολλοὶ μὲν κέατο, 241), but “more, being still engaged in conflict (ἔτι δῆριν ἔχοντες), were fighting”. The adverb ἔτι indicates...
that, notwithstanding the great losses (πολλοί), the fight is still going on.\textsuperscript{159} The narrator thus makes clear that the battle has already been going on for a while, but that it is not yet finished.\textsuperscript{160}

After having focused on the fight – note the ring composition in ἐμαρνάσθην (238) and μάρναντο (242) – the narrator turns his attention to the bystanders, the women (242-4) and the elder people (245-8a). In the Homeric shield ekphrasis, the women (with their children) and old people are only guarding the wall (18.514-15), but the Pseudo-Hesiodic narrator focuses on the feelings of the bystanders. The women are shrieking sharply, and rending their cheeks (242-3), both of which are signs of grief. By comparing them to living women (ζωῇσιν ἴκελαι), the narrator indicates that he is describing a work of art (although it could be the case that the figures are really moving; cf. Perseus above); the reference to Hephaestus once again enhances the credibility of the narrator’s words (ἔργα κλυτοῦ Ἡφαίστοιο, 244).

The old men are gathered “outside the gates” (ἐκτοσθέν πυλέων, 246), which presumably indicates that the men are on the outside of the city walls.\textsuperscript{161} They are holding up their hands to the gods (246b-47a), a sign of prayer. The narrator infers the reason for this prayer: they are fearing for their sons (247b-48a). The narrator then turns to these sons: τοὶ δ’ αὖτε μάχην ἔχον, 248. This reference to the fighting closes off the first part of the image by ring composition.

\textsuperscript{159} “Ètî must be understood in reference to what has gone before (so Ravenna 1974: 26, “il rapporto è stabilito nei confronti del passato”; for this use, he compares Q.S. 5.109). For Ètî looking forward to a future state of affairs, see A.R. 1.732 and Mosch. Eur. 45. In line 176 below, Ètî modifies another adverb (μᾶλλον).

\textsuperscript{160} I therefore do not agree with Reinhardt 1961: 408, who argues that the fate of the city is sealed (“[w]enn im homerischen Bilde der Stadt im Kriege das Naheliegende gemieden, keine Eroberung, keine ‘halosis’ geschildert wird, so läßt sich der hesiodeische Dichter die Frauen, die laut heulend auf den Mauern sich die Wangen zerreißen, nicht entgehen; so wenig wie die Greise, die vor den Toren die Hände zu den Göttern erheben, zitternd um die Kinder. Das Schicksal der Stadt ist besiegt”, emphasis mine). It should be noted that in the two ekphraseis the women and elderly people are witnessing something different: in the Homeric city at war, they are guarding the walls; in Pseudo-Hesiod, they are watching the actual battle.

\textsuperscript{161} Russo [1950] 1965: 139 explains ἐκτοσθέν πυλέων as “ἐν τοῖς ἔξωπύλοις μέρεσιν”. According to Schwarz 1932: 58, note 89, the old men are positioned before the gates (“senes pro portis constitisse videntur ea mente, ut animos filiorum, qui oppidum defendunt, confirmarent atque a fuga eos prohiberent”).
The Κῆρες, the "Fates", are also fighting (δῆριν ἔχον, 251). They look particularly gruesome, as is the action in which they are engaged. The narrator describes their appearance in 249-50. As for λευκοὺς ἀραβεῦσαι ὀδόντας (249), this could refer to the res ipsae or to the opus ipsum. In the latter case, the Keres on the shield would really make sounds, as do the snakes in 164. The Keres are fighting περὶ πιπτόντων (251). I think that the narrator refers to a fight among the Keres themselves (cf. 261-3 below). Περὶ may have local sense ("around those who were falling"), but more likely means "for/about those who were falling". The narrator next refers to the intentions of the Keres: all are eager to drink black blood (251-2).

The following lines (252-7) are characterized by a number of elements associated with the diegetic discourse mode. The relative clause in 252-3 contains a distributive-iterative optative, combined with a temporal adverb (ὃν δὲ πρῶτον μεμάποιεν, "whomever they caught first", 252). In lines 255-6 we find a temporal clause with an anterior aorist (αἳ δὲ φρένας εὖτ' ἀρέσαντο / αἵματος ἀνδρομέου, "when they had satisfied their spirits with human blood"). Line 256 contains an iterative imperfect, ῥίπτασκον. Lastly, line 257 contains two adverbs which also indicate that the action is repeated (ἄψ, "back again"; αὖτις, "back (again)").

Lines 252b-7, then, express iterative events. A number of different, consecutive actions is repeated: 1. the Keres catch a victim (252-3); 2. one of them (βαλλ' in 254 is singular) kills him (254-5); 3. they throw the killed victim backwards (255-6); and 4. 463

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they rush back into battle (257). These iterative actions can be interpreted in a number of ways. First, one could argue that the image depicts four phases, the iterativity of which is inferred by the narrator. This would mean that the whole scene repeats itself. As such, these iterative actions relate to a single static image. Second, one could argue that the narrator has stopped describing the shield, in which case these lines contain details which are not represented. In that case, however, I would expect omnitemporal present tenses (cf. 151-3 above). Third, the narrator could also refer to real movements. Although this may seem improbable, we may compare the actions of Perseus and the Gorgons above in 228-37, as well as lines 261-3 below. Heracles’ shield has magical properties.

The next figures present in the image (258-60) are the Μοῖραι: Κλωθώ, Λάχεσις, and Ἄτροπος. Clotho and Lachesis are said to be standing next to the Keres (ἡ εἰρήσασαι, 258). The narrator then turns to Atropos: she is somewhat smaller (ὑφήσσων), and in no way a big goddess (258-9). Yet she is superior to the others and the oldest (258-9). It is unclear why Atropos is described as such. However, these lines βάλλ’ as equalling βάλλον. Mazon, for example, translates “elles l’enveloppaient, abatant sur lui leurs immenses ongles”; some earlier editors let the reading stand (van Lennep 1854: 33, “[s]ed (…) acquiescere satius in vulgata”; Paley 1883: 144 does not discuss βάλλ’). According to Russo, however, βάλλ’ cannot stand for βάλλον (ibid.).

166 Iterative actions that relate to a static image are found on the shield of Achilles, too (18.544-6 and 399-602).

167 So Byre (quoted in note 164 above).

168 It has also been argued that these could be regarded as Κῆρες (cf. Onians in note 162 above, and the LfgrE s.v. Κλωθώ). According to Chiarini 2012: 128, note 242, the Μοῖραι are different (“[l]e quali (…) risultano come entità distinte rispetto alle Keres”).

169 The LfgrE (s.v. ψήσσων) translate this hapax with “etwas geringer im Rang”, and take προφερής as “höher”. However, on account of οὗ τι πέλεν μεγάλη θεός (259), it seems preferable to translate ψήσσων as “smaller” (see for a list of scholars who do so Chiarini 2012: 130, note 247) and προφερής as “carried before, placed before, excelling” (LSJ s.v. προφερής A).

do suggest that Atropos is the most important of the three, from which the narratee could deduce she plays the most important role in killing warriors.171

Lines 261-3 present a number of difficulties. First of all, the text contains three aorists in close succession: ἔθεντο (261), δράκον (262), and ἰσώσαντο (263). These lines clearly contain the diegetic discourse mode.172 Second, it is not clear to whom πᾶσαι in 261 refers. There are three options. (1) At first sight, it seems likely that the three Moirae are meant. However, these are introduced in 258-60 as static figures (σφιν ἐφέστασαν, 258). It could, of course, be the case that they are now performing actions, but this solution is unnecessary. (2) It is more likely that πᾶσαι refers to the Keres, with lines 258-60 as a parenthesis.173 (3) Lastly, πᾶσαι could refer to the Keres and the Moirae together, but this is again unlikely on account of the reason mentioned under (1).

What are the Keres doing in 261-3? They are involved in three consecutive actions: 1) they start a battle for a single man (ἕνὶ φωτὶ μάχην δριμεῖαν ἔθεντο, 261);174 2) they throw each other terrible looks (262), and (3) they devour the man (263).175 Here, we clearly find three figures involved in different consecutive actions. It is thus difficult to imagine what the image on the shield looks like. The narrator has genuinely turned to narration, as we find aorists instead of imperfects. It seems as if the narrator no longer looks at what is happening through a static image (imperfects), but looks at what is happening as if it were part of reality itself (aorists).176 Alternatively, the aorists could refer to genuine movements of the figures on the shield.

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172 The aorists are one of the reasons why these lines have been regarded as interpolated. See e.g. Schwarz 1932: 62 (“atque accedit, quod in aoristis tribus ἔθεντο, δράκον, ἰσώσαντο gravissime offendimus, ut qui pessime descriptioni congruent”).
173 So van der Valk 1953: 276-7. He notes that “[i]t should be borne in mind that the Keres are the principal goddesses who are described in this passage. They are depicted in 249-257. The mentioning of the Parcae is a kind of parenthesis. In 261 the poet resumes the description of 249-257” (ibid.: 277, note 1). That πᾶσαι refers to the Keres was also stated by Paley 1883: 145 (“he reverts to the Κῆρες, contending like so many vultures for the possession of a corpse”).
174 For μάχην…ἔθεντο, see LfgrE s.v. τίθημι B 16 (“establish, effect, bring about, cause, make to happen”).
175 The LfgrE s.v. ἰσόομαι translate line 263 as “and on him they made their claws and hands equal”, which they take to mean as “they rivalled in devouring him”.
176 In the Homeric shield ekphrasis, the aorists refer to non-depicted events (see 3.3.3.3, 2b). Such an interpretation is impossible here.
The narratee may wonder how the actions of the Keres narrated in lines 261-3 relate to the actions narrated in lines 252b-7. Lines 261-3 could be regarded as an elaboration of what is expressed in 253b-4, ἀμφὶ μὲν αὐτῷ / βάλ' ὄνυχας μεγάλους. The narrator then zooms in on the most gruesome part of the behaviour of the Keres. This would mean that he revisits the same image, and focuses on one action that he finds particularly gruesome. Alternatively, lines 261-3 could also refer to a different image.

The climax of this image is the description of Ἀχλύς, Death-Mist, the most horrendous creature on the shield. Palm has called this passage a "sehr vollständige Personen-Ekphrase". Indeed, these lines are wholly devoted to the physical appearance of one figure only. This figure is a bystander (πὰρ δ’ Ἀχλὺς εἱστήκει), not engaged in any action. Most details are of a visual nature. The narrator seems to focus on the res ipsae. The details that occur can be explained by assigning to Achlus a proleptic function: her appearance refers to the mourning by the kinsmen that takes place after they have lost a beloved one on the battlefield.

The narrativity of the image is high. One moment of fighting is depicted, although the many dead bodies indicate that the battle has already been going on for a while. The presence of Ἀχλύς (264-70) may remind the narratee of what happens when the war has ended, and the kinsmen start mourning. In most lines, then, event sequencing is absent. Lines 252-7 and 261-3 do feature a sequence of events. It is unclear how they relate to the shield, and it is therefore difficult to decide whether this sequence of events is depicted in the image, or whether it is part of the text only.

In the Homeric city at war narrativity is mainly due to the six different moments in time, as well as the disruptive nature of the events: the siege does not go according to plan. On the shield of Heracles, the action itself does not deviate from a script: the fighting is a general mêlée. Nevertheless, the siege of a city is a disruptive event for

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177 Achlus has been called the personification of the horrors of war (so Thalmann 1984: 63; Russo [1950] 1965: 12-3 speaks of an allegorical figure).
178 Palm 1965-6: 125.
179 According to Martin 2005: 166, Achlus is the internal audience witnessing the actions of the Keres, but there are no indications in the text that she is actually watching or looking at what is going on. Pseudo-Longinus also discusses this passage, for which see ibid.: 135.
180 Fränkel [1969] 1975: 111: "[w]ith the next demonic figure, 'Darkness of Night,' it is no longer the battlefield which is in view but the home of the fallen. When the terrible news comes, the eyes of his kin are darkened with night, there is no desire for food, there is loud lamentation, tearing of cheeks until the blood runs, and rolling in the dust"; similarly the LfgrE s.v. Ἀχλύς B.
those who are involved. This is expressed by the presence of the many dead bodies, but above all by the reactions of the bystanders, the women and the elderly, to the fighting. The narrator, furthermore, adds what is at stake for those involved. The defenders are warding off destruction (λοιγόν, 240), and they do this for their own city and their own parents (ὑπὲρ σφετέρης πολίς σφετέρων τε τοκήων, 239).

Now, lines 239-40 could be an inference by the narrator, but the image itself also emphatically indicates that war is highly disruptive. It does so by focusing on 'what-it's-like'. This is, first of all, expressed by the actions of the women watching the fight (242-4), and the old men praying for their sons (245-8). The Keres and Moirai in the following lines (249-63) convey the horrors of war. Their actions make clear what it is like to be on the battlefield; Achlus (264-70) represents the feelings of the bereaved kinsmen. The image devotes more attention to 'what-it's-like' than to the actual fighting. In this respect, too, this passage differs sharply from the city at war in the Homeric shield ekphrasis (18.509-40), where the element of 'what-it's-like' is touched upon only in passing.

12. Mortals in peace time (270b-313)

impf.

impf.

impf.; plupf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.

impf.
Beside [her] [was] a well-towered city of men, and seven golden gates, fitted to the lintels, held it. And they, the men, were enjoying themselves with festive splendour and dances. For some were leading a bride to her husband on a well-wheeled wagon, and a loud wedding-song had arisen; (275) from afar the blaze from burning torches was spreading, in the hands of slaves; and they, resplendent in festive splendour, were walking in front, and choruses, while dancing, were following them. And they were sending forth their voices from their soft mouths, accompanied by shrill panpipes, and around them the echo was breaking. (280) And they were leading the lovely dance to the accompaniment of lyres. On the other side from there, young men were reveling, accompanied by a pipe, some of them dancing with dance and song; others, while laughing, each to the music of a flutist, were walking in front; festivities, dances, and festive splendour (285) filled the whole city. Others again, in front of the city, were rushing mounted on horse-back. And others, ploughers, were breaking up the divine earth, and they were clothed in girt-up tunics. And there was a deep corn-field: some were reaping with sickles the bending stalks, (290) which were weighed down with ears of corn, just as Demeter's grain; others were
tying [the corn] with hands and spreading [the sheaves] on the ground; others were harvesting the vines, holding sickles in their hands; others again were carrying white and black grape clusters from the gatherers to baskets, from big vine-rows (295) weighed down with leaves and silver tendrils. Others again were carrying [them] to baskets. Beside them was a vine-row made of gold, famous works of the exceedingly wise Hephaestus, [others again, dancing each one to the accompaniment of a pipe-player], trembling with leaves and silver vine-props, (300) weighed down with the grape-bunches; these had become black. Some were treading [grapes], others were drawing off [the most]. Other men were competing at boxing and wrestling. Others, huntsmen, were hunting swift-footed hares, and there was a brace of jagged-toothed dogs in front, eager to catch them, but they [the hares] eager to escape. (305) Next to them, horsemen were at hard toil, and around a prize they were engaged in conflict and effort. Standing on the well-plaited chariots, the charioteers were urging on the swift horses, slacking the reins; and they, the well-fastened chariots, were flying clattering, and on them the naves of the wheels were screeching loudly. (310) They were at ceaseless toil, and never for them was victory achieved, but they had a contest undecided. Before them was also set, within the course, a large tripod, of gold, famous works of the exceedingly wise Hephaestus.

The next image on the shield of Heracles depicts various activities in and outside a city. The text has a descriptive textual organization. Two aorists occur, which might seem out of place: μελάνθησαν (300) and ἐπηνύσθη (311). As I have argued above, μελάνθησαν is an anterior aorist and as such can be accounted for within the descriptive discourse mode. The aorist ἐπηνύσθη is combined with a negative (οὐδέ ποτέ σφιν / νίκη ἐπηνύσθη), and is used because a punctual event is negated.181

The following other prototypically descriptive features of the text are present. References to the opus ipsum are few: χρύσειαι (271), ἀργυρέῃς (295), χρύσεος (297), ἀργυρέῃσι (299), χρύσειος (313). The text contains many details, both visual and of a different kind.182


182 Visual: ἑπτά (272), αἰθομένων (275), ἀγλαΐῃ τεθαλυῖαι (276), γελόωντες (283), ἐπιστολάδην (287), βαθύ (288), δεξίης, χορωνιέσσα (289), βριθόμενα σταχύων (290), λευκοὺς καὶ μέλανας, μεγάλων (294), lines 295 and 299, βριθόμενος σταφυλῇσι (300), καρχαρόδοντε (303), and μέγας (312). Other: εὔπυργος (270), ὑπερθυρίοις ἀραρυῖαι (271), μέγας (278, sound), ἁπαλῶν (279), ἱμερόεντα (280), αἰθομένων (283), κατάκτων (284), διαν (287), κλυτά, περίφρονος (297), ὠκύποδας
The text proceeds mainly by enumeration, often signalled by the use of the anaphoric pronoun (sometimes combined with a noun). Spatial markers occur, too. The moving between the two main spaces – from the inside of the city (270-85) to the outside of it (285-313) – is marked by προπάροιθε (285); within these two spaces, the shift between scenes is also spatially marked. Lines 270-2 refer to the appearance of the city and are as such prototypically descriptive; εἶχον (271) designates a state. The same holds for lines 284-5, which close off the first part (270-85) by ring composition (πᾶσαν δὲ πόλιν διαλέι τε χοροί τε / ἄγλαζαι τ' εἶχον). Further, lines 296-300 are a description of a row of vines (ἐρυχός, 296). In these lines, only states occur (ἦν, 297; μελάνησαν, 300). They are also full of visual details and as such prototypically descriptive.

Let us now turn to the image. As stated above, it consists of two main parts: 1) activities within the city (272-85), and 2) activities outside of it (285-313). The narrator thus moves from the city to the countryside. Lines 272-3 (τοὶ δ’ ἄνδρες ἐν ἀγλαίαις τε χοροῖς τε / τέρψιν ἔχον) introduce the whole of the first part: the men are enjoying themselves with festivities and dances. This first part is divided into two scenes: a marriage procession (273-80), and on the other side of the city, a κῶμος (281-5).
The marriage procession (273-80) is part of the festivities; γάρ (273) indicates that these lines are an elaboration of what has been stated in 272-3. In contrast to the Homeric marriage scene (18.491-6), here only one marriage is being celebrated: a woman is led on a cart to her husband (273-4).\(^{188}\) She is the only individual to be singled out; the other figures are all in the plural. As in the Homeric marriage scene, the narrator indicates that a loud marriage song has arisen (πολὺς δ’ ὑμέναιος ὀρώρει, 274).\(^{189}\) This is a likely inference in this context.

In the next lines (275-80), the narrator deals with the festivities accompanying the wedding procession. He refers twice to a non-human subject: “the blaze from the burning torches was spreading” (ἀπ’ αἰθομένων δαίδων σέλας εἰλύφαζε, 275), and “the echo was breaking” (ἄγνυτο ἠχώ, 279). Whereas the spreading blaze could perhaps be depicted, a breaking echo cannot be depicted. It could be an inference by the narrator from the preceding lines, in which is stated that the choruses “were sending forth their voices from their soft mouths, accompanied by shrill panpipes” (278-9).\(^{190}\) Alternatively, the sound could be part of the opus ipsum (see e.g. 231-3 above). At any rate, by making the sound the subject of an action, the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator moves much further away from what can be depicted than the Homeric narrator does in 18.491-6. After the marriage procession follows a κῶμος (281-4); only plural subjects are found.\(^{191}\)

The second part of the image (285-311) consists of a number of activities taking place outside of the city. It is their location which connects them, as the activities are of a diverse nature (competitions and agricultural scenes): 1. men on horseback (285-6); 2. ploughers (286-8); 3. a deep corn-field; men are harvesting (288-91); 4. wine-making (292-301); reference to a row of vines in 296-300; 5. boxing and wrestling (301-2); 6. hare-hunting (302-4); 7. chariot race (305-11). In the Homeric shield ekphrasis, most activities

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\(^{188}\) On account of the iconographical tradition, Chiarini 2012: 135 supposes that the man is also present on the cart; she takes ἀνδρί (274) as standing metonymically for the man’s house. However, the text offers no evidence for this interpretation.

\(^{189}\) For the pluperfect ὀρώρει, see 3.3.3.3. 2a.

\(^{190}\) According to Byre 1976: 84, “[t]he mention of the song of the young men in 278 seems partially justified as an authorial comment on a representation by the detail ἐξ ἁπαλῶν στομάτων (279a), but περὶ δὲ σφισιν ἄγνυτο ἠχώ (279b) is not. Nor are the acoustic images in 274, 308-9, and 316”.

\(^{191}\) According to Paley 1883: 147, the κῶμος is part of the nuptial scene, too; according to Russo [1950] 1965: 148-9, however, ἐνθέν δ’ ἐσφέρετο ἡμέρα (281) signals a clear demarcation. Yet the fact that something is spatially removed from something else does not necessarily mean that it is therefore not connected qua subject matter.
(such as ploughing, or harvesting; see 18.541-9 and 550-60) are introduced separately with ἐν δὲ, and assigned a specific location. Here, the narrator focuses immediately on the activities of the figures. Only in 288 does he refer to the scenery, and then even summarily (ἀυτὰρ ἐγὼ βαθὺ λήιον). He also refers to a row of vines in 296-300, but only after the relevant activities have been introduced (292-6; two more activities are added in 301). Another difference is the length of the scenes: in the Homeric shield ekphrasis, most scenes are longer (e.g. ploughing: 9 lines; harvest: 11 lines; vineyard: 12 lines). The pseudo-Hesiodic shield, on the other hand, has more scenes. Both facts contribute to the impression that this part of the pseudo-Hesiodic shield is crowded and busy.

The men on horseback receive no elaboration (285-6), and it is unclear what they are doing here. Torelli draws attention to the aristocratic nature of this activity; he notes that other aristocratic activities occur in 301-11 below. Seeing that horses are mentioned, these lines could form some sort of ring with verses 305-11 below (ἢπος, 307). The ploughing (286-8) is briefly touched upon, too; the narrator also focuses on the clothing of the figures (ἐπιστολάδην δὲ χιτῶνας / ἐστάλατο, 287-88). The harvest consists of three activities: reaping (288-90), the tying of the corn into sheaves, and the spreading of the sheaves on the ground (291).
The wine making (292-301) is the longest scene (10 lines), although one line (298) cannot be explained as the text stands.\textsuperscript{197} The vines are harvested (292), after which the grape clusters are carried from the gatherers to baskets (293-5). Lines 294-5 are full of visual detail: the grape clusters are both white and black, the vine-rows are big (294) and weighed down with leaves and silver tendrils (295). In 296, the narrator repeats οἳ δ’ αὖτ’ ἐς ταλάρους ἐφόρευν from 293. This repetition could be explained by assuming that the narrator, after having described the many rows of vines as a whole in 294-5, wants to zoom in on a single row (296-300), which must be imagined as positioned next to those carrying the grapes to the baskets (παρὰ δὲ σφισιν ὄρχος, 296).\textsuperscript{198} The description of this single golden vine-row includes a reference to the maker of the shield, Hephaestus (297), which Russo attributes to the exceptional craftsmanship of the following verses (flickering leaves in 299; and black grape bunches in 300).\textsuperscript{199} Indeed, such references heighten the credibility of the description.\textsuperscript{200} The wine making ends in 301, with two brief references to the treading of the grapes and the drawing off of the most. In this line (οἳ γε μὲν ἐτράπεσον, τοὶ δ’ ἤρυον), the narrator only mentions the activities: no other details are added.

The last three scenes (301-13) consist of sportive and competitive activities, activities of the aristocracy.\textsuperscript{201} The first two activities, boxing and wrestling, are merely mentioned (οἳ δὲ μάχοντο / πύξ τε καὶ ἑλκηδόν, 302-3). Next follows the image of the hare-hunt (302-4). The animals receive some elaboration: the hares are swift-footed (ὡκύποδας λαγός, 302) and the dogs, two in number, have sharp teeth (καρχαρόδοντε, 303). The hunting itself is only described indirectly: the narrator indicates the motives of both dogs and hares (ἱέμενοι μαπέειν, οἳ δ’ ἱέμενοι ὑπαλύξαι, 304).

The last scene contains the most noble and prestigious sportive activity, a chariot race.\textsuperscript{202} The contest is framed by the prize that can be won: ἀμφὶ δ’ ἀέθλῳ (305) and μέγας τρίπος (312). The race is described in 306-9. First, the narrator describes the chariots, the charioteers (ἡνίοχοι, i.e. the ἱππῆες of 305) and their horses (306-8). The narrator returns to the chariots in 308-9: they are moving with great speed, while

\textsuperscript{197} The subject matter of this line, dancing, is not alien to what is going on: in the Homeric shield ekphrasis, the carrying of grapes is accompanied by a dance (18.569-72).
\textsuperscript{198} For a different explanation of this repetition, see Dubel 1997: 118-9.
\textsuperscript{199} Russo [1950] 1965: 152. Cf. the similar phrase in 313 below.
\textsuperscript{200} Cf. my remarks on 18.548-9 in 3.3.3.3.
\textsuperscript{201} Torelli 2006: 37; cf. also Chiarini 2012: 149.
\textsuperscript{202} Chiarini 2012: 151-2.
clattering (ἐπικροτέοντα πέτοντο); the naves of the wheels make a loud noise, too (ἐπὶ δὲ πλήμναι μέγ' ἀύτευν). The narrator thus emphasizes the loudness of the scene.

Lines 310-11 have attracted much attention: the narrator states no less than three times that the race never ends: 1. the charioteers were at ceaseless toil (οἳ μὲν ἄρ' ἄίδιον ἔχον πόνον, 310), 2. never for them was victory achieved (οὐδὲ ποτὲ σφιν / νίκη ἐπηνύσθη, 310-11), 3. but they had a contest undecided (ἀλλ' ἄκριτον εἶχον ἄεθλον, 311). Scholars usually interpret these lines as a narratorial comment on the stasis of pictorial art, as a deliberate breaking of its illusionary nature.203 One could also argue, in view of lines 216-37 above, and taking into account the magical nature of Heracles’ shield, that the chariots are really moving and making sound. One might imagine them as driving in circles on the round shield. Indeed, victory can never be achieved: they are, literally, for ever engaged in this circular movement, just as Perseus and the Gorgons are forever fleeing and pursuing.

After having mentioned the prize (a big tripod, of gold, 312-3), the narrator ends with another reference to Hephaestus (κλυτὰ ἔργα περίφρονος Ἡφαίστοιο, 313). This remark could well apply to the previous scene as a whole (305-11), rather than to the golden tripod only. If we interpret this phrase as a means to heightening the credibility of the narrator's words, κλυτὰ ἔργα περίφρονος Ἡφαίστοιο could be adduced as evidence for the idea that the chariots are really moving.204

The narrativity of the image is low. Event sequencing and world disruption are both absent. All activities follow a script: everything goes as it should go. For example, a boxing match, a hunt, or a chariot race are all subjects which easily lend themselves for the inclusion of world disruption, or for the creation of tension. Yet the image depicts the activities as they are normally and usually performed. The whole image is thus characterized by *generic narrativity.*205 There are only a few references to ‘what-it’s-like’: in lines 272-3 it is stated that the men were having pleasure in their feasting; the dance is lovely (ἱμερόεντα, 280), and the κωμασταί are laughing (γελόωντες, 283). Perhaps δῆριν ἔχον καὶ μόχθον in 306 indicates that the charioteers are having a hard time.

13. Ocean (314-6); concluding remarks and resumption of the narrative (317-20)

| ἀμφὶ δ’ ἱτυν Ὠκεανὸς πληθῶντι ἐοικώς, | impf. |

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203 See e.g. Bing 2012: 195 and Chiarini 2012: 154. Cf. my discussion of αὖτως (Il. 18.584) in 3.3.3.3. 6.
204 According to Russo [1950] 1965: 156, this phrase also reminds the narratee of the divine nature of Heracles’ shield as a whole.
205 See for this term 3.3.3.3. 2a.
Around the rim Ocean was flowing, looking as though it was in full flood; (315) it held together the whole richly-worked shield. Upon it high-flying swans were calling loudly, who, in large numbers, were swimming on the surface of the water; beside them fish were tumbling – a wonder to see even for deep-thundering Zeus, by whose will Hephaestus had made the shield, big and sturdy, (320) having fitted it together with his skilled hands. Zeus’ strong son wielded it forcefully, and he leapt onto his horse-chariot (...)

As in the case of Achilles’ shield (18.607–8), the Randstück of Heracles’ shield is formed by the Ocean, too. On Heracles’ shield, the Ocean receives further elaboration, which is absent from the shield of Achilles. I start with the text of 314–17 that refers to the image. It has a descriptive textual organization; progression is spatial (κατά 315; ἐπί, παρά, 317).

I note the following visual details: πλήθοντι ἐοικώς (314) and πᾶν δὲ συνεῖχε σάκος πολυδαίδαλον (315), both of which refer to the opus ipsum; πολλοί (316). Other details are ἀερσιπόται and μεγάλα (316, the latter detail refers to sound).

As for lines 318–21, θαῦμα ἰδεῖν καὶ Ζηνὶ βαρυκτύπῳ in 318 refers to the whole shield;206 with this phrase, the narrator ends the description of Heracles’ shield by ring composition (= θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι, 140). The relative clause in 318–20 (οὗ διὰ βουλάς…ἀρσάμενος παλάμῃσι) contains an anterior aorist (ποίησε, 319) and constitutes a small analepsis.207 The narratees already knew that the shield was made by Hephaestus (since line 219); the fact that this was done at the prompting of Zeus is new information.208 With τὸ μὲν Διὸς ἄλκιμος υἱὸς / πάλλεν ἐπικρατέως (320–1) the narrative resumes; τὸ refers to the shield that has just been described.


207 I translate βουλάς with “will” (see for this meaning LSJ s.v. βουλή A); the LfgrE translate with “Ratschluß” (s.v. βουλή B 1 d).

The image of lines 314-7 is low in narrativity, as all three basic elements of narrative are absent. The res ipsae are described in 315-7. The narrator focuses on sound in 316: the swans are calling loudly (μεγάλ’ ἤπυον).209 Beside the swans, the fish are “tumbling” (ἐκλονέοντο).210 Alternatively, one could translate ἐκλονέοντο with “were driven in panic”, in which case the picture becomes more violent.211 As such, these lines are similar to lines 212-3 above, where a similar ambiguity is present.

4.4 Shield of Heracles: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Conclusion

The ekphrasis in the Shield (139-320) concerns a finished object. Thus, the ekphrasis lacks the narrative backbone of the Homeric shield ekphrasis (18.478-608), which means that the ekphrasis in the Shield constitutes a pause. Notwithstanding this difference, the textual organization of both ekphraseis is largely descriptive. In both ekphraseis, some passages with a narrative textual organization are found, too. In the Homeric ekphrasis, passages with a narrative textual organization can be harmonized with static images. In the pseudo-Hesiodic ekphrasis, it is unclear whether these passages (252b-7 and 261-3) can refer to static images. It could be the case that reference is made to actions which are really happening on the shield. One could say that the narrator exploits the fact that he is constructing a shield out of words, which allows him to create a magical shield.

The text has a number of other prototypically descriptive features. On the whole, the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator refers more often to the opus ipsum than the Homeric narrator does in the shield of Achilles, and incorporates more visual details. The pseudo-Hesiodic narrator seems to devote more explicit attention to the appearance of the figures (e.g. 144-8; 161-7; the portraits of Ares and Athena in 191-200; Perseus in 220-7;

209 The reference to swans is not gratuitous; see Fränkel [1969] 1975: 111 (the swans are Apollo’s birds, the god in whose service Heracles is undertaking the battle) and Bing 2012: 196-7. Schadewaldt [1944] 1965: 362 discusses the presence of the swans and the fish under the poet’s preference for the Freude am Kleine, and notes that “[m]an sieht, der Hellenismus ist in der Dichtung nicht eine zeitlich klar abgesetzte Erscheinung”.

210 The LSJ s.v. κλονέω II 2; LfgRE s.v. κλονέω B 1 (“tummeln sich”; they compare line 210, but see note 126 above); Evelyn-White translates “and near them were shoals of fish”; Mazon with “s’agitaient”.

211 See Thalmann 1984: 204, note 82: “[e]ditors and translators tend to play down the force of ἐκλονέοντο in line 317, but this verb’s normal meaning in epic is ‘drive (or, in the passive, ‘be driven’) in panic’; Most translates with “were being driven in rout”.

...
the Gorgons in 233-7; Achlus in 264-70; in such passages verbs designating states abound). On the other hand, in the image of the mortals in peace time (270b-313) the narrator devotes very little attention to the scenery or appearance of the figures in comparison with similar images on the shield of Achilles. Throughout the ekphrasis, the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator more often draws attention to the fact that he is looking at a shield; we find phrases such as ὡς εἰ, “as if” and εἰκὼς or ἴκελος, “looking as”.

The images on the shield of Heracles have various degrees of narrativity. Most images have a low degree of narrativity. The apotropaic images (144-67) hardly have any narrative elements at all. The images of the mortals in peace time (270b-313), as well as the harbour with the fisherman (207-15), possess generic narrativity; in this respect they are similar to most images on the shield of Achilles. There is also a number of images with mythical subjects that are low in narrativity: the portraits of Ares and Athena (191-200) and the chorus of immortals and Apollo (201-6).212

Four images have a high degree of narrativity. Whereas on the shield of Achilles images with a high degree of narrativity feature event sequencing (city at war; attack on the herd of cattle), on the shield of Heracles most images do not sequence events. They are, nevertheless, similar in that they all feature world disruption: (1) The battle between the wild boars and lions (168-77) depicts a pregnant moment, from which the narrator infers what has gone before, and what will happen next. This inference is marked explicitly by the use of adverbs (ἤδη γάρ, 172; ἔτι μᾶλλον, 176). (2) The battle of the Lapiths and Centaurs (178-90) depicts two events that are happening simultaneously. (3) The image of Perseus fleeing the Gorgons (216-37a) is of a mythical nature, and thus illustrative.213 The figures are really moving, since the shield makes a large noise (231-3). Hence, the image is not static. On account of its mythical nature, the narratee can infer what has gone before and what will happen next; adverbs are therefore not necessary. (4) The image of the mortals at war (237b-70a) not only features world disruption, but also pays attention to ‘what-it’s-like’. The main subject of the image is not the actual fighting, but rather its horrible and gruesome effects and consequences. This effect is also created by describing figures which are merely bystanders, such as the Moirae (258-60) and Achlus (264-70).

212 We see, then, that a mythological subject does not automatically lead to a narrative image (as seems to be implied by Chiarini 2012: 165).

213 For this term, see section 1.4.3.
4.5 Coda: Visualizing the Shield of Heracles  
Most scholars are agreed that the shield of Achilles is difficult to visualize. It perhaps comes as a surprise that a different opinion exists regarding the visualization of the shield of Heracles. I quote Friedländer:


The basic idea is that the narrator of the Shield is very much aware that he is describing an object, whereas the Homeric narrator would often forget this. As I already showed in section 4.2, this idea is shared by a number of scholars. It is based on the following observations: the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator avoids or refers but rarely to non-

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214 See section 3.5.  
215 Friedländer 1912: 10, emphasis in the original. The idea that the narrator of the Shield follows, in some parts at least, a real shield is old-fashioned (see Fittschen 1973: 18-9); but according to Torelli 2006: 32 (following Russo [1950] 1965: 23-4), “l’autore dello ‘Scudo’ ha senz’altro presente uno scudo reale, dalla cui decorazione, per intuibile ragioni di verosimiglianza, ha sentito il bisogno di partire”.  
216 See e.g. the scholars quoted in note 23 above; further Byre 1976: 77 (“[m]ost of the details in the ekphrasis, and the order of their arrangement, seem to be determined by the nature of a concrete object. Much more than Homer, the poet of the Scutum gives the impression of following a spatial order in his addition of details and creates an image of the physical appearance of the object. The shield, we are told in 141, was round. Since the first scene is placed on the middle of the shield’s surface (144), the last at the shield’s rim (314), a progression from center outwards is clearly implied. (...) The scenes, moreover, are described as representations rather than narrated as real events, the addition of detail following a spatial rather than temporal order”), Schmale 2004: 113, and Chiarini 2012: 94.
representable elements such as movement and thought; the simplification of the image, but also its enrichment with details fitting for an image; a clearer spatial arrangement of the various parts; and the emphasis on the artificial nature of the object with phrases such as “looking as” and the like.

As I have argued in section 3.5, the “problems” with the visualization of the Homeric shield are to a certain extent exaggerated: the Homeric narrator, too, makes it clear that he is referring to images on an object. At the same time, any problems that do exist regarding the visualization of the pseudo-Hesiodic shield are downplayed. I have the feeling that elements which are regarded as problematic in the shield of Achilles are regarded as unproblematic in the shield of Heracles. For example, the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator also often refers to movements, thoughts and sounds. Yet in the case of the shield of Heracles, these references are no problem. For example, Friedländer writes that “Handlungen und Gefühle werden selten weiter ausgezeichnet, als in der Natur des Dargestellten liegt”.

It is true that the Homeric narrator refers much less to the opus ipsum. Yet it does not automatically follow that because the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator refers more often to the opus ipsum, this means that his description is therefore “more realistic”, or that Heracles’ shield is therefore easier to visualize; it only means that he more often refers to the fact that he is describing an object. As for the clearer spatial arrangement, it is indeed the case that the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator uses more spatial markers. For example, the ekphrasis starts in the middle (ἐν μέσσῳ δέ, 144) and ends at the rim (ἀμφὶ δ’ ἴτυν, 314); some images are located vis-à-vis each other, too (e.g. the two main scenes: οἳ δ᾿ ὑπὲρ αὐτέων in 237; παρὰ δ᾿ εὐπυργος πάλις ἄνθρων in 270).

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217 Cf. Schmale quoted in 4.2 above.
218 That is, the pseudo-Hesiodic narrator also focuses on the res ipsae. Schmale’s criticism of Becker 1992 (for which see note 28 above) is therefore unjustified. Cf. also Stansbury-O’Donnell 1999: 62, who states regarding the image of Perseus and the Gorgons that “[d]espite this change to a mythological subject, the poem follows the same basic viewing process in the earlier shield of Achilles”.
219 Similarly Schmale 2004: 113, who writes that “Psychische Vorgänge sind an äußeren Gesten erkennbar gemacht”; she refers e.g. to the women on the wall in 242-4.
220 Within these two main images, spatial markers are also used, although not consequently (see the overview in 4.3.2). Herein however, the pseudo-Hesiodic shield does not differ from the Homeric shield.
Enumeration, however, is still the main ordering principle (ἐν: 154, 161, 168, 178, 191, 197, 201, 207-8, 216), and the spatial indicators are somewhat vague: what does it mean for one image to be situated above another (ὑπέρ, 237) on a shield that is round, and that therefore has no inherent bottom or top, no left or right? What does it mean for one image to be positioned next to another (παρά, 270), if the narratees know nothing about the way the images are arranged on the shield – perhaps in friezes, which in turn are divided into concentric circles? Even the idea that the narrator progresses from the centre outwards is an assumption based on the fact that he starts in the middle and ends at the rim. Thus, many basic facts about the arrangement of the images on the shield are unknown.

I want to draw attention to a number of elements that make the shield of Heracles unrealistic, and therefore more difficult to visualize. First of all, the shield is magical: it emits light and produces sound (the snakes in 164-6), and some of its figures are really moving (e.g. Perseus and the Gorgons in 229-33). This could imply that the figures in some of the other images (e.g. the Lapiths and Centaurs in 168-90, the Keres in 252-7 and 261-3, the chariots in 305-11) are also moving. In my view, an image with moving figures is more difficult to visualize than an image with static figures. How much space on the shield, for example, is allotted to the pursuit of Perseus and the Gorgons? In the case of the Keres in lines 252-7, one may wonder about the duration of their iterative actions, i.e. how long it takes before they move on to a new victim. Another problem regarding the visualization of Heracles’ shield is posed by the very short scenes in the image of the mortals in peace time (270b-310). In some lines (301-3), the narrator offers no visual details at all, but only enumerates the ongoing actions. In most other images of the mortals in peace time, the scenery receives little attention, and the spatial arrangement of the figures within the images is kept vague.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, the shield of Heracles can be visualized by the narratee, who would have used his knowledge of (contemporary) visual art to do so.221 In this respect, it does not differ from the shield of Achilles. Heracles’ shield is magical,

and therefore has a number of unrealistic features that are absent from Achilles’ shield. Some of its images are static, but others are moving; all static images on the shield of Heracles are monophase; some have a mythical subject matter. In comparison with Achilles’ shield, its surface is more crowded. In sum, Heracles’ shield is huge, fantastic, overcrowded, horrendous, noisy, ugly, flashy – a shield fitting for a hero like Heracles.\footnote{Cf. the reconstructions in Studniczka 1896: 75, 83; Myres 1941: 22, and plate II; Fittschen 1973: 18-9; and Chiarini 2012: 161.}
5. The Goatherd's Cup (Theoc. *Id. 1.27-60*)

5.1 Introduction
The next ekphrasis of this study is that of the goatherd's cup in Theocritus' first *Idyll.* In this poem, a shepherd by name of Thyrsis and an unnamed goatherd meet and start exchanging compliments. Thyrsis asks the goatherd to play the σῦριγξ. The goatherd declines, but asks Thyrsis to sing his famous song about Daphnis, offering him a goat and a cup in return. The decoration of the cup is described in detail by the goatherd (27-60). Thyrsis agrees and sings his song about Daphnis (64-145). When the song is finished, the goatherd compliments Thyrsis and hands him the cup.

The first *Idyll* differs in one important respect from the other poems of this study, in that it consists of speeches only. It thus belongs to the so-called 'mimetic' poems of Theocritus. I regard the first *Idyll* as a narrative poem with a suppressed primary narrator and suppressed primary narratees. This makes Thyrsis and the goatherd secondary narrators and at the same time, since they talk to each other, secondary narratees. Of the five ekphraseis of this study, the goatherd's cup is the only one not in the mouth of the primary narrator, but of a secondary one. I elaborate on this observation below.

This chapter focuses on the ekphrasis of the goatherd's cup, and aims to establish which prototypically narrative and/or descriptive elements are present (section 5.3). I am not the first to address this question; section 5.2 therefore contains a brief overview of scholarship that deals with the descriptivity and narrativity of the ekphrasis. After the conclusion (section 5.4), I briefly touch upon the visualization of the cup in section 5.5.

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1 The ekphraseis of this study are investigated in chronological order. This presents some difficulties when it comes to Theocritus and Apollonius Rhodius. I follow Köhnken [2001] 2008 in placing Theocritus before Apollonius Rhodius.
5.2 The Goatherd’s Cup: Description, Narration, or Both? A Brief State of the Art

As in the other ekphraseis of this study, the goatherd in the first *Idyll* focuses largely on the *res ipsae*.\(^4\) As a result, the ekphrasis contains a number of elements which are, strictly speaking, alien to a work of visual art (e.g. thoughts, emotions, movement). In this respect, the ekphrasis does not differ from the shield ekphraseis in *Iliad* 18 or the *Shield*. There is a difference, however, in the way these elements have been interpreted. In the case of Theocritus’ first *Idyll*, scholars take it for granted that the goatherd describes static images. As a result, the descriptive elements in the ekphrasis have received little to no attention;\(^5\) it is those elements that are regarded as narrative to which most attention has been devoted.

Because scholars consider the images on the cup to be static, they regard most narrative elements as inferences by the goatherd from what is depicted on the cup. Zanker, for example, writes regarding the first scene (32-8) that “motion is implied” and that “[t]he moment when the proceedings are captured also leaves room for a denouement”.\(^6\) Regarding the second scene (39-44), he notes that “the moment at which the artist has captured the old man (...) is anticipatory to the culminating act of the net-cast. The artist and, through him, the Goatherd thus invite the audiences to do some work and supply the climactic moment in their imagination. As in the wooing scene [32-8], narrative can be, and is meant to be, extracted from the visual clues”. Regarding the third and last scene (45-54), Zanker speaks of “(...) the narrative that can be (...) reconstructed from the moment of representation which anticipates the inevitable outcome”.\(^7\) Thus, the snapshot images on the cup allow for the

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\(^4\) See e.g. Gallavotti 1966: 421: “la descrizione del disegno istoriato sul nappo non è statica e ferma, ma raccontata e interpretata, cioè animata come una scena viva, seconda uno spirito di osservazione che è naturale in sé, e secondo un’ esigenza artistica già fissata nella tradizione poetica dal primitivo modello omerico dello scudo di Achille” (emphasis mine).

\(^5\) This could be due to the fact that most scholars regard ekphrasis as description (see section 1.3.2), which makes any descriptive element self-evident.

\(^6\) With “motion is implied”, Zanker refers to the temporal adverbs in 36-7 (ἀλλ’ ὅκα μὲν ... / ἀλλ’ ὅκα δ’ αὖ...).

\(^7\) Zanker 2004: 12-4. He concludes that “the cup description (...) demonstrates a fascination with presenting a moment in a narrative, which can in turn be supplemented to include events before and after the moment depicted. Here the audience’s or viewer’s imagination is shown at work in the interpretative commentary offered by the describer, who is made to see to it that the person for whom he is describing the art object becomes integrally involved not only in the object but also in the process of its interpretation” (ibid. 15-6).
reconstruction of parts of a larger narrative. Some of this work is done by the goatherd; the narratees – both the secondary and the primary – must follow his lead and further supplement the goatherd's words.

Whereas Zanker emphasizes the narrative potential of the cup, to be fulfilled by the goatherd or narratees, Payne stresses the fact that it is the goatherd who is creating this narrative. Regarding the first scene, he notes that "[t]he goatherd is making a story out of a picture; he introduces time into the visual representation and constructs a 'back story' to explain what he has seen: the men are hollow-eyed 'from love,' and have been so 'for a long time.' Finally, his description also hints at the likely outcome of the scene: 'they labor in vain.'" Payne draws attention to the fact that the goatherd supplies more than is depicted on the cup. In the case of the first scene, he finds this excess puzzling, since the narratee cannot compare the goatherd's interpretative response to the cup with the cup itself. In the other two scenes, such a conflict between "visual representation and narration" is absent.

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8 For the idea that the scenes on the cup are snapshots, see e.g. Palm 1965-6: 144 ("Zustandbilder"), Ott 1969: 135 ("Die Becherszenen sind zwar Wiedergabe plastischen Bildwerks, aber dennoch nicht statuarisch, sondern Momentbilder aus Handlungsabläufen", emphasis mine), and Schmale 2004: 122 ("[ä]hnlich wie in der apollonischen Beschreibung [A.R. 1,730-68] handelt es sich meist um Momentaufnahmen ohne große narrative Ausschweifungen. (...) Die Beschreibungen reflektieren hier also auch, was die (bildende) Kunst zu leisten vermag, und zeigen ihr narratives Potential (...)", emphasis mine).

9 Payne 2007: 32. Similarly Klooster 2012: 112: "[t]he dynamization of the description turns static images into little narratives: the men are contending, the woman apparently looks to both sides alternately. A psychological interpretation is provided by the goatherd: the men are in love; the woman does not care for them. Thus a narrative is created, whose details remain obscure, though its outcome for the men is revealed: they labour in vain" (emphasis in the original).

10 Following Hunter 1999: 63.


12 Payne 2007: 34, 36 (ad lines 39-44: "[h]ere, there is no conflict between visual representation and narration (...)"); ad lines 45-54: "(...) his imagination seems to harmonize with the visual information; it does not create the puzzles of the first scene". Klooster 2012: 113 notes regarding the second scene that "[a]lthough the depiction is again more or less dynamic (the net is about to be cast), there is no real narrative: it is a 'snapshot' of a man working" (emphasis in the original); she states regarding the third scene that "[i]t once more contains elements of narration: one fox ravages the vines; the other preys on the boy's lunch, its intentions are even described".
Petrain has addressed the narrativity of all the scenes taken together. He argues that the three scenes on the goatherd's cup, which would represent the three stages of human life—maturity (32-8), old age (39-44), and childhood (45-54)—form a fabula when taken together. The story, however, does not follow the temporal order of the fabula, since the first element of the fabula (childhood) comes last in the story.

In the next section, the narrativity of the images will be discussed in detail. As in the other chapters, I will make a distinction between the text that represents the image, and the image itself. However, in the case of a secondary narrator, a distinction between text and image presents a number of problems, which first need to be addressed (section 5.3.3). After having discussed the images separately, I will address the question whether one can speak of a fabula in connection with the goatherd's cup.

5.3.1 The Goatherd's Cup: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Text and Translation

This is a view that is widely held; see the references in Petrain 2006: 257, note 25.

Petrain 2006: 257.

Text and translation based on Gow [1950] 1952a: 6-9; the translation has been adapted, for which I have made use of Hunter 1999: 74-86, Verity and Hunter 2002: 1-3, and Payne 2007: 28-40. In line 30, I read κεκονισμένος instead of κεκονιμένος (see Gutzwiller 1986: 253, note 1). For the tense analysis, only main clauses are taken into consideration.
(...), come, let us sit under the elm, opposite [the statue of] Priapus and the spring, where [is] that shepherd's seat and the oaks. And if you will sing as once you sang in the match with Libyan Chromis, I will give you a goat that has borne twins for milking three times, which, though having two kids, produces two pails of milk in addition, and [I will give you] a deep cup, sealed with sweet wax, two-handled, newly fashioned, still smelling of the knife. High towards its lip curls ivy, ivy intertwined with helichryse; along it [the helichryse] winds the ivy-tendril, rejoicing in its golden fruit. (32) And within [the frame of the plants] is wrought a woman, some ornamental work of the gods, curiously wrought with a cloak and a headband. And beside her two men, with fine long hair, alternately, one from this side, the other from that side, are contending with words; these things are not touching her mind; but at one time she looks at this
[τῆνον] man, smiling, at another time again she turns her mind to the other; and they, for a long time hollow-eyed from love, are labouring in vain. (39) Near them is wrought an old fisherman and a rock, jagged, on which he is eagerly hauling a big net for a catch, the old man, looking like a man who is working hard. You would say that he is fishing with all the strength of his limbs, so have his sinews swollen all over his neck, even though he is grey-haired; his strength is worthy of youth. (45) And a little way off from the sea-worn old man a vineyard is beautifully laden with dark clusters, which some little boy is guarding, sitting on a dry-stone wall; and on either side of him [are] two foxes; one is roaming among the vine rows, plundering the [grapes] ripe for eating; the other, fashioning every scheme against the wallet, is thinking to herself that she will not let the boy alone until [she has raided his breakfast-bread]. But he is weaving a pretty trap for locusts with asphodel stalks, joining [the asphodel] to rush; and he has no concern at all for his wallet or the plants so much as he is rejoicing in his weaving. (55) Everywhere around the cup is spread the pliant acanthus, a marvel of the goatherd's world; it would amaze your heart as a wonder. For it I gave to a ferryman from Kalydna a goat as a price and a great cheese of white milk; and never at all has it touched my lips, but it is still unstained. With it I would very gladly please you, if you, my friend, will sing me that delightful song.

5.3.2 The Goatherd's Cup: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Overview of Tenses
In this section, I will establish which discourse modes are found in this passage (21-61); as usual, the lines surrounding the ekphrasis are also taken into account. Because the first Idyll is a mimetic poem, the present tense is the main tense used in the poem. In the lines which refer to the images on the cup, the tense most used is the present, too. Presents as well as perfects occur, which can both be appropriately used for the representation of images on cup. The present tense is mainly used for the rendering of the res ipsae in the text, as it characterizes an action as ongoing; the perfect tense designates a state. As such, the presents and perfects equal the imperfects and pluperfects used in the ekphraseis of Homer and pseudo-Hesiod.

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46 Predecessors of ekphraseis in the present tense are found in tragedy. See e.g. E. Ion 184-218 (the ekphrasis of the pedimental sculptures of Apollo's temple in Delphi by the chorus). In connection with this temple ekphrasis, Gutzwiller 1991: 90 speaks of the mimetic-dramatic tradition of ekphrasis. Ekphraseis of this tradition are characterised by the presence of dialogue, as well as the inclusion of reactions to the work of art by the characters. She contrasts this tradition with the epic-narrative tradition, which she does not define but which is represented by the shields of Achilles and Heracles. The cup would evoke both traditions: Theocritus' first Idyll is a dialogue, but its scenes find their models in the Homeric and Pseudo-Hesiodic shields.

6 For the value of the imperfect in ekphrasis see section 3.3.3.1.
In lines 21-61, three discourse modes are found: the descriptive discourse mode (lines 29-35; 39-41; 43-55), the diegetic discourse mode (36-8), and the discursive discourse mode (21-8; 42; 56-61). As in the ekphraseis of Homer and pseudo-Hesiod, the bulk of the ekphrasis consists of the descriptive discourse mode (lines 29-35; 39-41; 43-55). In these lines, only present and perfect tenses occur. Textual progression is mainly spatial. For example, the main parts of the ekphrasis are all connected spatially (ποτὶ μὲν, 29; ἑντοσθὲν δὲ, 32; τοῖς δὲ μετὰ, 39; τυτθὸν δ’ ὅσσον ἄπωθεν, 45; παντὶ δ’ ἄμφι δέπας, 55). Within the images, progression is spatial, too. The diegetic discourse mode (36-8) is also found in connection with the images; it is characterised by temporal adverbs (ἄλλα ήκα μὲν... / ἄλλακα δ’ αὐ, 36-7; δηθά, 38).

The discursive discourse mode occurs when a narrator explicitly addresses his narratee. Either the primary narrator addresses the primary narratee, or a secondary narrator (a character) addresses a secondary narratee (also a character). Here, the latter is the case: the goatherd addresses Thyrsis. Since the ekphrasis is part of a dialogue, there is no pause. In fact, by having a character speak of an object a narrator avoids a so-called descriptive pause. The words of the characters are, after all, part of the fabula.

As in the case of the other discourse modes, the discursive discourse mode is characterised by a number of linguistic features. We find pronouns referring to the second person (τοι, 25; του, 56, 60, 61) and second-person verbs (φαίης κεν, 42; ξε...ἀτύξαι, 56). In the discursive discourse mode, all tenses and moods may occur. We find an adhortative subjunctive (ἑσδώμεθα, 21), a future tense (δωσῶ, 25), and two indicative aorists (ἔδωκα, 57; θίγεν, 59); second-person optatives are found in 42 (φαίης κεν) and 56 (κέ...ἀτύξαι), a first person optative in 60 (κά...ἀρεσαίμαν). All three optatives are

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*See for the descriptive and diegetic discourse modes section 2.2.2. I will deal with the discursive discourse mode below.

*See Allan 2009: 181-5 and 2013: 384-8. It should be noted that “[a]lthough the discursive mode is a common ingredient of narratives, it is clearly non-narrative in character. Likewise, the linguistic features of the discursive mode diverge strongly from the modes discussed so far [the diegetic modes and the descriptive mode]” (Allan 2009: 183).

*The discursive discourse mode is also found in the ekphrasis of Jason’s cloak (A.R. 1.725-6 and 765-7). There, however, the primary narrator addresses the primary narratee. See further section 6.2.2.

*See note 64 in section 2.4.1.

*These aorists are not part of a sequence of events, but relate individual facts from the past. On the aorist in the discursive discourse mode, see Allan 2013: 386.
potential. That the discursive discourse mode occurs is no coincidence: the goatherd’s words have a rhetorical goal, namely to persuade Thyrsis to sing his song.23

I want to stress that a discourse mode analysis only uncovers the textual structure or organization of a passage. This structure is mainly determined by the occurring tenses. I reiterate here that descriptive details may also be found in modes other than the descriptive discourse mode.24 For example, lines 27-8, though belonging to the discursive discourse mode on account of the main verb δωσῶ in 25, consist wholly of descriptive details.

5.3.3 The Goatherd’s Cup: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Preliminaries

In the previous chapters, two ekphraseis that occur in epic poems were investigated. These ekphraseis concerned shields, objects appropriate in a martial context. Both shields are huge, and made for a hero of superhuman qualities. They contain a multitude of images that depict a multitude of figures. The bucolic world of Theocritus’ first *Idyll* – a Hellenistic poem – is different. The cup, not a very big object, contains but three images that depict at most three figures.25 It is not made of expensive metals, but of wood, and is owned by a goatherd. Though a rustic object, its elaborate decorations are such that are found on “the finest works of Greek art”.26

The cup is described by a secondary narrator, the goatherd, an inhabitant of the bucolic world. At the same time, scholars agree that the ekphrasis also communicates Theocritus’ literary programme.27 The question thus arises whether the goatherd describes the cup as a goatherd would, or whether he functions as a mouthpiece of the suppressed primary narrator (‘Theocritus’).28 Gutzwiller has suggested that “[t]he

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23 Allan 2013: 385: “[t]he most typical communicative function of the discursive mode is to influence the addressee in some way or another, for example (...) to persuade the addressee to perform a certain action”.
24 See section 2.4.2.
25 See Friedländer 1912: 14-5, who speaks of a twofold reduction (“zwiefache Reduktion”, ibid.: 14). He further notes the focus on the (non-narrative) ornaments on the cup (lines 29-31 and 56), as well as the greater attention paid to details (“Individualisierung”).
28 Payne 2007: 38 approaches the question of voice “as a deliberate, even ostentatious, fiction”. He notes that “[a] goatherd describes an object that belongs to his rustic world, and yet what Theocritus has placed in his mouth is epic ekphrasis that has its place beside Apollonius’
inseparability of goatherd as character from goatherd as narrator and so projection of the poet’s voice suggests that herdsman and poet speak, if not on the same level of meaning, at least with a compatibility of sentiment”. In connection with other secondary-narrator ekphrasis, such as Herodas’ fourth Mimiamb or Theocritus’ fifteenth Idyll, scholars have asked similar questions. The communis opinio seems to be that in those ekphrases, the characters represent, to a certain extent, the voice of the poet, too.

On the other hand, a secondary narrator is not the primary narrator. Klooster has suggested that by relegating the ekphrasis to a character, the ekphrasis focuses the attention of the narratee on the creative activity of the author, but most ekphrases work this way. According to Miles, the goatherd’s view of the cup is as one might expect from an inhabitant of the bucolic world. He also suggests that the primary

description of Jason’s cloak, and Moschus’ description of Europa’s basket”. He argues that “[w]hile Idyl I is in the dramatic mode, the ekphrasis can hardly be construed as a reality effect; it rather strongly marks the poem as fiction. (...) The ekphrasis, then, is a manifest fiction (...)” (ibid.).

29 Gutzwiller 1991: 93, who continues: “[t]here are among Theocritus’ pastoral Idylls (...) more purely mimetic poems that do give a sense of ironic distance between poet and character. But here, in this poem that seems the most typical of all pastorals, the fountainhead of the genre, the viewpoint of the herdsman, if not identical to Theocritus’, is still to be appreciated as in some sense analogous to it”; see further ibid.: 90-4.

30 Squire 2010: 601, note 33 (where see for bibliography); “[f]or Theocritus and Herodas, as numerous scholars have now shown, the ‘accuracy’ of the art so self-referentially described (...) reflects the acumen of the poet describing it”. In connection with Herodas’ fourth Mimiamb, Zanker 2006: 358 argues for the position that “the women’s responses may be presented ironically for comic effect, but that their opinions, which are expressed at times in the technical terminology of Hellenistic art-criticism, are ultimately serious and typical of the period, and have bearing on Herodas’ view of his own poems”; similarly Zanker 2009: 128-9.

31 Klooster 2012: 111, the ekphrasis ‘fulfils the same function as the ekphrases [of Achilles’ shield or Jason’s cloak]: it maintains many implicit thematic relationships with elements both of the poem per se and the bucolic Idylls as a collection. In the last instance this ekphrasis focuses the narratees’ attention on the creative activity of the author: he creates a character who describes an artefact which symbolizes the poetic creation he is himself a part of (the bucolic corpus)”.

32 Miles 1977: 147: “[w]e are not actually shown the bowl. We are presented a version of it as seen through the eyes of an inhabitant of the bucolic world. This is important, because in retrospect we can see that the goatherd has imposed his own interpretation on the bowl (...)”.
narrator does not agree with the goatherd’s interpretation of the scenes. Indeed, the primary narratee may start to wonder whether the goatherd’s interpretation of – or imaginative response to – the images of the cup is “right”, and whether a different response could be possible. Thus, by putting the ekphrasis in the mouth of a secondary narrator, the primary narrator foregrounds the interpretative nature of ekphrasis.

Following this line of thought, it would seem possible to separate text and image. The goatherd’s words – the text – represent a cup with images depicted on it. Through the goatherd’s words, the narratee can “see” the cup as it is, i.e. as the primary narrator wants it to be. At the same time, however, the text allows the narratee to disagree with the goatherd’s vision: because the narratee has access to the cup as it is, he can distinguish between the “actual” cup and the goatherd’s “interpretation” of the cup. Payne, on the other hand, argues regarding the first scene (32-8) that the narratee does not have access to the cup itself. In the case of the second and third scenes, the

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33 See for a brief summary of Miles’ argument Gutzwiller 1991: 93, and Payne 2007: 39, note 43 (“the bowl depicts grim scenes of Hesiodic realism that are systematically misread by the goatherd”).
34 As Burton 1995: 95 notes regarding Herodas’ fourth Mimiamb and Theocritus’ fifteenth Idyll, “(...) the exploration of subjectivity through ekphrasis, by representing fictive characters describing works of art, is an important contribution of Hellenistic literature to later Greek and Latin writers”; cf. also Goldhill 1994: 216.
35 According to Payne 2007: 29, “(...) the ekphrasis is more a response to a work of art than a description of one”. Payne seems to suggest that other ekphraseis are descriptions of works of art. Yet as I have argued in section 1.3.1, any ekphrasis is necessarily interpretation.
36 This is especially clear from Miles 1977: 148, who writes regarding the second scene: “[e]ven within the few lines which describe the old fisherman, we can see the goatherd’s own perspective asserting itself and modifying the stark realism of the scene on the bowl” (emphasis mine).
37 Payne 2007: 33: “[t]he goatherd’s description of the scene supplies “more ‘than is actually there’ (the thoughts and emotions of the figures for example).” [Hunter 1999: 63] Yet this excess is puzzling; it is an interpretative response that we cannot compare with the object itself” (emphasis mine; see also section 5.2 above). Payne further complicates the picture when he states that “[a]fter the first scene there are two bowls in the audience’s mind: the one the goatherd describes, and the one we picture on the basis of his description. The two are bound to be different, since the second cannot incorporate all the information included in the first” (ibid.: 35).
narratee does seem to have “direct” access to the images. In the case of the second and third scene, Payne seems to allow for a distinction between text and image, in that he can “check”, so to speak, the goatherd’s words against the image itself.

5.3.4 The Goatherd’s Cup: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Lines surrounding the Images (25-31 and 55-60)

As we have seen in section 5.3.2, the passage as a whole (21-61) shows clear signs of narrator-narratee interaction. This interaction is located at the beginning (21-8), in the middle (42), and at the end (56b; 60b-61). This comes as no surprise: the primary goal of the goatherd is to persuade Thyrsis to sing his famous song. The passage is characterised by two references to singing, which form a ring (αἱ δὲ κ’ ἀείσῃς, 23; αἱ κά...ἀείσῃς, 61). Both are conditional clauses, which accompany a promise of the goatherd (δωσῶ, 25; ἀρεσαίμαν, 57). The goatherd promises (τοι δωσῶ, 25) two gifts to Thyrsis: a goat to milk, and a cup (αἵγα τε .../ καὶ βαθὺ κισσύβιον, 25-7). These objects go closely together (τε...καί): the κισσύβιον, which is characterised as deep (βαθύ) and thus capacious, is clearly meant to be used to collect the milk from the goat. At the end of the ekphrasis, the goatherd refers to the cup alone when he says that he would gladly please Thyrsis with it (τῷ κά τυ μάλα πρόφρων ἀρεσαίμαν), if he sings his delightful song (60-1). The ekphrasis, then, has a persuasive function within the conversation between the two characters. This means that the ekphrasis functions on the level of the fabula, too.

38 See note 12 above.

39 The very first thing Thyrsis says after he has finished his song is καὶ τὺ δίδου τὰν αἶγα τὸ τε σκύφος, ὥς κεν ἀμέλξας / σπείσω ταῖς Μοίσαις, “and do you give me the goat and the bowl, so that I may milk her and make libation to the muses” (143-4); after the goatherd has handed Thyrsis the cup (ὑνίδε τοι τὸ δέπας..., “see, here is the cup”, 149) he exhorts Thyrsis to milk the goat (...τὸ δ’ ἀμελγε νν..., “and do you milk her”, 151). Manakidou 1993: 52-4 emphasises the bucolic nature of the cup; Lawall 1967: 27, on the other hand, regards the cup as an alien intrusion into the simple world of the rustics.

40 We may contrast the shield of Achilles, the decorations of which do not play any role in the narrative: the narrator describes the images for the primary narratee alone. Heracles’ shield is a different case, as the apotropaic sections do have a function, namely to scare Heracles’ enemies.
The lines referring to the cup itself (27-60) can be divided into three parts. The middle part can itself further be divided into three, which gives the ekphrasis the following structure:

1. Introduction (27-31): its smell, shape, and newness (27-8); plant motifs (29-31)
2. Three images (31-54):
   1. Woman and two men (32-8)
   2. Old fisherman (39-44)
   3. Boy and two foxes (45-54)
3. Closing (55-60): acanthus motif (56); its wondrous nature (57), value and history (58-60)

Line 27 introduces the main theme of this ekphrasis: the κισσύβιον. The precise nature of the κισσύβιον is debated. The text of the first Idyll offers the following clues: (shape) it is deep (βαθύ, 27), and it has two handles (ἀμφῶες, 27); (material) it is made of wood (as is clear from κεκλυσμένον ἅδει κηρῷ, 27; and ἔτι γλυφάνοι ποτόσδον, 28); (decoration) it is decorated with ivy (29-31), acanthus (55), and three images (32-54); (use) it must be large enough to contain two pails of goat milk (δύο πέλλας, 26), and it can be used to make a libation to the muses (σπείσω ταῖς Μοίσαις, 144). The κισσύβιον is called σκύφος (143) by Thyrsis, and δέπας by the goatherd (55 and 149). This

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41 Lawall 1967: 28 draws attention to the symmetrical arrangement of the images: "[t]he lone fisherman forms a central panel beside which the other two scenes are set. The two outer scenes correspond, so that the pattern is A B A. Correspondence of the outer scenes is achieved by their parallel internal arrangement. In the first scene two men stand opposite sides of a woman and woo her; the pattern is again A B A. In the third scene the boy is seated in the center, and two foxes flank him: A B A pattern again". It should be noted, however, that this structure concerns the text: a cup, being round, does not have a central section.

42 LfgRE s.v. κισσύβιον B. Hoekstra 1990: 198 (ad Od. 14.78) notes that "[o]n its size and shape already the Alexandrian poets and scholars disagreed (…); he quotes a scholion who defines it as "a rustic drinking vessel" (Άγροικῷ ἐκπώματι).

43 According to Gow [1950] 1952b: 6, a κισσύβιον is a shallow bowl, which he infers from the fact that the scenes are said to be on the inside (ἐντοσθεν, 32). He thus concludes that βαθύ ‘must be understood in a comparative sense – it is deep as a saucer may be said to be deep, not as a tumbler’. Both interpretations are unlikely, for which see Dale 1952: 132.
information tallies with that of the *Odyssey*. Thus, one can assume that the word κισσύβιον refers to a more or less similar object in the *Odyssey* and the first *Idyll*.

According to Hunter, a κισσύβιον is a rustic wooden bowl or pail, which can also be used as a drinking vessel (the κισσύβιον is called a δέπας in 55 and 149).\(^4\) Drinking is thus not its primary use: if it is large enough to contain two pails of goat milk (δύο πέλλας, 26), it could be that drinking from it is somewhat difficult.\(^6\) Its primary use is as a container of milk, from which a libation to the muses can be made. In addition, it could well be the case that the goatherd tries to increase the desirability of the κισσύβιον by calling it a δέπας, thereby slightly modifying “reality”.\(^6\) It should be noted that the cup is not produced until line 149, which means that Thyrsis cannot check the goatherd’s words against the object itself.\(^4\) If anything, the κισσύβιον is more like a pail than a cup.

After having introduced the κισσύβιον, the goatherd focuses on the *opus ipsum* in lines 28-8, thereby giving Thyrsis an overview of the cup’s basic qualities. Two things stand out in comparison with other ekphraseis. First, the attention that goes out to smell is striking: the cup is sealed with sweet wax (κεκλυσμένον ἁδέι κηρῷ, 27), and still

\(^4\) Hunter 1999: 78. Cf. however ibid.: 84 (ad δέπας in 55), where it is noted regarding the three names for the κισσύβιον that “such use of synonyms is a common feature of Hellenistic poetry, which always sought variety rather than sameness”. According to Frangeskou 1996: 28, “Theocritus gives three different, and, to a certain extent, contradictory names to the cup (...), simply because, I think, he seems not to be particularly interested in any one type, but in the cup in general”.

\(^6\) Dale 1952: 130 emphasizes its size, too: “[t]he κισσύβιον in Homer, in fact, appears to be a sizeable vessel, no mere cup in the ordinary sense, even though it could be used for deep drinking. Size and rusticity are its certain characteristics, and it is at least not impossible that to Homer it meant something that could be used as a small milking-pail. (N.B. Thyrsis milks the goat into his κισσύβιον 143)”. Bruns 1970: 44 notes that the Homeric κισσύβιον is large, and its shape is unknown.

\(^{46}\) Cf. Hoekstra 1990: 198: “[t]hat the same vessel is called a δέπας in l. 149 of Theocritus’ poem is not surprising, because there its proud owner is speaking”.

\(^{47}\) In fact, not at any point during the ekphrasis does the goatherd invite Thyrsis to look at the κισσύβιον, as Payne 2007: 29 has noted. He further states that this is always the case in other mimetic-dramatic (in Gutzwiller’s terminology, for which see note 16) ekphraseis. Payne refers to E. Ion 190 (δεῦ…ἀθρησκεύον, “look…see”; cf. 201, 206, 209); Theoc. *Id.* 15.78 (τὰ ποικίλα πράττον ἀθρησκεύον, “look first at the tapestries”), and Herodas 4.23 (τὸ ὀφθηκε…, “do you not see...”; similarly 4.27 and 35; see also Zanker 2009: 125-6).
smelling of the knife (ἐτι γλυφάναιο ποτόσδουν, 28). Focus on smell is appropriate for a newly-made wooden object, and perhaps the cup – somewhere hidden in the goatherd’s mantle? – can be smelled by Thyrsis. Second, the smell of the cup (ἐτι γλυφάναιο ποτόσδουν) is connected to its newness: the cup is νεοτευχές (28), “newly fashioned”. This adjective might allude to the fact that this is the first ekphrasis of a decorated κισσύβιον in the literary tradition. At the same time, the qualification is reminiscent of the shield of Achilles, which is the most famous “newly fashioned” object in the history of ekphrasis.

Even though the goatherd emphasises the newness of the cup, it does have a history. In this sense, it is similar to the other objects in the ekphraseis of this study. The history of these objects, all made by gods, is usually related at the beginning of the ekphrasis. The goatherd, however, only relates its history after he has described the images on the cup: “for it I gave to a ferryman from Kalydna a goat as a price and a great cheese of white milk; and never at all has it touched my lips, but it is still unstained” (57-60).

The previous owner of the cup was not a mythical hero or heroine, but a ferryman from Calydna, an island or small set of islands off the northwest coast of Cos. This piece of information clarifies and at the same time mystifies the origin of the cup, since it triggers a number of questions. Who was this ferryman? Did he make the κισσύβιον himself? If not, where did he get the cup from? Might it be a passenger who gave him the cup, and could this passenger be a god? And why did the ferryman sell the object

48 Another ekphrasis in which smell plays a role is that of Hypsipyle’s robe, which is offered as a gift to Apsyrtus in A.R. 4.430-1: τοῦ δὲ καὶ ἀμβροσίη ὀδμὴ πέλεν ἐξέτι κείνου, / ἐξ οὗ ἄναξ αὐτὸς Νυσήιος ἐγκατελεκτο, “and it had an ambrosial fragrance, lasting from the time when the Nysean king [Dionysus] himself lay down on it”.
49 For a metapoetical interpretation of these lines, see Cairns 1984: 95-9 and Hunter 1999: 78. Because this line of interpretation is not relevant for my argument, I will not further refer to it.
50 See e.g. Halperin 1983: 173: “nowhere in the foregoing literary tradition is an ivy-vessel described as decorated in any way”.
51 Sc. 139-40 (history of Heracles’ shield in battle); A.R. 1.722-4 (Athena handing over the cloak to Jason); Mosch. Eur. 39-42 (pedigree of previous owners of Europa’s basket).
52 Hunter 1999: 85. The manuscripts read Καλυδωνίῳ (of Calydon), a reading which is also possible (see Dover 1971: 82).
53 So Hunter 1999: 85, who compares Aphrodite and the ferryman Phaon.
to the goatherd? Thus, it could well be that the cup has a distinguished ancestry, too. At any rate, the genealogy of this cup is in statu nascendi: If Thyrsis — a celebrated singer — acquires it, he might hand it to whomever he likes, etc.

The reason why the goatherd has saved the history of the cup for last can be explained from his rhetorical goal. It is to his advantage to create an image of the cup which is as positive as possible, so as to turn it into an object worth having. First, the goatherd promises Thyrsis a cup that is brand new (27-8). Next, he describes the beautiful carvings (29-56), thereby making the κισσύβιον even more worthy of possession. Only in lines 57-8 does the goatherd touch upon its history. The goatherd then hastens to add, emphatically (οὐδέ τί πω, 59), that it has never touched his lips (59-60). I assume that the price that the goatherd has paid, a goat and a great cheese (58-9), is not a small sum in the bucolic world.

In lines 29-31 (the ivy decoration) and 55-6 (the acanthus and the cup’s wondrous nature) the goatherd further focuses on the opus ipsum. In both shield ekphrases, the Randstücke are described after the images, but the goatherd starts with the rim. Lines 29-31 are difficult to interpret. In the text and translation in section 5.3.1 above, I have followed Gutzwiller: “high towards its lip curls ivy, ivy intertwined with helichryse; along it [the helichryse] winds the ivy-tendril, rejoicing in its golden fruit”. Line 55 refers to the cup as a whole: “everywhere around the cup is spread the pliant acanthus”. As in other ekphrases, the goatherd remains vague on the precise shape of the cup.

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54 The κισσύβιον is also different from other objects in ekphrases in that it was not donated to the new owner, but bought.
55 If the ekphrasis of the cup is a metaphor for bucolic poetry, the fact that the genealogy of the cup is in statu nascendi can be understood as a reference to the bucolic genre, the tradition of which is in in statu nascendi, too.
56 So Palm 1965-6: 144: “[d]ies [die Geschichte des Gegenstandes] ist ein traditioneller Zug (...), aber so geschmeidig eingefügt, dass man ihn kaum bemerkt”.
57 Bühler 1960: 104, note 1. He further remarks that the description of the decoration (i.e. the non-narrative images) is divided between the beginning (29-31) and the end (55) of the ekphrasis.
58 See for an extensive overview of the problems involved Manakidou 1993: 54-8.
60 Scholars tend to locate the acanthus at the base of the cup, but this is mere conjecture. See e.g. Dover 1971: 79: “(...) the description [is] methodical: rim, main surface, base”; and Hunter 1999: 79: “[b]oth sides of the bowl (as defined by the two handles) carry a pattern of interwoven ivy and helichryse rising from the base and running around the top to form a frame closed at the
The cup, then, is decorated all over (παντὰ δ’ ἄμφι δέπας περιπέτταται, 55) with acanthus; furthermore, it contains a pattern of interwoven ivy and helichryse, which is rising up towards the lip.

Though the goatherd remains vague on the precise location of the decorative patterns on the cup, he is specific about the kind of plants that make up this decoration. This is, of course, fitting for an inhabitant of the bucolic world. It might seem strange that the goatherd refers to the saffron colour of the fruit of the ivy (καρπῷ…κροκόεντι, 31), considering the fact that the cup is made of wood. It could be that these flowers are painted on the cup. Alternatively, the goatherd might refer to the res ipsae, i.e. to what these wooden flowers represent. Further, Gutzwiller has noted that the goatherd describes the ivy (κισσός) as if it is alive and has animate feeling: “[t]he verb μαρύεται is a middle, indicating that the ivy ‘twines itself,’ and εἱλεῖται also connotes self-propelled motion. ἀγαλλομένα is generally used of persons or animals and suggests that the ivy feels joy in its saffron-coloured fruit”. By personifying the ivy, the goatherd endows the decoration with a certain amount of narrativity: the ivy acquires agency and feeling.

base by an acanthus pattern (55). On the cup, as in the text, the two flower patterns frame the asymmetrical carves scenes (29-31, 55)”.

For the emphasis on κισσός, cf. Hunter 1999: 78: “[t]he most common etymology [of the κισσύβιον] was ‘a bowl made of ivy-wood (κισσός)’ (...), but such bowl are technically improbable (...). T[hocritus] might wish to etymologise as ‘decorated with an ivy pattern’”. Gutzwiller 1991: 89 draws attention to the alliteration of the κ’s, which might reinforce either interpretation.

Dubel 2010: 18 argues that “il est en réalité clair que Théocrite décrit ici en philologue plutôt qu’en botaniste: l’hélix est à son tour prétexte à une dérivation étymologique avec l’expression ἑλιξ εἰλεῖται (...); or l’insistance sur la racine attire l’attention sur le terme ἑλιχρύσῳ du vers précédent, qui semble ainsi se dé doubler en ἡλιξ et κροκόεντι (...)” (emphasis mine).

Cf. Gutzwiller 1991: 91, who states regarding πολιῷ, “grey-haired”, in line 44 that “[w]e may dismiss the problem by assuming that the cup is painted. But if we are unwilling to make this unsupported assumption, there remain two ways of accounting for the suggestion of color. It may be attributed to the poet’s imitation of the Homeric manner, or to the imagination of an overly naive character who sees carved figures as living beings”. See further my remarks below.

Gutzwiller 1986: 254. According to Dubel 2010: 18, ἀγαλλομένα is reminiscent of ἡγαλμα; the participle thus emphasises that the decorations are works of art.

ἀγαλλομένα is echoed in Mosch. Eur. 59: ἐρινὸς ἀγαλλόμενος πετρόγυν πολυανθέι χροῇ. There, the decorative motif is part of the story of Io (see section 7.2.5.3).
In line 56, the goatherd addresses Thyris: the cup is "a marvel of the goatherd's world; it would amaze your heart as a wonder". The words are reminiscent of Sc. 318 (δαύμα ἵευν καὶ Ζηνὶ βαρυκτύπῳ, "a wonder to see even for deep-thundering Zeus"), which likewise provides closure. The mention of δαύμα is standard in ekphrasis, but here the phrase also has a rhetorical function, in that it emphasizes the cup's singular nature, and thus turns it into an object worthy of Thyris' possession. At the same time, the line also contains a humorous note: the cup is a marvel, but one of the bucolic world (αἰπολικὸν βάημα).

Before moving on to the images on the cup (32-54), the text of lines 25-31 and 55-61 merits discussion. I start with lines 25-31. Lines 27-31 are full of descriptive details, some of which are of a visual nature (βαθύ, 27; ἀμθῶες, 28; lines 29-31 as a whole); other details appeal to smell (ἁδέι, 27; ποτόσδον, 28). In lines 25-28, the text proceeds by enumeration: the two gifts are connected with τε... / καί (25, 27); lines 27-8, which enumerate the cup's various qualities, are characterised by asyndeton. In lines 29-31, textual progression is spatial (ποτί... ὑψόθι, 29; κατά, 30). As for lines 55-61, only line 55 relates to the appearance of the cup: we find three spatial markers (παντᾷ δ’ ἀμφὶ δέπας περι...), and one visual detail, ὑγρός. As for the occurrence of details in lines 56-61, line 57 contains a geographical indication (Καλυδνίῳ); the cheese (τυρόεντα) is large and white (μέγαν λευκοῖο γάλακτος, 58); the cup is still unstained (ἄχραντον, 60); and the song is delightful (ἐφίμερον, 61) – just as the foregoing ekphrasis.

5.3.5 The Goatherd’s Cup: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Images (32-54)

Three images have been carved on the cup. They are all introduced with a spatial indicator: ἔντοσθεν δέ ("and within", 32), τοῖς δὲ μετά ("by these...", 39), and τυτθὸν δ’...
ὅσσον ἄπωθεν (“and a little way from”, 45). “Ἐντοσθέν has sparked a debate.”70 Two major interpretations are found. 1. Some scholars locate the images inside (ἐντοσθέν) of the cup.71 However, the cup is deep, which would seem to exclude any decoration on the inside.72 2. The carvings are on the outside of the cup, which means that ἐντοσθέν means either a) within the area bounded by the rim, i.e. below the rim; or b) between the rim-pattern and base-pattern, i.e. within the frame of the plants.73 In my view, interpretation 2a is the most obvious, in that the goatherd has not yet introduced the acanthus. In addition, the acanthus is not explicitly located at the base of the cup by the goatherd.74

Unlike the Homeric narrator, the goatherd does not introduce the images together before he describes them individually.75 At the beginning of the Homeric shield ekphrasis, the narrator places the various images on the object as a single subtheme: αὐτάρ ἐν αὐτῷ / ποίει δαίδαλα πολλά ἰδυίῃσι πραπίδεσσιν, “on it he made many richly ornamented things through his skilful craftsmanship” (Ili. 18.481-2). The figurative images, the δαίδαλα πολλά, are first announced in toto, as a separate subtheme, after which the narrator proceeds image by image.76 The shield of Heracles lacks such an introductory phrase. In addition, the images in the Homeric shield ekphrasis are placed, individually, on the shield: ἐν μέν (18.483), ἐν δέ (490), etc.77 The shield of Heracles proceeds partly by this procedure (lines 144-237a), but switches halfway (237b) to another procedure in which the images are spatially located vis-à-vis each other.

70 For an overview of the debate see Manakidou 1993: 64-6.
72 See e.g. Petrain 2006: 258.
73 Both interpretations in Dover 1971: 79. Hunter 1999: 79 opts for the latter interpretation (2b), which is now the consensus (see Petrain 2006: 258).
75 Although a phrase like δαίδαλα πολλά is lacking, the narrator has nevertheless kept the δαίδαλα by relegating it to the appositional phrase τι θεῶν δαίδαλμα (32).
76 A similar procedure is found in the two other Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study: A.R. 1.728-9 (ἐν δ’ ἄρ’ ἑκάστῳ / τέρματι δαίδαλα πολλά διακριδὸν εὖ ἐπέπαστο); Mosch. Eur. 43 (ἐν τῷ δαίδαλα πολλά τετεύχατο μαρμαίροντα).
The goatherd focuses directly on the first image. He also locates the images spatially vis-à-vis each other. The goatherd thus describes the images on the cup from close by; the minutiae of the res ipsae are more important than the opus ipsum. This way of proceeding can be contrasted with that of the Homeric narrator, who after having described an image steps back, as it were, and looks again at the shield as a whole. The goatherd’s way of proceeding is partly reminiscent of the pseudo-Hesiodic shield ekphrasis. Such reminiscences might indicate that the ekphrasis has at least as much to do with the pseudo-Hesiodic shield ekphrasis as the Homeric shield ekphrasis.

All three images are introduced by a spatial indicator, followed by a perfect tense. The first figures of images one and two are introduced by τέτυκται (32 and 39). Such perfects of verbs of making draw attention to the opus ipsum, as they indicate that the figures are part of a made object. The perfect βέβριθεν (46) in the third image does not refer to the opus ipsum. It does refer to a state. Thus, by employing the perfect tense in the introductory lines of each image, the goatherd makes clear that he is describing static images.

1. One Woman and Two Men (32-8)
The first image depicts three figures, one woman surrounded by two men. I first discuss the text. As we have seen in section 5.3.2, both the descriptive discourse mode (32-5) and the diegetic discourse mode (36-8) are found. The text in lines 32-5 has a prototypically descriptive textual organization; three spatial markers occur (ἔντοσθεν δέ, 32; πὰρ δέ, 33; ἄλλοθεν ἄλλος, 34), as well as one adverb of manner (ἀμοιβαδίς, 34). These lines contain the following visual details: the woman is ἀσκητὰ πέπλῳ τε καὶ ἄμπυκι (33), and the men are καλὸν ἐθειράζοντες (34). These lines have a prototypically descriptive textual organization; three spatial markers occur (ἔντοσθεν δέ, 32; πὰρ δέ, 33; ἄλλοθεν ἄλλος, 34), as well as one adverb of manner (ἀμοιβαδίς, 34). These lines contain the following visual details: the woman is ἀσκητὰ πέπλῳ τε καὶ ἄμπυκι (33), and the men are καλὸν ἐθειράζοντες (34). As for lines 36-8, these have a temporal textual organization, which means that the text features a sequence of events. This is

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78 According to Ott 1969: 101, however, “(...) der Gesamtaufbau unserer Ekphrasis [erinnert] an die homerische Schildbeschreibung, weniger stark auch an die von Homer abhängige pseudohesiodeische Aspis” (emphasis mine).

79 According to Payne 2007: 29-30, there are several levels at which the epithet ἀσκητά (33) may function. Put differently, the adjective could refer to the opus ipsum (“curiously wrought”) or the res ipsae (“adorned with”). In the other two Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study, the pluperfect ἤσκητο is found in reference to the opus ipsum (A.R. 1.742 and Mosch. Eur. 56). In addition, τέτυκται at the end of line 32 refers to the opus ipsum. Thus, it is likely that ἀσκητά also refers to the opus ipsum.
made clear by the temporal adverbs in 36-7: ἀλλ' ὅκα μέν ... / ἄλλοκα δ' αὖ .... The temporal adverb δηθά in 38 modifies a participle (κυλοιδιόωντες). As for visual details, I note γέλαισα (36) and κυλοιδιόωντες (38).

I now turn to the image. The goatherd starts with the woman – τι θεῶν δαίδαλμα, "some ornamental work of the gods" – and her dress (32-3). He next spatially locates the men, with beautiful long hair, vis-à-vis this woman: they are beside her (πὰρ δὲ οἱ, 33), one on each side (ἔλλοσεν ἄλλος, 34). The narratee thus has enough information at his disposal to form a basic idea of what the image on the cup looks like. This information is further supplemented by the goatherd in 36 (the woman is smiling, γέλαισα) and 38 (the men are hollow-eyed, κυλοιδιόωντες). These details are part of the res ipsae.

As in all other ekphraseis, the goatherd focuses on the actions in which the figures are engaged. He states that the two men are, alternately, contending with words. These words do not touch the woman’s mind – she is unaffected by what the men say. This is clear from her actions in 36-7: now she looks at one of them, smiling, and then she shifts her thoughts to other. The goatherd then revisits the two men: the words they speak – being hollow-eyed on account of love – are spoken in vain. The goatherd regards the image as one of erotic rivalry: two men are competing for the love of one woman – unsuccessfully, because she interested in neither of them.

The first element of narrative, event sequencing, is present in the text. The men are contending with words, alternately (ἀμοιβαδίς, 34). This means that the men speak in turn, one after another. The woman is likewise involved in actions which necessarily follow after each other, signalled by the adverbs ἀλλ' ὅκα μέν ... / ἄλλοκα δ' αὖ ... (36-7). Both cases concern a sequence of two consecutive events, a sequence that is, furthermore, iterative. In Il. 18.599-602, a similar iterative sequence of two consecutive events is found; similar adverbs occur, too (ὡς δὲ ὀτὲ μὲν ... / ἄλλοτε δ' αὖ... ... 599, 602). On the shield of Achilles, two phases of a dance are described. The dancing figures are

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80 With τι θεῶν δαίδαλμα, the goatherd indicates the supreme craftsmanship and quality of the carved woman. See for extensive discussion of this phrase Payne 2007: 29-31. Manakidou 1993: 71 regards it as an exaggeration typical of the naive herdsman.
81 LSJ translate ἀμοιβαδίς ἄλλοθεν ἄλλος as “one after another” (s.v. ἀμοιβαδίς).
82 Differently Ravenna 1974: 45: “[i] momenti non sono necessariamente successive, è detto solo ‘ora...ora’.”
probably depicted in two groups in two different positions, which signal two different phases of the dance.83

On the goatherd’s cup, the woman can only be depicted in one position. It is the presence of the two men, then, which suggests this iterative sequence of two events.84 Thus, ἀμοιβαδίς seems to be an inference of the goatherd from the spatial location of the two men, who are positioned ἄλλοθεν ἄλλος. The position of the woman can also be inferred. We might expect the goatherd to say that she first looks at man A, and then looks at man B, but this is not what is in the text: she looks at man A, but then turns her mind to man B. As such, the narratee can infer her position: her head is turned towards man A (τῆνον ποτιδέρκεται ἄνδρα). By making use of the spatial clues, the narratee can connect these events to a single, static image.85 I conclude that the image suggests a sequence of events, rather than that it depicts one.

The goatherd also places the depicted action of the image in a wider temporal frame: the men are “for a long time hollow-eyed on account of love” (οἳ δ’ ὑπ’ ἔρωτος δηθὰ κυλοιδιόωντες, 37-8). According to the goatherd, the men have bags under their eyes on account of love (ὑπ’ ἔρωτος). He thus provides a reason or cause for the way the men are carved on the cup. In addition, the goatherd adds the temporal adverb δηθά to the participle: the men have been in this state for a long time. This can be understood in two ways. It could be that the bags under their eyes are caused specifically by what is happening in the image, which would mean that the depicted action is already going on for a long time. Alternatively, the men have been in love for a long time, and this is

83 See further my discussion of these lines in 3.3.3.3, 8.
84 Cf. Gow [1950] 1952b: 9 ad ἀμοιβαδίς: “(...) a work of art can only suggest, not depict, successive actions on the part of the figures”.
85 Cf. Laird 1993: 22, who speaks of an obedient ekphrasis (for which see note 52 in section 1.3.2): “[t]he idea of two men speaking in competition for a woman’s attention could find an equivalent in illustration: the males could be depicted with open mouths as they make emphatic gestures. The woman could be depicted as she is described – glancing at one man but evidently giving her attention to the other. Overall, Theocritus’ ekphrasis seems to me to be obedient: we can go on reading it and continue to have the impression that everything put before us could be translated into a visual medium”. As Wolf 2005: 432 notes, in pictures with more than one character, causality and chronology can be especially suggested by “(...) body language, such as emotionally charged facial expressions or gestures, in particular when this has a visible effect on other characters.”
what has caused the bags under their eyes. In both cases, the goatherd refers to an earlier moment in time, which is the cause of the state in which the men are depicted.

Some scholars have argued that the goatherd also refers to a moment in the future, by hinting at the likely outcome of the scene: the men “are labouring in vain”. I am more inclined to regard ἐτώσια μοχθίζοντι as referring to what is depicted on the cup: the men are labouring in vain, because their words do not have any effect on the woman (τὰ δ’ οὐ φρενὸς ἄπτεται αὐτᾶς, 35). Indeed, their words cannot have any effect, because, as the scholion notes, “who could persuade a statue?”. As such, ἐτώσια can also be regarded as a self-conscious remark of the primary narrator about the nature of ekphrasis.

Herman’s second element of narrative, world disruption, is present. We should ask ourselves, first, what kind of world this image depicts. The location or setting of the first image is not specified: the action could take place anywhere. The figures are anonymous. According to the scholia, some identify the woman as Pandora; Miles has followed suit. It is better to say that the woman is like Pandora, in that she brings
hardships for men. This similarity is not, however, made explicit by the goatherd. On account of the appearance of the figures, it has been suggested that they are city-dwellers. They have also been regarded as country people, which would fit in with the other two images. All these identifications are possible, since the woman and men are not particularized, but generic figures: they can stand for any man or woman.

The presence of one woman and two men has enough potential for world disruption: two men are contending for the love of one woman. Yet she is interested in neither of them: τὰ δ’ οὐ φρενὸς ἅπτεται αὐτᾶς (35). The goatherd clearly expects that a woman will at least listen to what (one of) them says, since he uses οὐ to emphasize that she does not listen. She seems to regard love as a game only, as she enjoys (γέλαισα, 36) to keep the men dangling. The men suffer, as is clear from the bags under their eyes (37-8). Love, when unfulfilled, is disruptive.

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93 Hunter 1999: 80 notes that the phrase γυνά, τι θεῶν δαίδαλμα “(...) here evokes Pandora, the most famous ‘fashioned’ woman of Greek story, an emblem of women’s power to cause ‘grievous desire and body-devouring cares’ (Hes. WD 66) for men”.
94 According to Cairns 1984: 102, the images “offer visions of other, non-bucolic sections of the imaginary world of the present in which Theocritus’ poetry is found. The first scene comes from an urban milieu of the type found in Idylls 2 and 15: the well-dressed woman and the men with fine hairstyles are not rustics”.
95 Zanker 2004: 14: “[t]he young woman and her two suitors are not easily placed on any specific social level at all: the woman’s circlet need not denote luxury, and may be as much a part of the idealizing tendency of the description as the men’s graceful long hair. But they are probably to be seen as young country people, given the cup’s stated overall designation. They would then fit in with the fisherman and the country boy in the other scenes, for these would have been unhesitatingly placed low on the social scale in Hellenistic times”.
96 Negations are rare in ekphraseis: in the shield of Achilles, only two occur (533, 526); in the shield of Heracles, two negations accompany a verb (170, 310), four an adjective (144, 161, 230, 259).
97 Cf. Zanker 2004: 12: “[t]he woman, who as we are explicitly told (35) is not at all concerned with the rivals’ claims and counterclaims (34-35), is rather enjoying herself and her suitors’ discomfiture: the smile with which she graces the men at various times is ambiguous. Her game-plan is indeed to appear come-hitherish, but any encouragement that her smile might give the men is illusory, since, as we are told, their lovelorn efforts are ‘in vain’ (38)”.
98 Of course, the primary narratee may think lightly of what is happening. Yet in the image as described by the goatherd, love is a serious business.
also present. In this image, this element underscores the disruptiveness of what is going on: the smiling woman, the men who are labouring in vain (ἐτώσια μοχθίζοντι, 38), while having bags under their eyes.

I conclude. The narrativity of the image is high. Though the figures are anonymous, the focus on three individuals makes narrativity possible. The image contains, to a certain extent, all three basic elements of narrative. It suggests an iterative sequence of two events, which is made explicit by the goatherd in the text. The nature of the events is disruptive. This disruptiveness is further strengthened by the element of 'what-it's-like'. The primary narratee need not, of course, regard the events as disruptive. Yet the way the figures are depicted in the image and perceived by the goatherd indicate that the events are disruptive for the figures involved in the action.

According to Payne, the narratee cannot check the goatherd’s words against the object itself. He further notes that the goatherd’s words leave open a number of questions regarding what is precisely happening on the cup. I disagree with both propositions. First, as I have argued above, the goatherd makes the spatial arrangement of the figures clear; he also provides information regarding the appearance of the figures. His view on what is happening is derived, then, from the spatial arrangement and appearance of the figures. As for the questions that would remain, I agree with Zanker that the goatherd “has effectively told the whole story.”

In my view, the primary narrator has provided enough information to the primary narratee to make a distinction between the cup itself and the goatherd’s interpretation of the cup. As such, the primary narratee can see ekphrasis at work: the primary

99 Zanker 2004: 12 notes that this image displays “a remarkable interest in the psychology of love and its symptoms. (...) The contrast of emotional states it typical of Hellenistic poetry and art alike”.

100 Payne 2007: 32-3 notes 1) that the goatherd does not spell out that the men are in love with the woman; 2) that we cannot be sure what the men are doing (“chiding, quarrelling, or competing?”); and 3) that due to the absence of pronouns we do not know whether their words are directed at each other or the woman.

101 Zanker 2004: 12, emphasis mine. As for Payne’s questions (see previous note), I would answer ad 1) that the presence of two men and one woman can only lead to this interpretation; ad 2) that the verb makes clear what is going on: the men are quarrelling (νεικείουσ’, 34); this interpretation is strengthened by the fact that the scene “rewrites the ‘legal’ νείκος of the Homeric shield (II. 18.497-508)” (Hunter 1999: 81); ad 3) that ἀμοιβαδίς indicates that they talk after and thus to each other; at the same time, their words are meant to be heard by the woman.
narrator has a character engaging with a static work of art; this character endows the image on the cup with meaning by teasing out the narrative. As I have argued, the image on the cup contains all three basic elements of narrative. Of course, it requires a viewer – in this case the goatherd – to understand the pictorial narrative, and to turn it into words. Nevertheless, the image possesses narrativity, and it would be wrong to deny the image its narrative potential.

Although the primary narratee has access to the cup and the goatherd’s interpretation of it, his view on the cup is limited, because the goatherd is selective in his description. Yet the primary narratee may still ask himself – even on the basis of this limited information – whether the goatherd’s view on the actions in the image is “right”, i.e. whether his response is justified on account of what is depicted. I, for my part, have not been able to find an indication that the goatherd has misread what is going on in the image. Of course, the primary narratee – a learned Hellenistic reader – may use his knowledge to put the image in a wider perspective. For example, by looking at the woman as Pandora – the archetypical woman – the image acquires a kind of universal meaning, one which probably eludes the goatherd.

2. An Old Fisherman (39-44)

The next image depicts one figure only, an old fisherman. The text has a descriptive textual organization in lines 39-41 and 43-4. Two perfects occur, designating states (τέτυκται, 39; ἀδήκαντι, 43); only one present tense refers to an ongoing action (ἔλεγε, 40). Though spatial markers occur (τοῖς δὲ μετά, 39; ἐφ’, 40; κατ’ αὐχένα πάντοθεν, 43), progression is enumerative. I note the following visual details: the rock is jagged (λεπράς); line 43 as a whole refers to his swollen sinews; the fisherman is grey-haired (πολιῷ, 44, but see below) and his net is big (μέγα, 40). As for other details, the narrator twice emphasizes that the fisherman is old (γέρων, 39; πρέσβυς, 41). Line 45, which connects this image with the next one, also refers to the age of the fisherman, and adds
that he is sea-worn (ἁλιτρύτοιο γέροντος). Line 43 contains the discursive discourse mode, to which I return below.

The image contains one figure, which means that its potential for narrativity is low. There are no other human figures (or animals with human-like intentions, as in the next image) to interact or to come into conflict with. In comparison with the previous image, the setting is more important: the jagged rock (πέτρα ... / λεπράς, 40-1) is introduced together with the fisherman (τε...τε, 39) as a separate subtheme.107

The image does not contain a sequence of events, but it does suggest a future event. Only one action of the fisherman is described, who “is eagerly hauling a big net for a catch” (σπεύδων μέγα δίκτυον ἐς βόλον ἐλκεῖ, 40).108 As I have translated the words, (1) the fisherman is hauling his net through the water, in order to catch fish (ἐς βόλον).109 Most scholars, however, translate ἐς βόλον with “for a cast”, i.e. in order to make a cast.110 In that case, the net could (2a) either be in the water and empty – otherwise he would not venture another cast, I presume – or it could (2b) be still on dry land.111 In both cases, the immense effort of the old man is harder to explain, as it seems that an empty net – on land or in the water – would not take that much effort to move.112 In addition, the

107 Cf. Zanker 2004: 13: “[t]he scenery is filled in sufficiently both to situate him in space – a rugged rock (39-40) is obviously the ideal place from which to make an effective cast – and to emphasize his solitariness, as contrasted with the three-figure groups which flank him on the cup”.

108 For this meaning of βόλος, see LSJ s.v. βόλος A 2.

109 I follow Meineke, cited in Fritzsche and Hiller 1881: 45: “[f]ingendus est senex in litore stans et rete per fluctus trahens ad capturam piscium”.

110 Gow [1950] 1952b: 9 allows for both interpretations of ἐς βόλον (“the cast of the net” or “a catch of fish”; he translates ἐς with “with a view to”), but prefers the former on account of the parallel with Sc. 215. Hunter 1999: 40 tentatively prefers the former interpretation, too (“perhaps ‘for [i.e to make] a cast’ rather than ‘for a catch’”), on account of the fact that “[s]uch an interpretation suits the uncertainty and chanciness of the fisherman’s life”.

111 LSJ translate the phrase with “draws it back for a cast” (s.v. βόλος A). Others translate ἐλκεῖ with “gather up” (Gow [1950] 1952a: 7; Verity and Hunter 2002: 3).

112 Legrand 1946: 21-2 translates with “le vieillard tire laborieusement un grand filet pour ramener ce qu’il a pu prendre”. He notes that one could also translate with “pour le jeter”, but adds that his original translation better explains the effort of the old man (“l’autre m’a paru expliquer mieux l’effort du vieux pêcheur, bien qu’un grand filet, même vide, puisse être lourd à trainer (...), ibid.: 22, note 1; emphasis in the original).
goatherd states that the man is fishing (ἐλλοπιεύειν), which would point towards interpretation (1).

On account of interpretation (1), ἐς βόλον refers to the goal of the current action of the fisherman. The goatherd refers to a future event (the catching of the fish), but one that is part of and naturally arises from the current action of the fisherman. Following interpretation (2), ἐς βόλον refers to a future action (the throwing of the net) that is not a part of the current action, but that is an altogether new one. Though in both cases the goatherd refers to something that is not depicted on the cup, interpretation (1) is easier to imagine as being carved on a cup than interpretation (2): a man who is fishing with his net in the water is naturally aiming for a catch, but how can the goatherd know that the dragging of a net will be followed by a cast?

World disruption is absent from the image; the element of 'what-it's-like' is present. As the goatherd states, "you would say that he is fishing with all the strength of his limbs (γυίων…ὅσον σθένος), so have his sinews swollen all over his neck" (42-3). The goatherd regards the way the fisherman's body is depicted on the cup (the opus ipsum) as an indication of the immense effort he is making. His labour is further emphasized by σπεύδων ("eagerly", 40), and the fact that his net is big (μέγα δίκτυον, 40). Two comparisons (41, 44) make clear that although the fisherman is old, he has strength normally associated with the young.

I conclude the discussion of the narrativity of the image. Event sequencing is absent, but the image does suggest a future event. The image depicts a single action only. Its execution requires great effort, which is made clear by the presence of 'what-it's-like'. World disruption is absent. This means that even though the image depicts intense action, its narrativity is low.

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113 Scholars have also speculated whether the fisherman's net will be full of fish, or whether it will remain empty. Lawall 1967: 28-9 sees a contrast between this image and the next (“[h]is sole preoccupation is action; (…) He stands in sharp contrast with the two men who woo the woman, for they labor in vain”). Ott 1969: 103, note 290 believes that the fisherman will not be successful, because in the other two images failure (Erfolglosigkeit) is foregrounded. According to Payne 2007: 35-6, note 36, the phrase τὸ δὲ σθένος ἄξιον ἅβας (44) may point to success.

114 Cf. Lawall 1967: 28-p: "[t]he old gray-haired fisherman (…) [is] caught in a moment of intense physical activity. His sole preoccupation is action; he makes great haste and labors with all his might. Every muscle and sinew of his body is intent on his action, and nothing distracts him".

I want to discuss two remaining issues. First, a similar image of a fisherman is found in 
Sc. 213-5: ...αὐτὰρ ἐπ’ ἀκταῖς / ἧστο ἀνὴρ ἁλιεὺς δεδοκημένος, εἶχε δὲ χερσὶν / ἰχθύσιν ἀμφίβληστρον ἀπορρίψοντι ἐοικώς, “on the shore a fisherman was sitting, 
watching, and in his hands he was holding a casting-net for fish, looking as though he 
was just about to cast it”. Comparisons between both images have often been made, but 
I want to look specifically at the represented moment of both images. In the image on 
the shield, the fisherman is watching the fish (which have been described in the 
preceding lines), net in his hand, which he is just about to cast. The phrase ἀπορρίψοντι 
ἐοικώς (215) looks forward to a future event. The throwing of the net is not depicted on 
the shield. Following interpretation (1), the image on the cup clearly depicts a moment 
that comes after the moment depicted on the shield: the net has been thrown, and the 
fisherman is now hauling it in order to catch fish. Following interpretation (2b), the 
moment depicted on the cup precedes the moment depicted on the shield: the 
fisherman is still busy with his net. Following interpretation (2a), the image on the cup 
comes after the image on the shield: the fisherman has made a cast, but unsuccessfully, 
and is now hauling in his net for another cast.

In my view, interpretation (1) results in an image which comes naturally after that 
of the shield of Heracles: waiting to throw the net (shield) – throw of the net (not 
depicted) – hauling of the net in order to catch the fish (cup). Following interpretation 
(1), it is clear that the cup contains an image that comes after the image on the shield – 
just as the ekphrasis of the cup comes after that of the shield. The contrast between the 
stillness of the fisherman (before the throw) on the shield and his immense efforts 
(after the throw) on the cup reinforces this interpretation. Of course, on account of 
interpretation (2a) the image on the cup also comes after, but in that case the moment 
does not directly follow after that on the shield.

The second issue I want to address is the narrator-narratee interaction. In line 42, 
the goatherd uses φαίης κεν, “you would say”. Strictly speaking, the goatherd addresses 
the secondary narratee, Thyrsis. Payne, however, argues that φαίης κεν primarily 
addresses the primary narratee, Thyrísis. In light of the other addresses to Thyris (21-5, 56, 60- 
1), I would argue that he is the main addressee. The phrase is Homeric, but in all its

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between all three images and the shields of Achillés and Heracles, see Friedländer 1912: 14-5, Ott 
118 Payne 2007: 34-5.
occurrences "a contrast is indicated between what you would expect and what was really the case".119 This is not the case here: Thyris would say that the old fisherman was fishing with all his strength. In my view, by using φαίης κεν the goatherd makes explicit that he is interpreting what he sees.120

Apart from φαίης κεν, there are other signs of the goatherd’s interpretation in these lines.121 First, the goatherd uses a form of ἐοικώς (ὁ πρέσβυς, κάμνοντι τὸ καρτερὸν ἀνδρὶ ἐοικώς, 41). In my view, the phrase does not compare art with reality.122 Rather, it compares the effort of the old man to that of a younger. Hence, it is a comment on the nature of the action.123 Second, line 44 contains a concessive phrase (καὶ πολιῷ περ ἑόντι) as well as another comparison (τὸ δὲ σθένος ἄξιον ἅβας). The line makes clear that the goatherd regards the strength of the old man as worthy of youth.

Lastly, the adjective πολιῷ, "grey-haired", is striking, in that the cup is not painted.124 A number of explanations have been proposed: πολιῷ means "old", the ekphrastic mode (as known from Homer and Hesiod) allows the goatherd to "see" colours, or the overly naive goatherd imagines the carved figures as living beings.125 I want to rephrase the last interpretation: the goatherd can be said to focus on the res ipsae, which means that he

119 de Jong [1987] 2004: 56; this contrast is often made explicit by a negation. Φαίης ἄν/κε occurs five times in the Iliad, and once in the Odyssey. The primary narrator may address the primary narratee (Il. 4.429, 15.697, 17.366), or a character may address another character (Il. 3.220, 3.392; Od. 3.124).
120 According to Zanker 1987: 81, the "address to the reader" makes the picture as a whole much more immediate.
121 I thus disagree with Payne 2007: 35, who writes that "[t]he first scene gives us the goatherd’s interpretative narration of whatever clues he has picked up from the images on the bowl. The second gives us just the images, and so lets us find clues of our own". The second scene does not just give us the images. There are also signs of interpretation, though of a different nature.
122 Hunter 1999: 81, who notes regarding this phrase that "[a]ll such figures are merely 'like' because they are not 'real', but the phrasing also foregrounds the rôle of the interpreter in literary ekphrasis" (italics in the original).
124 See also my remarks on καρπῷ…κροκόεντι (31) in section 5.3.4 above.
125 First two interpretations in Hunter 1999: 82, last two interpretations in Gutzwiller 1991: 91.
looks at what the figure represents. As such, an old man will have grey hair.126 This adjective, then, also draws attention to the role of the goatherd as interpreter.

3. One Boy and Two Foxes (45-54)
The last image on the cup receives the most attention (9 lines). It depicts three figures, just as the first image, one boy flanked by two foxes. The foxes have humanlike intentions, on account of which the image can acquire narrativity.127 I first discuss the text. Only the descriptive discourse mode is found in this passage. Textual progression is mainly enumerative; only in lines 48 does the text progresses spatially (ἀμφί, ἀνά). One other spatial marker is found in 47 (ἐπί); a temporal adverb followed by a subordinate temporal clause occurs in 50-1 (οὐ πρὶν... / ...πρὶν ἢ). Two visual details occur: the clusters are dark (περκναῖσι, 46);128 the boy is small (ὀλίγος, 47). Two other details refer to the beauty of the image (χαλόν, 46; χαλόν, 52);

The goatherd first introduces the scenery of the image. Whereas the goatherd directly focused on a human figure in the first image (32), a human figure and an element of the setting in the second image (39-40), he now introduces the setting on its own: a vineyard beautifully laden with clusters of dark grapes (46). This emphasis on the setting betrays the importance of the location for the action of this image. Other elements of the setting are a dry-stone wall, upon which the boy is sitting (ἐφ’ αἱμασιαῖσι, 47) and a row of vines (ὄρχως, 48). Objects found within this setting are grapes that are ripe for eating (τὰν τρώξιμον), the boy’s wallet (πήρ ἄ, 49), and asphodel stalks and rushes, with which the boy is weaving a trap (52-3). All objects play a role in the action.

The image does not contain a sequence of events. The goatherd first introduces the boy as guarding (φυλάσσει, 47) the vineyard. He next describes the actions of the two foxes, who are on either side of him (48-51). This is all happening simultaneously. The goatherd then returns to the boy in 52-4, where he uses three verbs (πλέκει, 52; μέλεται, 53; γαθεῖ, 54) to refer to actions of the boy. He is now is said to be weaving (πλέκει, 52). From this activity, the goatherd deduces the boy’s state of mind: he does not at all care for his wallet or plants (μέλεται δὲ οὐτε τι πήρας / οὔτε φυτῶν, 53-4), but is wholly

126 The first interpretation is attractive too, but unnecessary; the second is based on a false analogy, because the shields have coloured sections.
127 Cf. my remarks ad Sc. 168-77 in section 4.3.2, 4-5.
128 περκναῖσι (printed by Gow) is a conjecture; the manuscripts read πυρναίαις. See for discussion Gow [1950] 1952b: 10 and Hunter 1999: 82.
absorbed in his weaving. The negations make clear that the goatherd expects the boy to care about his guarding job. This expectation was earlier created by the the goatherd’s statement that the boy is guarding the vineyard (47).

The goatherd refers to a static image, which means that the boy is carved in one, fixed position. It is thus unlikely that the boy is involved in two different actions (guarding and weaving). If these actions are viewed as mutually exclusive, then the narratee must conclude that the goatherd was not telling the whole truth in line 47. Perhaps by not giving away at the beginning that the boy is not guarding the vineyard, the goatherd tries to create a certain tension. The narratee may wonder during lines 48-51 whether the boy is actually watching these foxes. On the other hand, the guarding and the weaving need not be mutually exclusive actions. Perhaps τὰν...φυλάσσει should be interpreted as “was on guarding duty in the vineyard”.129

It could be that the boy is taking his guarding job seriously. He is weaving an ἄκριδοθήραν (52). The word has been variously interpreted, the reason of which is the meaning of the words that make up this compound, 1) ἄκριδο-, and 2) -θήραν. Ad 1: an ἄκρις may refer to either a grasshopper, a locust, or a cricket.130 Ad 2: scholars debate whether this refers to a trap or a cage.131 Most scholars have the word refer to a cage in which ἄκριδες were kept as pets, because they produced a pleasurable sound.132 On the other hand, in Id. 5.108-9, ἄκριδες pose a threat to grapes: ἄκριδες, αἱ τὸν φραγμὸν ὑπερπαδῆτε τὸν ἁμόν, / μή μευ λωβάσησθε τὰς ἀμπέλος· ἐντὶ γὰρ αὕτη, which Gow

129 Φυλάσσω with direct object means “to watch, guard, defend” (LSJ s.v. φυλάσσω B); without a direct object it means “to keep watch and ward, keep guard” (LSJ s.v. φυλάσσω A).
131 According to Gow [1950] 1952b: 12-3, reference is made to a cage. Although he notices that -θήραν technically refers to a trap, he writes that ἄκριδοθήραν may have acquired the meaning cage. The reason why Gow prefers cage is that “it seems unlikely that trapping them would be of much use”. Hunter 1999: 83 glosses as “a trap for crickets” and notes that traps may also function as cages. Dover 1971: 82 prefers the alternative reading ἄκριδοθήκαν, which he translates as “grasshopper-cage”. He finds ἄκριδοθήραν unattractive, because “the easiest way to catch grasshoppers is simply to walk into the grass and pounce on them (...).”
132 E.g. Gow [1950] 1952b: 12: “ἄκριδες (...), like cicadas, were kept in cages for the pleasure their notes gave (A.P. 7.189, 190, 192-195, 197, 198) and it seems certain that what the boy is making is such a cage”, similarly Hunter 1999: 83-4. This interpretation ties in with a metapoetical interpretation of the cup, as the cicada is an explicit symbol for the singer (see Cairns 1984: 104, who refers to line 148, where the τέττις is mentioned).
translates with "locusts that hop over our fence, hurt not my vines, for they are dry". It could also be, then, that the boy is making a trap to catch locusts. Alternatively, he could be making a cage to keep the locusts which he catches by some other means. We should not forget that the goatherd is an inhabitant of the bucolic world, and as such probably interprets the image from a functional perspective.

In addition, in _Idyll_ 5 Comatas – who is a goatherd, too – is speaking, who immediately after having brought up locusts talks of foxes that destroy a vineyard: "I hate the foxes with their bushy tails that come ever at evening and plunder Micon's vineyards." In conclusion, if the boy is weaving a cage or trap for locusts, he could be taking his guarding job seriously. At the same time, this interpretation also creates a sense of irony: one of the foxes is exactly doing what the boy is trying to prevent, viz. damage to the grapes.

In line 49, the goatherd uses the verb form φοιτῆ. This verb suggest repeated motion. It is combined with the preposition ἀνά (48), which indicates motion throughout. The words of the goatherd thus suggest that the first fox is involved in an iterative action. The second fox "is thinking to herself that she will not let the boy alone until [she has raided his breakfast-bread]" (οὐ πρὶν ἀνησεῖν / φατὶ πρὶν ἢ ἀκράτιστον ἐπὶ...)

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133 In _Id_. 5.108-9 locusts are most likely meant, for these pose a threat to grapes (see Gow [1950] 1952b: 110-1 and Davies and Kathimuthy 1986: 139). According to Hunter 1999: 84, "[o]ther ἀκρίδες posed a threat to grapes (cf. 5.108-9), but it is unlikely that 'locusts' were the boy's prey".

134 Cf. _LSJ_ s.v. ἀκριδοθήρα, "locust-trap", Legrand 1946: 22 ("un beau filet à sauterelles") and Beckby 1975: 5 ("'ein schönes Netz zum Heuschreckenfang"). See also Fritzsche and Hiller 1881: 47, who write that an ἀκριδοθήρα is "eine Art Binsenmütze oder Schmetterlingsnetz, um damit an die Weinstöcken hinzufahren und die Heuschrecken von denselben herabzutreiben und dann zu töten".

135 According to Davies and Kathimuthy 1986: 137, note 109, "a reference to the locust would be impossible here", for which they refer to Douglas 1928: 186. Douglas states that it would be impossible to catch locusts with a trap ("what bait could he use?").

136 μισέω τὰς δασυκέρκος ἀλώπεκας, αἳ τὰ Μίκωνος / αἰεὶ φοιτῶσα τὰ ποθέσπερα ῥαγίζοντι (Id. 5.112-3). Gow’s translation of “to plunder” is perhaps too strong for the Greek ῥαγίζω, which means “to gather grapes” (_LSJ_ s.v. ῥαγίζω A).

137 _LSJ_ s.v. φοιτάω A ("go to and fro, backwards and forwards, and generally, with notion of repeated motion, stalk"). We may compare αἰεὶ φοιτῶσα in _Id_. 5.113 (quoted in the previous note).
The intentions of the fox involve a future state of affairs, the raiding of the boy's wallet. Hence, the image suggests a future event. Lastly, the boy's weaving a pretty trap for locusts (καλὰν πλέκει ἀκριδοθήραν, 52) also suggests a future event. The trap itself cannot yet be finished, as the boy is still working on it. In conclusion, the image does not contain a sequence of events. It does suggest two future events, as well as an iterative action.

The second element of narrative, world disruption, is present. The boy and the foxes have conflicting interests. Foxes pose a real threat to grapes, as is clear from the words of Comatas in Ἰδ. 5.112-3. One fox is eating the grapes. Her action is characterised as deliberate mischief, as is clear from σινομένα, "plundering". The fox that is after the boy's food is a cunning creature: she is "fashioning every scheme against the wallet" (ἐπὶ πήρᾳ πάντα δόλον τεύχοισα, 49-50). The word δόλος, though here used in its concrete sense of trick or stratagem (on account of τεύχοισα), also means craft, cunning, or treachery. Her determination is stressed by the negation and the repetition of πρὶν (50-1). The goatherd expects that she, too, will succeed in her evil designs, which means that the boy will lose his food. The primary narratee may, of course, think lightly of what is happening, but the eating of grapes seems to be a disruptive event for

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138 As Hunter 1999: 83 notes ad 50-1, “[t]he textual and interpretative problems in these verses have as yet found no satisfactory solution”; see also Gow [1950] 1952b: 11-2 and Dover 1971: 81. I have used the translation in Gow [1950] 1952a: 7.
139 Cf. Palm 1965-6: 144-5 ("Der eine Fuchs gibt sich den Anschein – so ist das φατί (51) zu verstehen (…) – nicht aufzugeben, bevor er den Jungen seines Frühstücks beraubt hat", emphasis mine) and Payne 2007: 36 ("There is no conflict between visual representation and narration as there is in the first scene; the grapes and the wallet are easily pictured as objectives of the foxes' actions", emphasis mine).
140 Payne 2007: 36, who refers to Ῥωμαϊκά σύνομα I, who list pirates, Cyclopes, Scylla and marauding armies as subjects of this verb.
141 Ῥωμαϊκά σύνομα A, respectively A b, and A 2. This word also occurs in the shield of Achilles: the herdsmen are killed τερπόμενοι σύριγξι: δόλον δ’ οὔ τι προνόησαν, "delighting in their pipes; and they foresaw in no wise the stratagem" (18.526). There, too, we find a bucolic world that is disrupted, though far more brutally; see my discussion in section 3.3.2.2, 2b.
142 Cf. Zanker 2004: 14, who speaks of the inevitable outcome: "the one fox will continue eating the grapes to her heart's content, while the other will have her way with the little boy's food, such is his absorption in his play".
inhabitants of the bucolic world (note μισέω τὰς δασυκέρκος ἀλώπεκας, “I hate the foxes with their bushy tails”, *Id.* 5.112). 143

The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is present, too. It does not, however, have such a prominent role as in the previous two images. The two foxes have human-like intentions; one of them is bent on stealing the boy’s food. The boy is enjoying himself immensely in his weaving (54). I conclude that the narrativity of the image is mainly due to the element of world disruption. In addition, it suggests two future events, as well as an iterative action.

4. The Images Together

In the previous sections, I have focused on the narrativity of the separate images. I now briefly want to discuss the issue whether the images can be connected, and, if so, what this means for the narrativity of the images when taken together. In the case of the shields of Achilles and Heracles, a direct connection between the images is difficult to establish, since both shields contain many different images with many different subjects. On Theocritus’ cup, only three images are depicted. On account of this restriction, a connection between the images is easier to perceive. I want to emphasize that any connection between the images must be made by the primary narratee, as the goatherd only spatially links the images.

As we have seen in section 5.2 above, Petrain speaks of the fabula of the cup. Whereas the cup may well represent the three stages of human life, I think that the word fabula should not be used in connection with the cup. Petrain writes that Theocritus portrays “the chronological sequence *par excellence*, the span of a human life. No temporal progression is more familiar or more basic (...).” 144 However, all images contain different figures and have their own setting. Although the images may have a

143 Miles 1977: 149, on the other hand, writes that “[w]e have been assured by the goatherd, moreover, that the foxes’ depredations will have no serious consequences. All that is at stake is the boy’s lunch, and he is so absorbed in his weaving that he has lost interest in it anyway”; earlier he stated that “[i]n bare outline this scene has the elements of Hesiodic realism: It shows human folly in a world where man must struggle vigilantly against the degenerative forces of nature” (ibid.: 148).

144 Petrain 2006: 257, italics in the original.
temporal order, there is no sequence of events: we do not find the same figure involved in consecutive actions. In such cases, it seems better not to use the term fabula.

The images on the cup do not depict specific figures involved in specific events. Rather, the images can be regarded as typical scenes which illustrate certain aspects of human life. Lawall writes that "the cup pictures nonherculean, commonplace, homely scenes of everyday experience", and Hunter speaks of the "timeless and generic quality" of the figures on the cup. To a certain extent, then, the cup resembles the shield of Achilles, insofar as both objects illustrate events which may happen in the life of human beings. In the images on the shield of Achilles, the communal aspect of life is emphasized. The images on the cup focus on individuals. The cup also devotes more attention to the feelings ('what-it's-like') of these individuals.

Scholars have generally perceived a temporal connection between the three images, which would represent the three ages of man (maturity, old age, childhood). According to Lawall, "Theocritus has (...) presented a kind of panoramic picture of real life through symbolic scenes which capture the essential psychological condition of the three ages of man. Childhood is the age of happy innocence; manhood is preoccupied with the vain labour of love, as man, having lost the innocence of childhood, turns to the world outside and seeks an unattainable happiness in love of women; old age has

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145 Cf. also Ott 1969: 107, who writes that "aber durch die Darstellung in Einzelbildern und die natürlichen Ablauf widersprechende Anordnung wird nicht der chronologische Lebenslauf einer Einzelperson, sondern jede Lebensstufe für sich (...) vorgeführt", emphasis mine.
147 See e.g. Ott 1969: 107 ("Als Hauptpartie des Ziegenhirten paßt die Ekphrasis zu seinem bisherigen Auftreten: Seiner Anonymität, welcher die Namhaftigkeit des Partners gegenübersteht, entsprechen die namenlosen Gestalten und eher typischen als individuellen Szenen der Becherbilder") and Gutzwiller 1991: 92 ("(...) the figures on the cup are nameless and so seem to represent types").
150 E.g. Gutzwiller 1991: 92-3 ("The three scenes rather obviously represent three ages of man (...). The three ages of man are easily observed").
learned the folly of lovers and turns to practical affairs and action, where labor is given a just reward.\textsuperscript{151} Hunter notes \textit{three types of labour} that are associated with each age: “emotional (the lovers) and physical (the fisherman) πόνος give way to a labour (the boy’s weaving) which suggests poetic πόνος”.\textsuperscript{152} However, I find the idea that each age has its own emotional state or activity too restricted. For example, physical labour is associated with the young by the goatherd’s comparison in line 41.

The nature of the images allows the primary narratee to perceive various connections between them. If one wants to perceive a temporal connection between them, one could argue that the images illustrate events which may, but need not, happen in the life of human beings. In that case, the individual figures lose their individuality, in that they stand for any human being. In addition, although the separate images may feature world disruption, the events they depict become less disruptive when viewed from the perspective of a whole life. Thus, the images together are low in narrativity. Because they illustrate events which ordinarily happen in the life of human beings, the images also possess descriptivity. Here, the difference between the goatherd and the primary narratee comes to the fore, too: for the primary narratee, the events depicted on the cup may not be as disruptive as they are for the goatherd.

5.4 The Goatherd’s Cup: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Conclusion

The \textit{text} which represents the goatherd’s cup is a mixture of three discourse modes: the diegetic, the discursive and the descriptive discourse mode. The descriptive discourse mode takes up the largest part of the text, as is expected in ekphraseis. In the corpus of this study, the discursive discourse mode is found first here. The signs of narrator-narratee interaction in this discourse mode are to be related to the fact that the ekphrasis is part of a conversation between two characters. As I have argued, the ekphrasis has a rhetorical goal, to persuade Thyrsis to sing his famous song. It also foregrounds the goatherd as interpreter. The diegetic discourse mode occurs once: in lines 36-8, the goatherd creates a sequence of iterative events as a response to the static image.

The text largely has a prototypically descriptive structure. The amount of descriptive detail varies: the lines referring to the non-narrative decoration of the cup (25-31 and 56) are full of details, some of which are of a visual nature; others appeal to

\textsuperscript{151} Lawall 1967: 29-30 (emphasis mine), approved of by Ott 1969: 108. In a similar vein Edquist 1975: 106, who speaks of “the totality of significant human experience from childhood to old age”.

\textsuperscript{152} Hunter 1999: 77.
smell. Lines 32-44, which represent the first and second image, contain a number of visual details, all of which play an important role in conveying what is happening in the picture. Lines 45-54, which represent the third image, contain two visual details. In contrast with the shields of Achilles and Heracles, the text that represents the goatherd’s cup contains fewer details. I postpone discussion of this observation until the following chapter, since the same phenomenon is also to be seen in the ekphrasis of Jasons cloak.153

The images have various degrees of narrativity. The images do not contain event sequencing. Images one and three suggest a sequence of iterative events; images two and three suggest future events. World disruption is present in the first and third image. ‘What-it’s-like’ is present in all three images, but most strongly conveyed by images one and two. If I were to order the images according to their amount of narrativity, I would say that image one has the highest degree of narrativity, followed by image three; image two comes last, because world disruption is absent. On account of this absence, image three also has a certain amount of descriptivity. When the images are taken together as illustrative of events which may happen in the life of any human being, they lose their disruptive nature and acquire descriptivity.

5.5 Coda: Visualizing the Goatherd’s Cup

The discussion regarding the visualization of the goatherd’s cup resembles to a certain extent the discussion regarding the visualization of the shield of Achilles. On the one hand, scholars argue that the cup cannot be visualized. Manakidou, for example, writes:

Warum es dennoch dem Bild an Genauigkeit fehlt, was die technische Seite betrifft, warum letztlich keine ένάρεξη und σαφήνεια, bedeutsame Qualitäten einer Ekphrasis, erreicht werden, läßt sich folgendermaßen erläutern: Theokrit selbst beabsichtigt nicht, eine allzu klare Vorstellung von dem beschriebenen Objekt zu geben. Da er kein pedantischer Betrachter ist, zeigt er kein Interesse an einer genauan Darlegung, sondern legt Wert auf die poetischen Eigenschaften bzw. Dimensionen der Rede, auf die Dichtung als wörtliche Realisierung seiner bildenden Phantasie.154

153 See section 6.4.
154 Manakidou 1993: 73. Manakidou seems indebted to Friedländer 1912: 14, who states that it is clear that “der Dichter eine Vorstellung vom Ganzen besitzt und dem Leser übermittelt. Allein diese Vorstellung ist alles andere als exakt. Das Gefäß heißt ‘zweihenklig’, aber es wird mit
On the basis of the fact that the arrangement of the images on the cup is not clear — in other words, because the opus ipsum does not receive enough attention — scholars conclude that the cup as a whole cannot be visualized, or can only be visualized with difficulty. On the other hand, scholars are agreed that the separate images can be visualized.155

As Petrain notes, ancient readers do not seem to have felt any reluctance to visualize objects described in poetry.156 In this matter, I can only agree with the ancients.157 Thus, even though the text remains silent on certain matters — matters that some scholars consider essential — the narratee should certainly try to visualize the cup. The arrangement of the images on the cup — the precise nature of which is also unclear — must remain uncertain (cf. sections 5.3.4-5 above), but the many reconstructions indicate that the text offers enough clues to come to some sort of arrangement.158

The separate images are inspired by examples of Hellenistic art.159 As Hunter notes, “relief work on pottery and metal will have been the principle influence.”160 However, influences from the ekphrastic tradition (e.g. the fisherman on Heracles’ shield) or other types of art (e.g. statues) cannot be ruled out.161 Any narrative elements that are, strictly speaking, alien to the visual arts are commonly regarded as suggested by the

einem homerischen Kunstwort (κισσύβιον) benannt, das keine bestimmte Form vor das Auge stellt”. Payne 2007: 37 agrees.

155 See e.g. Nicosia 1968: 23-4: “[l]e singole descrizioni non presentano difficoltà di interpretazione. Le difficoltà sorgono quando si tenti di ricostruire l’opera nel suo complesso, e di stabilire in essa la disposizione delle tre scenette; (...) insomma, dal complesso della descrizione, è impossibile farsi un’idea chiara della coppa, ricostruirla cioè come opera d’arte, chè come tale appunto vuol presentarcela il poeta”.


157 See further section 3.5.

158 For possible reconstructions, see e.g. Gow [1950] 1952b: 14 (= Gow 1913: 213), Morley in Verity and Hunter 2002: 2, and Petrain 2006: 258-9. Arnott 1978: 133, after having discussed the ekphrasis alongside John Flaxman’s reconstruction of the cup, concludes that “[c]areful reading of Theocritus’ text indicates that the poet’s imagined arrangement of the three pictures on the goatherd’s cup must have been similar to that of Flaxman’s design (...).”

159 See the references in Hunter 1999: 77. See also Fowler 1989: 5-15.


161 Cf. the brief overview in Gow 1913: 207.
carvings.\textsuperscript{162} The cup is indeed a marvel of the goatherd’s world – a wonder which amazes one’s heart (αἰπολικὸν θάημα· τέρας κέ τε τυ θυμὸν ἀτύξαι, 56).

\textsuperscript{162} E.g. Schmale 2004: 122: “[w]enn in der ersten Szene auf den ersten Blick ein bildlich nicht darstellbares Nacheinander, nämlich das Hin und Her von Rede und Blicken, angesprochen wird, kann auch dies als Reflex auf besondere Leistungen hellenistischer Kunst gedeutet werden, denn es gibt tatsächlich Statuengruppen von besonderer naturalistischer Qualität, die den Eindruck einer lebendigen Unterhaltung wiedergeben (...); similarly Fowler 1989: 7 (“(...) the achievement of Hellenistic sculpture and painting was to heighten suggestion; to make obvious a casting of the mind, a give-and-take of conversation”).
6. Jason’s Cloak (A.R. 1.721-68)

6.1 Introduction
The ekphrasis of Jason’s cloak is part of the Lemnian episode in the first book of Apollonius Rhodius’ *Argonautica* (1.601-909). Hypsipyle, queen of Lemnos, summons the Argonauts to the city (708-20). Before Jason sets out, he fastens a purple cloak around his shoulder. The cloak is described by the narrator in extenso (721-68). Jason next takes up his spear (769-73) and is on his way (774ff).

The ekphrasis of Jason’s cloak has received ample scholarly attention. Most studies offer an interpretation of the passage, or discuss the function of the ekphrasis within the episode or poem as a whole.¹ The narrativity and descriptivity of the ekphrasis have received little attention.² This chapter does therefore not contain a state of the art, but I will start with some important observations.

As in the case of the ekphrasis of the goatherd’s cup in Theoc. *Id.* 1, scholars are agreed that the Apollonian narrator refers to static images.³ Schmale argues that the narrator strictly avoids narrative elements, with only one exception (πῖπτεν, 758).⁴ In a

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² Two studies deal with narration and description in the *Argonautica*, Fusillo 1983 and Thiel 1993. Both scholars extensively discuss Jason’s cloak (Fusillo 1983: 83-96 = Fusillo 1985: 300-6; Thiel 1993: 36-89), but their main interest lies in the ekphrasis’ interpretation and significance, rather than its narrative and descriptive properties. For their views on description, see Fusillo 1983: 65-7 and Thiel 1993: 12; for both, the halting of fabula time is the most important marker of description.

³ E.g. Byre 1976: 99: “[t]he stasis of the represented scenes is maintained throughout, the nearest approximation to a violation of it being the iterative ἐλάασκον (733)”; Zanker 1987: 69: “(...) Apollonius views the cloak as a work of art, more self-consciously than Homer does with Achilles’ shield, where the scenes are treated as actions, not merely as depictions”; and Klooster 2012: 73, who speaks of “static images rather than dynamic scenes”.

⁴ Schmale 2004: 118: “[n]arrative Elemente sind zugunsten genauer Darstellung strikt vermieden, was bei der Kürze der Beschreibung auch leicht möglich ist. (...) Innere Zustände werden nicht apostrophiert, es sei denn, sie sind an einem äußeren Gestus erkennbar (...). Es gibt nur einen einzigen Ausbruch ins Narrative, und zwar bei der Beschreibung des Wagenrennens zwischen
similar vein, Palm notes that the Apollonian narrator refers to images which consist of one moment in time. He adds that the narrator at times also alludes to what happened before and/or what will happen after the represented moment, thereby creating the impression that the image is part of a sequence of events (“ein ‘Nacheinander’”). Thiel, on the other hand, states that six out of seven scenes (the exception being the second scene with Aphrodite, in lines 742-6) are “dissolved into action” (“in Handlung aufgelöst”). For Thiel, then, the Apollonian narrator creates a narrative; the remarks by Schmale and Palm point in the direction of a description.

This chapter will investigate which prototypically narrative and/or descriptive elements are present in the ekphrasis of Jason’s cloak (section 6.2). As in the other chapters, a distinction will be made between the text that represents the image, and the image itself. After the conclusion (section 6.3), I discuss the visualisation of the cloak (section 6.4).

Pelops und Myrtilos: Wenn die Achse bricht, fällt Oinomaos (758: πῖπτεν), der im Vers zuvor noch neben Myrtilos stehend beschrieben ist, vom Wagen”.

5 Palm 1965-6: 139: “[z]u den illusionsfördernden Kunstgriffen gehört auch, dass der Dichter darauf anspielt, was in der Zeit vor oder nach dem im Bilde gezeichneten Augenblick liegt (…). Er lässt sich am leichtesten verwenden, wenn das Motiv eine mythologische Szene ist, denn in einem solchem Fall weiß man ja, was vorher oder später geschehen ist. So wird ein stillstehendes Bild in ein Geschehen einbezogen; man bekommt den Eindruck, ein ‘Nacheinander’ statt einer Augenblicksexposition zu sehen. Homer mahnte das Geschehen, das Nacheinander, in sich auseinander entwickelnden Situationsbildern aus; Ap[ollonius] hält sich an den Augenblick und erweckt dennoch durch seinen kommentierenden Eingriff ungefähr dasselbe Gefühl beim Hörer oder Leser” (emphasis mine).


7 Though not stated with so many words, this seems implied by Thiel 1993: 89: “[z]um Punkt Geschehen und Zeit innerhalb des Exkurses hatten wir für unsere Szene feststellen können, daß auch hier ‘Beschreibung’ durchaus ‘erzählt’ wird; Davon ausgenommen ist aber unsere ‘Minimalekphrase’ [the scene with Aphrodite], die einen Abschnitt absoluten Handlungsstillstands inmitten von erzähler Vergangenheit bildet, was ihre sehr wohl beabsichtigte Sonderstellung noch stark herausstreicht” (emphasis mine).
6.2.1 Jason’s Cloak: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Text and Translation

721 Αὖτα δ' ἦν ἀμφὶ ἔνας Ἰτωνίδος ἔργον,\nδιπλακα πορφυρὲν περφεῦσε, τὴν οἱ ὅπασσε\nΠελλάς, ὦτε πρῶτον θεῷς ἑπεβάλλετο νηὸς.\nἍργειος καὶ κανονίσεσθαι δὲς ἔγραμε μετρήσασθαι.

725 Τῆς μὲν ἑγίταρόν κεκ ζ ἐς ἓλιον ἀνίόντα\ν ὅσιν βάλος ἐκ κεκαίμεν ἑρεῦδος.\不论 γὰρ τε μέση μὲν ἑρεθθὲν τέτυκτο,\ν ἄκρα δὲ πορφυρὴ τὸν ἔλευσεν. Ἐν δ' ἀρ' ἐκάστῳ\ν τέρματι δαίδαλα πολλὰ διακριθῶν ἐδ ἐπέπαστα.

730 Ἐν μὲν ἑσαν Κύκλωπες ἐπ' ἀμφὸς ἥμεθον ἔργων,\η ζηὴν κεραυνὸν ἄκακης τε κοπήσατο ποιμανῖς.\ψης δ' ἔς ἐπιτεύ χος μοῦν οὐτὸνο\ν οἱ ἔνεις σιδηρὲς ἔλαςκον δεκτοῦν ἀυτῆν.\τῆς μὲν ὑπεράκτες μὲν ἐρευθήκας\ν ἄκρα δὲ πορφυρὸν ἐπικίνδυν ἀντεβά. Ἐν δὲ ἑσαν\ν Ἀντιόπης Ἀσωπίδος υἱίες δοιών,\μὴ ἔτι ἀνάλητος ἔτι ἀποικίας θήβης. Ἀπύργωτος δ' ἔτι\ν κέφαλος πέλλας, τοὺς οἰς ἐθέλοντες ἀμέρσαι

735 Ἐν δ' ἐσαν Ἀντόπης Ἀσωπίδος υἱίες δοιών,\μὴ ἔτι ἀμφὶ δοιών, Ἀσώπων καὶ Χηρὸς. Αὐτίγως ὅπερ δ' ἔτι Θήβη\κάπτες πέλλας, τοὺς οἰς ἑς νεόν κόμπον δομαῖς\οὐσίων Αὐτίγως μὲν ἐποιμαθῇ ἡμέτεραν\ν οὐροὺς ἠλιβάτοις καρπό, μωγέοις ἐοικόνοις\ν ἈρμῦσκΔ' ἔπειοι συσχέτης ἑλάσσων ἠθῆναν,\δῖς τὸς δὲ μὲν ἔκτε ἡθῆκεν πέτρη.

740 Ἐξείς δ' ἐσαν Κυθερίας Κυθερίας καὶ Κυθρείας\Ἀλεξίδος καὶ Χηρὸς. Ἀρμῆνας ἔσαν σῶοις. Ἀνέπεραν τὸν άντικον Παλλάς, \νος πόλεις ἑς νεόν κόμπον δομαῖς οὐσίων Αὐτίγως \ν οὐροὺς ἠλιβάτοις καρπό, μωγέοις ἐοικόνοις.\Ἐν δ' ἐσαν Ἀντίκοιος οἴκοι ήπαρνος ταῖος. Ἀρμῆνας \νος πόλεις ἑς νεόν κόμπον δομαῖς οὐσίων Αὐτίγως

745 Ἐξείς δ' ἐσαν Κυθερίας Κυθερίας καὶ Κυθρείας\Ἀλεξίδος καὶ Χηρὸς. Ἀρμῆνας ἔσαν σῶοις. Ἀνέπεραν τὸν άντικον Παλλάς, \νος πόλεις ἑς νεόν κόμπον δομαῖς οὐσίων Αὐτίγως

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I use the Budé text by Vian (1974), it being more conservative than Fränkel’s OCT (1961). For example, Fränkel prints – dubitantur – his conjectured hapax περιπορίδα in 1.767 (criticized by West 1963: 9). The translation is based on the Loeb edition by Race (2008). I have altered the punctuation in 721, for which see below.
And he fastened around his shoulders a work of the Itonian goddess, double-folded, purple, which Pallas had given him, when she first laid the oak props of the ship Argo, and taught him how to measure the cross-beams with a ruler. You could cast your eyes more easily on the rising sun than gaze at that red colour. For indeed, it had been made red in the middle, and it was purple at the edges on every side. In each border many intricate designs had, separately, been skilfully woven. (730) On it were the Cyclopes, busy with their endless work, toiling over a thunderbolt for Zeus the king. It was already so far finished, in all its brightness, and it still lacked only one ray, which they were beating out with their iron hammers, while it was spurting a jet of raging fire. (735) And on it were the twin sons of Antiope, Asopus’ daughter, Amphion
and Zethus. Still without towers, Thebes was nearby [them], of which they were just now laying foundation stones with great zeal. Zethus was carrying the top of a high mountain on his shoulders, like a man toiling hard; and Amphion, [following] after him, playing loudly on his golden lyre, was advancing, and a boulder twice as big was following in his footsteps. (742) Next in order had been fashioned thick-tressed Cytherea, holding up Ares’ agile shield. The juncture of her dress had slipped from her shoulder onto her left forearm beneath her breast; opposite her, exactly as it was, her reflection could be seen in the bronze shield. (747) And on it was a pasture of dense grass for cattle; around the cattle the Teleboae and the sons of Electryon were fighting, the ones defending them, but the others longing to steal them, Taphian plunderers; and with their blood the dewy meadow was wet, and the many [attackers] were overpowered the few herdsmen. (752) And on it had been wrought two competing chariots. Pelops was steering the one in front while shaking the reins, and with him was Hippodameia at his side. Myrtilus had driven the horses of the other [chariot] in close pursuit; at his side Oenomaus, gripping his forward-pointing spear in his hand, because the axle was breaking in the hub, was falling, while moving to stab the back of Pelops. (759) On it had also been wrought Phoebus Apollo, while shooting, a big boy, not yet fully grown, at enormous Tityus, who was audaciously pulling his mother by her veil, [Tityus] whom divine Elare had borne, and whom earth had nursed and given a second birth. (763) On it had also been wrought Phrixus the Minyan, like someone who was really listening to the ram, and he looked as though he was speaking. When looking at them, you would fall silent and be deceived in your heart, expecting to hear some wise pronouncement from them, in expectation of which you would gaze even for a long time. (768) Such then was the gift of the Itonian goddess Athena. And in his right hand he took up his far-darting spear, which Atalanta had once given him as guest-gift on mount Maenalus, when she gladly met him; for she was most eager to follow on his voyage. But [she did not go] because he himself deliberately kept back the girl, out of fear for bitter rivalries on account of love. He went on his way toward the city...

6.2.2 Jason’s Cloak: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Overview of Tenses

In this section, I will establish which discourse modes are found in this passage (721-74a). Lines 721-4 and 769-74 contain the diegetic discourse discourse mode: they feature aorists (ἐπένευσεν, 722; ἔλευ, 769; ἤμεθαι, 773; ἔδρα, 774) and an imperfect (ἀπερήτυε, 772). Of the aorists, three further the action of the fabula: ἐπένευσεν (“he fastened”, 722), ἔλευ (“he took up”, 769), and ἔδρα (“he went”, 774). These are the only three actions

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9 For the tense analysis, only main clauses are taken into consideration.
that Jason performs in these lines. Consequently, between lines 722 and 769 and between lines 770 and 773 fabula time comes to a halt; a pause occurs.  

Within lines 721-4 and 769-74, two relative clauses are found (722b-4; 769-72a). Both relative clauses feature an anterior aorist (ὄπασσε, 722; ἐγγυάλιξε, 770). They constitute external analepsis which narrate the history of the object. The relative clause in 722b-4 also contains a subordinate temporal clause (ὅτε πρῶτον..., 723-4). In lines 769-72a, the relative clause contains a temporal adverb (ποτέ, 770). It is followed by a γάρ-clause (771b-72a). The analepsis continues in a main clause (772b-3), containing an imperfect and an aorist (ἀπερήτυε, 772; δεῖσεν, 773).

In lines 725-6 and 765-7, only second-person optatives are found. These lines thus contain the discursive discourse mode. In lines 725-6, two aorist optatives occur with κεν; in 765, we likewise find two optatives (though present) with κε, followed by a relative clause (ὅτευ) with an aorist optative. All optatives are potential. In both passages, the primary narrator addresses the primary narratee.

The bulk of the passage contains the descriptive discourse mode (727-64; 768). These lines form the core of the ekphrasis. Mostly pluperfects and imperfects are found. Only one aorist occurs (ἤλασεν, 755). Textual progression is spatial. In lines 761-2, a relative clause with three anterior aorists is found; this clause constitutes another external analepsis.

I sum up. By far the largest part of the passage contains the descriptive discourse mode (727-64; 768). As such, the ekphrasis of Jason’s cloak resembles the other

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10 Cf. Klooster 2012: 72: “[t]he passage [721-68] thus forms a pause of 47 lines during which the story remains stationary: it opens with Jason preparing to fasten the clasp and ends with his doing so”.

11 For the linguistic features of the discursive discourse mode, see section 5.3.2.

12 Alternatively, one could regard line 768 (τοῖ’ ἄρα δῶρα θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἦεν Ἀθήνης) as a descriptive line belonging to the previous or following discourse mode (discursive or diegetic).

13 It should further be noted that in these lines not a single aorist participle is found. All participles are either present or perfect. Present participles: (referring to the res ipsae) ἔμενοι (730); πονεύμενοι (731); παμφαίνων (732); ζείουσαν (734); ἰέμενοι (738); μογέοντι (739); λιγαίνων (740); ἐγκαίνησα (743); ξηδοσίμονοι (749); ἔλαφοντες (749); δηριόωντε (752); τινάσσων (753); ἀγνυμένοι (757); διοτείχου (759); ἐρύοντα (760); ζείουσαν (764); ἐξενέποντι (764); (in narrator-narratee communication) εἰσορόων (765); ἐλπόμενος (766). Perfect participles: ἔοικώς (739); μεμαρπώς (756); ἐπεσσύμενος (758); ἐποῦς (764).

14 Fränkel prints Platt’s conjecture ἤλασεν (imperfect); the manuscripts and testimonia read ἤλασεν. See further section 6.2.5, 5 below. ἵναι (753) could also be an aorist, but this is unlikely.
ekphraseis of this study. This core with a descriptive textual organization is surrounded by two passages which feature the discursive discourse mode (725-6, 765-8). The addresses to the primary narratee are found only in this ekphrasis of this study; in Theocritus first Idyll, the discursive mode is also found, but there a character speaks to another character. The passages with the discursive discourse mode are, in turn, surrounded by passages which contain the diegetic discourse mode (721-4 and 769-74). These refer to events which are part of the fabula.

### 6.2.3 Jason's Cloak: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Preliminaries

The ekphrasis of Jason's cloak is part of an epic poem. In the other epic ekphraseis, the shields of Achilles and Heracles are appropriate objects in their context. Both shields are huge, and are meant to be used in battle. Jason prepares for battle, too, but one of a rather different nature. The passage in which Jason puts on this cloak and grasps this spear is generally regarded as an erotic rewriting of an Iliadic arming scene. His "arms" consists of a cloak and spear only. Jason, then, is arming himself for an amatory encounter with Hypsipyle.

The ekphrasis of the cloak has a number of intertexts. First, the passage as a whole is reminiscent of the typical Homeric arming scene. The half-line αὐτὰρ δ' γ' ἀμφ' ὤμοισι is also found at the beginning of Paris' arming scene: αὐτὰρ δ' γ' ἀμφ' ὤμοισιν ἔδυσεν τεῦχεα καλὰ / δῖος Ἀλέξανδρος Ἑλένης πόσις ἠعبةοιο, “and he put about his shoulders his splendid armour, / divine Alexander, husband of the lovely-haired Helen” (Il. 3.328-9). Il. 3.328 is the only instance of the phrase αὐτὰρ δ' γ' ἀμφ' ὤμοισιν which occurs at the beginning of a major arming scene. This reference to Paris is appropriate for a love hero. Second, the cloak recalls other pieces of cloth. According to Hunter, the "main situational model" of the cloak ekphrasis is found in book 19 of the Odyssey, where a disguised Odysseus tells Penelope about a meeting with her husband: Odysseus was

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15 See Clauss 1993: 122-3 and Hunter 1993: 48, 52-3. This idea is already present in the scholia (see Wendel 1935: 60).

16 In the four major arming scenes in the Iliad (see note 89 in section 2.4.2), ἀμφὶ δ’ ἀρ’ ἂμοισιν refers to the slinging of the sword around the shoulders (ἀμφὶ δ’ ἀρ’ ἂμοισιν βάλετο ξίφος..., 3.334: 11.29; 16.135; 19.372). The other occurrence of the phrase αὐτὰρ δ' γ' ἀμφ' ὤμοισι (without the ν) is Il. 15.479, where Teucer, an archer, puts his shield about his shoulders. Vian and Delage 1974: 83, note 2 refer especially to Agamemnon’s arming scene (Il. 11.15-46) on account of the large amount of descriptive material (Vian speaks of "τεχνησίν du bouclier d’Agamemnon").

wearing a woolen double cloak of purple (χλαῖναν πορφυρέην οὔλην ἔχε δῖος ὸδυσσεύς / διπλήν..., 19.225-6); he ends with stressing the admiration of many women (ἡ μὲν πολλαί γ’ αὐτὸν ἐθηήσαντο γυναῖκες, 19.235). Another piece of cloth that is recalled is the δίπλακα πορφυρέην which Helena is weaving in II. 3.125-8. It contains images, too: ... πολέας δ’ ἐνέπασσεν ἀέθλους / Τρώων θ’ ἱπποδάμων καὶ Ἀχαιῶν χαλκοχιτώνων, / οὕς ἑθεν εἶνεκ’ ἐπασχον ὑπ’ Ἀρεᾶς (721-2). In my view, lines 721-2 are no exception, since θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἔργον (721) can only refer to a cloak. Ἔργον, when accompanied by a genitive auctoris referring to a female person, most likely refers to a woven garment. In combination with ἀμφ’ ὤμοισι (…) / (…) περονήσατο (721-2), the phrase θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἔργον must refer to a cloak. The words

6.2.4 Jason’s Cloak: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Lines surrounding the Images (721-9; 768-73)

The main theme of the ekphrasis is found in lines 721-2: θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἔργον, / δίπλακα πορφυρέην. Editors usually print a comma before θεᾶς, which turns θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἔργον into an apposition that is placed before its noun (δίπλακα πορφυρέην). However, usually the main theme is announced first, after which other information follows. In my view, lines 721-2 are no exception, since θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἔργον (721) can only refer to a cloak. Οὐδὲ πρώτιστα σάκος μέγα τε στιβαρόν τε (II. 18.478); Μήν σάκος εἷλε παναίολον (Sc. 139); Κεκλυσμένον ἡδέι κηρῷ, / ἀμφῶς, νεοτευχές, νεοτευχές, ἐτί γλυφάνοι ποτόσδον (Europa 37-8); Υφαίστειο (Od. 19.225-6). Cf. also e.g. Θέσυς Ὀδυσσεύς / διπλήν (Il. 18.478).

A comma before θεᾶς is therefore unnecessary.
διπλακα πορφυρέην stand in apposition to this phrase, and specify the type of cloak ("double-folded"), and its colour ("purple"). The adjective πορφυρέην does not only refer to colour, but also suggests brilliance and radiance. 

The maker of the cloak is Athena. The cloak is thus made by a god, as are all objects in the ekphraseis of this study of which the maker is known. The shields of Achilles and Heracles were appropriately made by Hephaestus. Jason’s cloak is made by Athena, the patron goddess of crafts. The cloak is a finished object. In the relative clause in 722-4, which forms an external analepsis, not the making or the history of the cloak is narrated, but the moment when Athena handed the cloak over to Jason. It is not stated whether Athena has made the cloak specially for Jason, but this seems a likely assumption.

In lines 725-6, the primary narrator addresses the primary narratee; he will do so again in lines 765-7 below. These lines have various functions. First, they refer to the intense brilliance of the cloak’s red colour (ἔρευνας). Second, they make explicit that...

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25 In Archaic epic, the exact meaning of πορφυρέεος is unclear (see the discussion in the LfgrE s.v. πορφυρέος B). Cf. also the discussion of this word in Schrier 1979: 316-22, who argues that the adjective also denotes radiance or lustre, and that πορφυρέεος rather frequently occurs in connection with Aphrodite.

26 Otto 2009: 190 notes that the ekphrasis is characterized by double ring composition. The ekphrasis is opened and closed by the name of its maker, Athena (θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος, 721; θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος...Ἀθήνης, 768). This outer ring encloses an inner ring, which indicates the effect of Jason’s cloak on the onlooker (725-6; 765-7). As for ring composition within the images, Hunter 1993: 52, note 26 states that "[t]he first six scenes on the cloak are bounded by ring-composition: both the Kyklopes and Tityos are children of Gaia (cf. Hes. Theog. 139)".

27 In Hes. Sc. 124-7, Heracles puts on a corselet, given to him by Athena: δεύτερον αὖ θώρηκα περὶ στήθεσσιν ἔδυνε / καλὸν χρύσειον πολυδαίδαλον, ὅν οἱ ἐδώκε / Παλλὰς Ἀθηναίη, κούρη Διός, ὁππότ’ ἔμελλε / τὸ πρῶτον στονόεντα ἐφορμήσεσθαι ἀέθλους, “second, he put around his chest a corselet, beautiful, golden, richly worked, which Pallas Athena, Zeus’ daughter, had given him, when first he was about to set out on his painful tasks”.

28 The addresses to the primary narratee in the Argonautica are investigated by Byre 1991. See further my remarks ad 765-7.

29 Faber 2000: 52-3 speaks of the "motif of the brilliant appearance of the weapon”; he compares e.g. Hes. Sc. 142-3. Fowler 1989: 17 notes that “[t]he word ἔρευνας ‘red’ is thematic in the Argonautica; it will take on several qualities and be part not only of the magic but of the eroticism that pervades the poem”. On έρευνας and its erotic association, see further Pavlock 1990: 29-34.
the ekphrasis is addressed solely to the primary narratee; not a single character looks at the cloak. Third, the lines are an invitation to look at the cloak. At the same time, they express the difficulty of looking at it, as the narratee runs the risk of being blinded.

Lines 727-9 refer to the *opus ipsum*, and provide the narratee with the general layout of the cloak. The narrator had first stated that the cloak was purple (722), after which he had turned to its red colour (726). In lines 727-8a, he clarifies the relation between these colours: the centre of the cloak is red (*μέσση μὲν ἐρευθήεσσα*), but it is purple at the edges (*ἄκρα δὲ πορφυρέη*). The particle γάρ in line 727 indicates that lines 727-8 must be regarded as elaboration or explanation of lines 725-6. The interactional particles δή...τοι (727) refer to shared perception between narrator and narratee (“as you might have seen”).

In lines 728b-9, the narrator turns to the images on the cloak: ἐν δ’ ἄρ’ ἑκάστῳ / τέρματι δαίδαλα πολλὰ διακρίδον εὖ ἐπέπαστο, “in each border many intricate designs

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27 Fränkel 1968: 100: “[z]ugleich ist aber hier die Ekphrasis abgesetzt von der umgebenden Erzählung und in einen Rahmen für sich allein gestellt durch Zwischenbemerkungen am Anfang und Ende (Vs. 725f. und 765-67), die nicht Personen des Epos zu Betrachtern des beschriebenen Gewandes machen (etwa die Argonauten oder die Frauen, analog zu IV 186-86 und 1147f.), sondern einen undefinierten Jemand, mit dem sich automatisch der Leser identifiziert”. Other scholars have also stated that the addresses to the narratee mark off the ekphrasis from the surrounding narrative (e.g. Shapiro 1980: 264, Rengakos 2006: 8).

31 Fusillo 1983: 84.

32 Goldhill 1991: 310: “[t]he brightness of the cloak is dazzling. Its depiction is introduced by an image of the difficulty of looking at it” (emphasis in the original). He concludes that “[t]he introduction to the ekphrasis and its final scene both emphasize, then, the difficulty of seeing the cloak distinctly, of not being dazzled by its purple (passages), of not being deceived by appearance. This is not to replace other allegorical readings with the suggestion that the cloak is an allegory of its own unreadability. It is rather to stress once more how Apollonius as he offers the allusive structures of allegory, prefigurement, a modelling of the narrative, interlaces his offer with the imagery of illusion, or misreading” (ibid.: 311).

33 He does so by making use of ring-composition: πορφυρέη (A, 722), ἐρευθός (B, 726); ἐρευθήεσσα (B, 727), πορφυρέη (A, 728).

34 Cf. Cuypers 2005: 58; Cuypers notes that of the five instances of τοι voiced by the narrator, three must be interpreted as an appeal to the narratees (1.727, 2.841, 3.958): “[i]n each case it appears in the context of a description, and reinforces an accompanying δή (...)” (ibid.: 63).
had, separately, been skilfully woven". As in the case of Achilles' shield, δαίδαλα πολλά refers to the images which will be described in the following lines. Ἐπέπαστο most likely indicates that these images have been woven into the cloak. Alternatively, they may have been embroidered on the cloak. Διακριδόν ("separately") indicates that each image is separate and self-contained. The phrase ἐν δ']==akkαττω / τέρματι locates the images in each border of the cloak. Yet how many borders does a cloak have? And what happens to the images when the cloak is folded? As in all other ekphraseis, the precise location of the images remains unclear. In other words, the Apollonian narrator remains vague on the precise lay-out of the opus ipsum, too.

After the narrator has dealt with the images in detail (730-67), he closes the description via ring-composition; τοῖσ' δῶρα θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος ἦεν Ἀθήνης (768) refers back to 721 (θεᾶς Ἰτωνίδος). The words τοῖσ'... δῶρα refer to the cloak as a whole. Jason is not yet fully armed: he next takes up his far-darting spear (ἔγχος ἑκηβόλον, 769). The narrator does not describe the appearance of the spear. Rather, he narrates the moment of the spear's handing over. He does so in another an external analepsis, which starts in

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35 It should be noted that ἐπέπαστο is a conjecture; the manuscripts read ἐκέκαστο. This is also the reading of the scholia, who gloss ἐκέκαστο as ἐκεκόσμητο, ἐπέκειτο (Wendel 1935: 61), "were embellished/adorned, were on". For this meaning of καίνυμαι, see LSJ s.v. καίνυμι ΙΙ ("to be adorned, equipped").

36 Kirk 1985: 280 comments ad Il. 3.126, where the verb ἐνέπασσεν is found, that "there is no doubt that the patterns are woven into the cloth and not embroidered on afterwards"; see also the LfgRe s.v. ὑφάνεια. B.

37 E.g. Shapiro 1980: 263, the cloak "is embroidered with a number of mythological scenes".


39 Collins 1967: 67 (see also next note) envisages a square cloth; the picture in Shapiro 1980: 277 contains a more round or oval cloak.

40 Cf. Collins 1967: 67: "[t]he question is this, Along what hems, or borders, were the scenes woven? Opened out as a spread, the diplax has four borders: how would seven tableaux be arranged on four borders?". I thus disagree with Zanker 1987: 69, who states that the narrator "tells us all we need to know about the disposition of the figures: they are woven separate from each other on each border of the cloak (728f.). This is a refinement on the procedure of Homer in his description of Achilles' shield (Il. 18.478-608), where the arrangement of the scenes still defies convincing reconstruction. Having clearly stated where the scenes are on the cloak, however, Apollonius can proceed with traditional tags like 'on it there were...' (ἐν μὲν ἔσαν) (...)."
a relative clause. The spear was a guest-gift from Atalanta. Thus, just as the cloak, the spear has an erotic connotation.41

6.2.5 Jason's Cloak: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Images (730-67)
The δαίδαλα πολλα (729) consist of seven images. As in the Homeric shield ekphrasis, the images are enumerated; the passage is thus characterised by refrain-composition.42 The Apollonian narrator makes use of the same introductory formulas (ἐν μὲν, 730; ἐν δὲ, 735, 747, 752), but varies them at the same time (ἐξείης δὲ, 742; ἐν καί, 759, 763).43 Each introductory formula is followed by a verb that expresses stasis; these verbs are either imperfects of εἰμί (ἔσαν, 730, 735; ἔσκεν, 747; ἔην, 763) or pluperfects of verbs of making (ἠσκητο, 742; πεπονήσατο, 752; ἐτέτυκτο, 759). Scholars have tried to link the various introductory elements to a certain structural arrangement of the images on the cloak.44 The word ἑξείης seems to indicate that the images are arranged in a linear sequence on the cloak.45 Yet the text does not offer conclusive evidence for any structural arrangement.46

All images draw their subject matter from myth. The cloak shares this mythical subject matter with Heracles' shield. The images are not directly connected to each

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42 For refrain composition, see section 3.3.2.
43 It should be noted that the last two images are asyndetically connected; καί means "also" in 759 and 763 (so Vian and Delage 1974: 85, "aussi").
44 Collins 1967: 66, for example, groups the images into three groups: images 1 and 2 (ἐν μὲν, ἐν δ'); images 3, 4, and 5 (ἐξείης, ἐν δὲ, ἐν δὲ); and images 6 and 7 (ἐν καί, ἐν καί), on account of the fact that the introductory formulae change direction twice among themselves. Yet on the basis of this assumption, image 3 should form a separate unit. Furthermore, the varying verbs that introduce each subtheme are not taken into account; for example, ἐν καί in 759 is followed by the pluperfect ἐτέτυκτο, but in 763 by the imperfect ἔην. Shapiro 1980: 276 argues for an ordering on the basis of symmetry and balance.
45 Byre 1976: 97. Strictly speaking, ἑξείης only locates image 3 next to image 2.
46 Cf. Hunter 1993: 57: "(...) but in the description and viewing of such a cloak one could presumably begin anywhere; descriptions of works of art in fiction always impose an order which dramatises this tension between 'static' material art and narrative, in which chronological sequence is crucial"; see also section 1.3.1.
other through their subject matter or by a single theme.\textsuperscript{47} The last image is directly related to the main story (Phrixus and the ram, 763-7).\textsuperscript{48} The other images are connected to the \textit{Argonautica} only by implication. Thus, the connections between the images themselves as well as between the images and the \textit{Argonautica} are dynamic, indirect and polyvalent.\textsuperscript{49}

The cloak contains the following seven images:

1. Cyclopes are forging a thunderbolt for Zeus (730-4)
2. Amphion and Zethus are laying the foundations for the walls of Thebes (735-41)
3. Aphrodite is holding up Ares’ shield (742-6)
4. The Teleboae/Taphians and the sons of Electryon are fighting (747-51)
5. Pelops and Hippodameia are in a chariot-race against Myrtilus and Oenomaus (752-8)
6. Apollo is shooting at Tityus, who is pulling Leto by her veil (759-62)
7. Phrixus is listening to the ram (763-7)

In what follows, the images will be investigated separately. First, I will discuss the \textit{text}, after which I turn to the \textit{image}.


\textsuperscript{48} According to Byre 1976: 105, "the mention of Phrixus and the ram, whose fleece is the object of their quest, reminds us both of the past events that led up to the present voyage and of that voyage’s future goal, and helps to lead from the \textit{ekphrasis} back to the narrative"; according to Thiel 1993: 47, "Phrixos am Ende der Bilderreihe dient als \textit{Sphragis}, Symbol für die Reise und deren Ziel, das Vlies" (emphasis mine).

\textsuperscript{49} I have borrowed these terms from Bal 1982: 144: "[t]he relation between description and novel is \textit{dynamic, indirect and polyvalent}" (emphasis in the original). This point is often made in connection with Jason’s cloak, for which see Hunter 1993: 58 ("scenes which are partial analogues of elements of the epic, with correspondences which are both oblique and polyvalent") and Klooster 2012: 73 ("[w]hereas some wish to read all the images as corresponding strictly to single events in the narrative, or functioning as lessons for Jason, it seems more attractive to read them in an associative, at times clearly paradigmatic, at other times more obliquely symbolic way: they do not all relate in the exact same way to elements of the narrative and often predicate on various themes and events simultaneously").
1. Cyclopes are forging a thunderbolt for Zeus (730-4)

The text which represents the first image has a descriptive structure. Only imperfects are found; the text proceeds by enumeration. As for other prototypically descriptive elements, I note two visual details: παμφαίνων (732) and σιδηρείῃς (734). Other details are ἀφθίτῳ (“endless”) and μαλεροῖο (“raging”). The text also contains two temporal adverbs (HELL, 731; ἔτι, 732). I discuss these below.

The image depicts an unknown number of Cyclopes, who are just about finishing a thunderbolt for Zeus. That the thunderbolt is made for Zeus is probably an inference by the narrator. Zeus need not be depicted, for the Cyclopes only forge thunderbolts for him. The image does not refer to a specific myth, but depicts the Cyclopes in one of their characteristic activities. This also seems to be implied by ἐπ’ ἀφθίτῳ ἥμενοι ἔργῳ, “busy with their endless work” (730).

The pluperfect ἐτέτυκτο in line 732 merits some attention. Usually in ekphraseis, pluperfects refer to the opus ipsum, that is, they direct attention to the physical medium...
or surface representation of the object. For example, the pluperfect τέτυκτο in 727 indicates that the centre of the cloak – the opus ipsum – itself is red. Very often, such pluperfects are found in the introductory lines of an image;64 ἐτέτυκτο stands out, because it is not found in an introductory line.65 In line 732, ἐτέτυκτο refers both to the opus ipsum as well as the res ipsae: not only does it refer to the way Athena has made the cloak, but also to the way the Cyclopes have made the thunderbolt (note ἐλάασκον, 733).

The first basic element of narrative, event sequencing, is absent: the image depicts a single moment in time only. It does, however, suggest both the previous stage and the next stage of the action. This is made explicit by the narrator in the text by two temporal adverbs. With ἤδη (“already”) the narrator suggests that the Cyclopes have been working on this single thunderbolt up until the “now” depicted on the cloak. Ἐτι (“still”), on the other hand, looks forward to the completion of the thunderbolt.67 By stating that only one ray is missing (μιῆς...μοῦνον / ἀκτίνος), the narrator indicates that its completion is not far off. Lines 733-4 (τὴν οἵ γε σιδηρείῃς ἐλάασκον / σφύρῃσιν, μαλεροῖο πυρὸς ζείουσιν ἀυτμήν) indicate that the Cyclopes are working very hard to beat out this last ray.68 The verb ἐλάασκον may function as an imperfect.69 Alternatively,

64 For pluperfects found in introductory lines, see ἐπέπαστο (729), ἤσκητο (742), πεπονήσατο (752), ἐτέτυκτο (759); similar pluperfects in Il. 18.574, Hes. Sc. 208, Mosch. Eur. 44, 56; see also the perfects in Theoc. Id. 1.34, 39.
65 Just as the pluperfect κεχάλαστο in 744, for which see below.
66 Cf. also Dubel 2010: 15, who notes regarding the pluperfect ἐτέτυκτο: “il s’applique, dans le reste de l’épithète au travail de l’étoffe (v. 727 et 759), mais le verbe ἐλάασκον, caractéristique du travail du métal, le fait ici basculer dans l’espace du référent; de même le terme ἔργον, qui désignait le manteau de Jason en ouverture de la description, s’applique ici à l’activité des Cyclopes, sinon à leur ouvrage même”.
67 For ἔτι in reference to a past state of affairs, see Hes. Sc. 241; ἤδη is also found in Hes. Sc. 172.
68 The use of adverbs such as ἤδη, ἔτι, οὔπω will become frequent in Philostratus’ Imagines (see Palm 1965-6: 168 and Guez 2012: 47).
69 I interpret ζείουσιν as a participle going with τὴν (732) and ἀυτμήν as its direct object. Alternatively, one can connect ζείουσιν with ἀυτμήν, which makes the ἀκτίς itself a glowing blast (so Mooney 1912: 115; Vian and Delage 1974: 84; Pavlock 1990: 34, note 39).
70 See Bühler 1960: 133: “[i]n nachhomerischer Zeit tritt die iterative Bedeutung der -σκ- Erweiterung ganz zurück. Meist soll diese die Tätigkeit als intensiv oder durativ kennzeichnen. Nicht selten läßt sich überhaupt kein Unterschied zwischen der erweiterten und der Normalform erkennen".
ἐλάασκον has iterative meaning, in which case the repeated hammering of the Cyclopes is emphasized. This means that the image suggests a sequence of identical events.60

The element of world disruption is not present in the image. The thunderbolt will, of course, be used by Zeus in battles against his opponents, but image depicts the forging of the thunderbolt, not its use. As for ‘what-it’s-like’, the present participle πονεύμενοι (“working hard”) may refer to how the Cyclopes experience their work. However, the two most important narrative elements, event sequencing and world disruption, are absent from the image; as a consequence, it is low in narrativity. The image only suggests a sequence of events.

Scholars agree that the first image on the cloak is connected to Orpheus’ cosmogonical song in 1.496-511. In fact, the image is regarded as a continuation of that song, since it depicts “(...) the next stage in world history after the point at which the cosmogonical song of Orpheus concluded (1.511)”.61 I quote the last five lines (507-11):

οἱ δὲ τέως μακάρεσσι θεοῖς Τιτῆτιν δίνασσον,
δόφρα Ζεὺς ἐτι κούρος, ἐτι φρεσὶ νήπια εἰδώς,
Δικταῖον ναίεσκεν ὑπὸ σπέος, οί δὲ μιν οὐ πω

These two [Cronus and Rhea] in the meantime ruled over the blessed Titan gods, while Zeus, still a child, still thinking childish thoughts, dwelt in the Dictaean cave, and the earthborn Cyclopes had not yet armed him with the thunderbolt, thunder, and lighting, for these give Zeus his glory.

The connection with the song of Orpheus slightly changes the interpretation of the image. First of all, the event depicted in the image is now seen to belong to a larger sequence of events, a sequence that starts with Zeus as a child (Ζεὺς ἔτι κούρος, 508). Second, the narratee may start to wonder (οὐ πω / γηγενέες Κύκλωπες ἐκαρτύναντο κεραυνῷ, 509-10) whether the image depicts the forging of Zeus’ first thunderbolt. This would change the depicted event from a habitual action into a specific one. This action

60 According to Byre 1976: 99, “[t]he stasis of the represented scenes is maintained throughout, the nearest approximation to a violation of it being the iterative ἐλάασκον (733)”. Here, I would argue that a distinction between text and image is helpful: the image is necessarily static, but it may suggest repeated action. This suggestion is expressed in the text by ἐλάασκον.
is, furthermore, significant, because the thunderbolt gives Zeus his glory (τὰ γὰρ Διὶ κόσμος ὑπάξει, 511). Along this line of interpretation, the narrativity of the image is augmented: it no longer depicts an habitual, normal action, but a significant one with important consequences.

It is surely no coincidence that the narrator has the ekphrasis begin where the song of Orpheus ends. If Orpheus’ song exemplifies poetry, and Jason’s cloak visual art, then the conclusion could be drawn that the narrator of the Argonautica views the relationship between poetry and visual art as complementary: both media tell stories, though by their own means. The effect of poetry and visual art is comparable, too. After Orpheus has finished his song, the Argonauts are enchanted: τοὶ δὲ ἁμοῦν λήξαντος ἐτὶ προύχοντο κάρηνα, / πάντες ὁμῶς ὀρθοῖσιν ἐπ’ οὔασιν ἠρεμέοντες / κηληθμῷ· τοῖόν σφιν ἐνέλλιπε θελκτὺν ἀοιδῆς (1.513-5), “and they, although he had ceased, still leaned their heads forwards longingly, one and all, with intent ears, immobile with enchantment; such was the spell of song that he left within them”. We may compare lines 765-8, where the viewer of the last image likewise becomes enchanted.

Scholars are agreed that the song of Orpheus alludes to the Homeric shield of Achilles. In later antiquity, a cosmic interpretation of Achilles’ shield was common. In the words of Nelis, “Apollonius was obviously aware of the allegorical reading of the Homeric shield in Empedoclean terms when he began his Empedoclean song of Orpheus with verbal allusion to the shield in Iliad 18”. Furthermore, the song of Orpheus is modelled on the songs of Demodocus in Odyssey 8. Thus, the first image on

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62 Conversely, DeForest 1994: 93 draws attention to the differences between the arts. After having noted the similarity between διέκριθεν (1.498, in the song of Orpheus) and διακριδόν (1.729), she comments: “[t]he verbal echo also catches the essential difference between narrative and pictorial art. Narrative describes events moving through time; pictures show an event frozen in time. The song describes elements in the process of separating, the pictures illustrate the product of separation”.

63 Cf. DeForest 1994: 143.


65 Nelis 2001: 351 (with further references). For the correspondences between song and shield, see Nelis 1992: 158.

66 Hunter 1993: 149-50; the correspondences are listed by Nelis 1992: 157-9 and, in brief, by Feeney 1991: 67, note 32: “(...) Orpheus’ song begins with νεῖκος, as does Demodocus’ first song in the Odyssey (8.75); and its theme is cosmogony, which was thought to be the (allegorically
the cloak continues a story told in a song. This song, in turn, is inspired both by visual art (the shield of Achilles) as well as by song itself (the songs of Demodocus). The relation between poetry and visual art, then, is indeed complementary.67

2. Amphion and Zethus are laying the foundations for the walls of Thebes (735-41)
The text has a descriptive structure. Only imperfects are found. The text proceeds by enumeration, but in line 737 progression is spatial (πέλας); spatial markers are also found in lines 738 (ἐπωμαδόν), 740 (ἐπί), and 741 (μετά). As in the previous image, two temporal adverbs are found, too: ἔτι (736) and νέον (737). As for other prototypical features of description, I note the following visual details: the mountain is high (ἡλιβάτοιο, 739), Amphion’s lyre is made of gold (χρυσέῃ, 740), and the rock is twice as big as the mountain (δὶς τόσση, 741); Thebes is said to be ἀπύργωτος (736).

The image depicts Amphion and Zethus, who are laying the foundation-stones (δομαίους, sc. λίθους) for the walls of Thebes. The story is known from a number of sources. In Od. 11.260-5, the narrator relates that Odysseus saw Antiope, daughter of Asopus, who bore Amphion and Zethus; they first founded Thebes and fenced it with towers.68 According to Hesiod (fr. 182 M-W), the brothers built the walls of Thebes with a lyre.69 In the image, however, only Amphion uses the lyre.

The image does not contain a sequence of events. It does, however, suggest a future state of affairs. Thebes is said to be ἀπύργωτος δ’ ἔτι, “still without towers” (736). The temporal adverb ἔτι modifies the adjective ἀπύργωτος. The adjective ἀπύργωτος, on account of its alpha privans, would on its own also refer to a future state of affairs, since expressed) theme of Demodocus’ second song, with Ares representing νεῖκος in the universe, and Aphrodite φιλία (Od. 8.260-266).67

It should be further noted that the first image on Jason’s cloak also recalls the maker of the shield of Achilles, Hephaestus (see e.g. Clauss 1993: 120-1, 123; Dubel 2010: 15). The image alludes to the lines preceding the shield ekphrasis, when Hephaestus is visited by Thetis while working on twenty tripods (II. 18.372-9). There, too, the objects that are being made are not yet finished: the tripods still miss their handles (οἳ δ’ ήτοι τόσσον μὲν ἔχον τέλος, οὔατα δ’ οὔ πω / δαιδάλεα προσέκειτο, “and they were so far finished, but the cunningly fashioned handles were not yet on them” (378-9).

In both passages, Antiope is called the daughter of Asopus (Ἀντιόπην … Ἀσωποῖο θύγατρα, Od. 11.260; Ἀντιόπης Ἀσωπίδος, A.R. 1.735); the Homeric hapax ἀπύργωτον (Od. 11.264) is repeated in A.R. 1.736.

For other ancient sources that tell this myth, see the references by Stoll in Roscher 1884-90: 313-14 and Heubeck 1990: 93 (ad Od. 11.260-5).
Thebes was famous for its towers. By using ἔτι, however, the narrator underscores the fact that Amphion and Zethus are now building Thebes. The narrator indicates by another temporal adverb, νέον (“just now”, 737), that the brothers have just started to build Thebes. Thus, although the narrator refers to a future state of affairs – the completion of Thebes – its completion lies in the distant future, as its construction has only just begun. In the case of the previous image, the completion of the thunderbolt lies in the near future: the Cyclopes are working on the last missing ray (732-4).

The image does not contain world disruption. Both brothers are working eagerly (ἱέμενοι, 738). Zethus is shouldering a high mountain, and looks like a man toiling hard (μογέον ἐοικώς, 739). Amphion, following after him, is playing on his lyre; he is moving a rock twice as big (740-1). The twins are working in harmony, and the text offers no direct indications that this harmony will be disturbed. Yet in the fact that both are eager, that Zethus is working very hard, and Amphion is moving a boulder twice as big by simply playing on his lyre, the narratee could discern a certain rivalry between the two brothers. This interpretation is facilitated by the fact that both brothers were

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70 For νέον used adverbially see LSJ s.v. νέος III; Vian and Delage 1974: 84 translate “ils venaient seulement d’en jeter les fondations” (emphasis mine).
71 As all ekphrastic narrators, the Apollonian narrator also describes mental states: ἐθέλοντες (749) and ἐπεσσύμενος (758).
72 In most ekphraseis, phrases with ἐοικώς and the like compare art with reality (see e.g. Hes. Sc. 198, 206; differently Theoc. Id. 1.41). In the Apollonian ekphrasis, according to Shapiro 1980: 280, the phrase “is reserved for those figures who transcend not simply the limits of art, but of natural life, viz. a man lifting a mountain and, later on, a talking ram [764]. Such scenes of wonder (θαῦμα) complement the wonderful workmanship of the garment, its colors and luminosity, to reinforce the impression of its unique splendor”.
73 The participle λιγαίνων (740) refers to sound, which cannot, strictly speaking, be depicted. Yet because the narrator first mentions Amphion’s golden lyre (χρυσέῃ φόρμιγγι), this detail is easily accepted as an inference; similarly II. 18.495 and 570-1.
74 Frazer 1921: 339, note 2 writes that Apollonius “seems to have intended to suggest the feebleness of brute strength by comparison with the power of genius”; Lawall 1966: 155 notes that “[t]he lesson is obvious: magical charm accomplishes more than muscle”. Merriam 1993: 75, on the other hand, emphasizes the necessity of cooperation between the two brothers: “[w]hile it is true that Amphion, with his lyre and singing, is moving twice as many stones as Zethos is by main force, Zethos is moving stones and is contributing to the building of Thebes. Both forces [charm and strength] are essential to the establishment of the city” (emphasis in the original).
regarded as embodying opposite values (e.g. the practical life and the contemplative or artistic life). The narrator, however, remains silent on this issue.

As for the element of 'what-it's-like', this is expressed by the phrase μογέοντι ἐοικώς (739). In conclusion, the narrativity of the image is low: event sequencing and world disruption are absent. The image does suggest a future state of affairs; in addition, the image may allude to rivalry or antagonism between Amphion and Zethus.

3. Aphrodite is holding up Ares’ shield (742-6)

The text has a prototypically descriptive structure. Two perfects occur (ἤσκητο, 742; κεχάλαστο, 744), and one imperfect (φαίνετο, 746); all verbs are middle(-passive). Textual progression is enumerative. The text is rich in spatial markers: ἐκ (743), ἐπί (744), νέρθε παρέκ (745), ἐν (746); note also ἀντίον (745). As for other prototypical descriptive elements, the following visual details occur: βαθυπλόκαμος (742) and χαλκείῃ (746). Other details are δοῦν (743), σκαιόν (744), and ἀτρεκές (745).

In contrast to the two previous images, which depicted figures at work, the third image depicts a figure in complete stasis. Aphrodite is holding up Ares’ shield, half-naked; in this shield, her reflection can be seen. The image lacks all three basic elements of narrative. The image does, however, suggest a sequence of events. In line 744, the narrator uses the pluperfect κεχάλαστο. Just as ἐτέτυκτο in line 732, this pluperfect refers to the res ipsae. By using a pluperfect, the narrator can also refer to the action of which the state expressed by the pluperfect is the result. Thus, in the case of κεχάλαστο, even though the narrator refers to a state (the juncture of Aphrodite’s dress has slipped down), the previous action (the slipping down) is simultaneously also referred to. This effect is strengthened by the word order, which iconically mirrors this
act of slipping down: from Aphrodite’s shoulder (ἐκ δὲ οἱ ὦμοι, 743), onto her left forearm (πῆχυν ἐπι σκατόν, 744), and then beneath her breast (νέρθε παρὲκ μαζοῖο, 745). In line 743, the narrator states that Aphrodite is holding up Ares’ agile shield (θοὸν σάκος), which she seems to be using as a mirror.80 It is not explicitly stated whether Aphrodite is actually looking at her own reflection; it also remains unclear what precisely is reflected (her breasts?).81 At any rate, by making Aphrodite’s reflection (δείκηλον) the subject of the verb φαίνετο (746), the narrator draws attention to what is depicted on the cloak, rather than to what Aphrodite is doing; the verb refers both to the opus ipsum and the res ipsae. By using the middle infinitive ἰδέσθαι to suggest an emotional overtone of wonder,82 the narrator draws attention to the exquisite quality of the cloak, which contains the representation of a reflected image.83

Bewegung hervorzurufen, ohne doch durch das Hereinziehen wirklicher Bewegung den Eindruck zu fälschen”.

79 Cf. Pavlock 1990: 38, who writes that “[t]he seductive appeal of this panel is reinforced by the arrangement of its elements so as to direct the reader’s gaze in a linear movement”.

80 Dubel 2010: 16 draws attention to the metapoetic play in these lines: “[d]e la même façon que le bouclier d’Achille est devenu l’étoffe d’un manteau, le bronze d’Arès n’est qu’un effet du travail de broderie ou de tissage. La pièce d’armement est détournée en objet de toilette; son épisème, en place d’un terrifiant gorgonéion, présente le visage de la déesse de la beauté: le motif héroïque a été systématiquement détourné en motif érotique, et ce ‘bouclier de bronze’ n’est plus ni bouclier ni bronze. L’objet qui servait de support à l’ecphrasis archaïque est ici devenu l’ornement d’un nouveau support, un manteau, où il continue d’ailleurs à générer des images, en l’occurrence le reflet d’Aphrodite – un joli symbole du travail de réécriture opéré par Apollonios”; see on this point also Schmale 2004: 119-20.

81 Zanker 2004: 56: “[w]e are left to assume that the picture of Aphrodite’s décolletage is what appeared on the depiction of the shield. Interestingly, we are not told that Aphrodite is actually looking at the reflection of herself”.

82 For this use of the middle verb ὁράομαι, see Allan 2006: 112-3. The infinitive ἰδέσθαι also occurs in the phrase θαῦμα ἰδέσθαι, sometimes found in ekphraseis (see e.g. Sc. 140, 224, but 318 θαῦμα ἰδεῖν). Here, φαίνετ’ has the same (metrical) position as θα_markup_μα; in addition, the phrase has the same position in the hexameter as θα_markup_μα ἰδέσθαι, i.e. at line-end. The Apollonian narrator, then, does not state that the image was a wonder to behold; rather, he expresses this wonder through what can be seen on the cloak.

83 Feeney 1991: 70 (building on Zanker 1987: 69) notes that that the lines are reminiscent of statuary, and that the image is “a representation in words of a representation in cloth of a representation in marble of a goddess – and her reflection"
The narratee may wonder in what situation Aphrodite finds herself. Zanker notes that the image contains an everyday element, in that it shows Aphrodite at toilet. Yet the fact that the shield belongs to Ares is important. The mention of Ares is an inference, just as the mention of Zeus in 731. Ares does not seem to be depicted, since he is not described by the narrator. Ares’ name is a sign for the narratee how to interpret the image: Aphrodite and Ares were lovers. For example, Collins writes that the image “is an amusing picture of the goddess as a tousled courtesan, on the morning after a night with Ares, who, because of the presence of his shield, must still be in bed, sleeping late”. It could also be the case that the robe has slipped down because Aphrodite was undressing, and that she is now admiring herself in the mirror before she will share Ares’ bed. The mention of Ares, then, makes clear that the image does not merely depict Aphrodite at her toilet, but that it depicts Aphrodite as an unfaithful wife.

Berkowitz has drawn attention to the fact that it may strike the narratee as strange that Athena, a virgin goddess who characterizes herself as unfamiliar with erotic affairs (A.R. 3.32-3), has fashioned an erotic image on Jason’s cloak. He notes that there are ancient statues and coins which show an armed Aphrodite; and that Aphrodite could be called ἡπλισμένη even when holding a shield only. He suggests that the primary narrator may have read eroticism into the image of Aphrodite on the cloak, eroticism for which Athena is not responsible, who only wanted to depict an armed Aphrodite. In that case, the narrator “wrongly” infers that the shield belongs to Ares. We may compare the goatherd in Theocritus’ first *Idyll*, who is also said to misinterpret the

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84 Zanker 1987: 69.
85 Collins 1967: 73, who is followed by Pavlock 1990: 36 (“[t]he shield is presumably in her possession because she has just made love to her paramour”). Otto 2009: 191 is less specific on the represented moment of time: “[h]ei dieser Szene handelt es sich offensichtlich um einen Ausschnitt aus der Affaire zwischen Aphrodite und Ares, von der in der *Odyssee* Demodokos am Hofe der Phaiaken berichtet (*Od. 8.266-366)*”.
86 As in *Od. 8.266-369*, Hephaestus is Aphrodite’s husband in the *Argonautica*, too (see e.g. 3.37-40).
88 Berkowitz 2004: 125: “[i]t would surely be appropriate for a warrior goddess such as Athena to present an armed Aphrodite on Jason’s cloak. Athena, then, would not be responsible for the eroticism that people see in the image of Aphrodite. This eroticism should instead be attributed to the moral narrator who describes the image”.
images.\textsuperscript{89} However, as in the case of the goatherd, there seems to be no good reason to distrust the Apollonian narrator.\textsuperscript{90}

4. The Teleboae/Taphians and the sons of Electryon are fighting (747-51)

The text has a prototypically descriptive structure. Only imperfects occur; textual progression is enumerative; one spatial marker is found (ἀμφί, 747).\textsuperscript{91} As for other prototypical descriptive elements, I note the following visual details, which relate to the appearance of the meadow: λάσιος (747) and ἑρσήεις (751). The other details relate to the number of people involved: πολέες δ’ ὀλίγους (751).

The image depicts a fight in progress between an unspecified number of figures (but see below). It is a general mêlée: no individuals are singled out. A fight for cattle is also depicted in the city at war on the shield of Achilles (18.525-9).\textsuperscript{92} In the Homeric ekphrasis, the figures are anonymous; here, the figures are identified by the narrator: the attackers are the Teleboae (748), which are also called Taphians (ληισταὶ Τάφιοι, 750); the owners and defenders of the cattle are the sons of Electryon (748). The myth, of which there are a number of different versions, is found in various sources.\textsuperscript{93} In the Catalogue of Women, Electryon has nine sons (and a single daughter, Alcmene) who are

\textsuperscript{89} See section 5.3.3.1.
\textsuperscript{90} As for A.R. 3.32-3, cf. Pavlock 1990: 31: “[a]lthough depicting erotic material in this tapestry, the goddess later ironically admits to no understanding whatsoever of love affairs and is totally incapacitated when Hera asks for advice about helping Jason through Medea” (emphasis mine). Another explanation in Merriam 1993: 77, note 16: “[t]he picture on the cloak of Aphrodite admiring herself was originally fashioned by Athene [sic], whose gift the cloak was. And yet Athene claims to be ill acquainted with Aphrodite and her works (3.32-5), and seems to hold the Cyprian goddess in mild contempt. We should also recall Athene’s mockery of Aphrodite when the latter is wounded by Diomedes in Iliad 5 (421-25). That Apollonius has Athene portray Aphrodite in such mock-martial circumstances may be taken as an amused comment on the relations between the two daughters of Zeus” (emphasis mine).
\textsuperscript{91} ἀμφί (747) may mean either “around the cattle” or “about, for the sake of the cattle” (see LSJ s.v. ἀμφί B I and IV); cf. Il. 18.528.
\textsuperscript{92} The introductory line of this image (ἐν δὲ βοῶν ἔσκεν λάσιος νομός) also sounds Homeric, in that it introduces a location, rather than figures (730, 735, 742, 759, 763) or objects (752).
\textsuperscript{93} For the ancient sources, see Bulloch 2006: 62, note 26. He notes that “[t]he whole sequence of events is recounted (though not with all details) as early as Hesiod’s Catalogue of Women.”
all killed by the Taphians; according to the scholiast ad 747-51a, Electryon also dies. The reason for the fight is given by the scholiast ad 1.747-51b: the Teleboae had come to claim the cattle as part of their inheritance, but Electryon refused. The aftermath of the cattle raid is disastrous for Electryon: Amphitryon, who marries his daughter Alcmene, kills him when retrieving the cattle, either accidently or out of anger.

The image does not contain a sequence of events. It does refer to the way the fight will end, since the sons of Electryon are outnumbered (πολέες δ' ὀλίγους βιόωντα νομῆας, 751). The allusion to the cattle raid on the shield of Achilles further supports this interpretation: there, too, the herdsmen (though only two in number) are killed (18.530). The exact stage of the fight cannot be determined: it is not stated how many attackers or defenders have already been killed.

World disruption is present: a fight is by definition a disruptive event. As is to be expected, the two parties have different motives, which the narrator indicates in line

94 See fragment 193.12-20 (M-W) and West 1985: 111. In Apollod. 2.4.6, one son of Electryon survives.
95 γενομένης δὲ μάχης καὶ οἱ τούτου παῖδες ἀνηρέθησαν (Wendel 1935: 63), "after a battle had arisen, both Electryon and his sons were killed".
96 Herodorus states about the fight, that the sons of Perseus and Andromeda were Alcaeus, Sthenelaus, Mentor, Electryon, and that they jointly had the kingdom. The daughter of Mentor was Hippothoë; of her and Poseidon Pterelaos was a son; the children of Pterelaos were Teleboas and Taphios, after whom the island [is named]. As some [say], those who are called the Teleboae were children of Teleboas, the son of Pterelaos. After they had gone to Electryon, they demanded back from him what belonged to their grandmother Hippothoë; and the sons of Electryon, having withstood them, were killed by them"; see also Apollod. 2.4.6.
97 The first version in Apollod. 2.4.6, the latter in Hes. Sc. 11-2 (on which see Russo [1950] 1965: 10-11). The Shield (14-56) also relates that Amphitryon was not allowed to have sex with his wife before he had avenged the death of her brothers; on the night he returns, he has sex with Alcmene, who earlier on that night had had sex with Zeus. She gives birth to twins, Iphicles and Heracles. The latter is, of course, one of the Argonauts. See further Collins 1967: 74-5 and Merriam 1993: 74.
749: one party defends the cattle, but the other is bent on stealing it (οἱ μὲν ἀμυνόμενοι, 
ἀτάρ ὡς ἐθέλοντες ἀμέρσαι, 749). With ἐθέλοντες, the narrator moves away from what 
can be depicted, but the inference is a likely one. The disruptive nature of the event is 
also clear from the fact that the dewy meadow is wet with human blood (τῶν δὲ ἁματί 
δεύτερι λειμῶν / ἑρσήεις, 750-1).98 Merriam even speaks of “the only truly horrific scene on 
the cloak”.99 As for the element of ‘what-it’s-like’, the narrator does not refer to the 
feelings of the figures. The bloody meadow does indicate that the fighting is brutal. 

The narratee may wonder how the narrator has been able to identify the figures as 
the Teleboae/Taphians and the sons of Electryon – in other words, what clues the 
image contains so as to make their identification possible.100 In all other images, the 
identification of the figures is easy. A fight between herdsmen and their attackers need 
not refer to a specific myth, as the city at war on the shield of Achilles makes clear. If 
the image would depict nine herdsmen, these could then be identified as the sons of 
Electryon; he has nine sons in the Hesiodic Catalogue of Women. The narrator does not 
specify the number of figures, however: he speaks of few herdsmen (ὀλίγους…νομῆας, 
751). Yet it seems safe to assume that the learned Hellenistic narratee would know that 
Electryon had nine sons. Thus, the words υἱέες Ἠλεκτρύωνος may automatically refer to 
nine figures; this, in turn, would have allowed the narrator to identify the figures in this 
image.

5. Pelops and Hippodameia are in a chariot-race against Myrtilus and Oenomaus (752-8) 
The text has a prototypically descriptive structure. It features one pluperfect and two 
imperfekts. The aorist ἤλασεν (755) may seem out of place, but can be accounted for 
within the descriptive discourse mode as an anterior aorist (see further below). Textual 
progression is enumerative. Three spatial markers occur: προπάροιθε (753).

98 I wonder how the adjective ἑρσήεις, “dewy” should be interpreted. Does it characterize the 
meadow as lovely, and hence creates a contrast between the bucolic meadow and the carnage 
taking place in it (cf. Hunter 1993: 54)? Or does ἑρσήες rather point to a meadow that is wet with 
(because of) blood? For the association of dew and blood, see e.g. Il. 11.52-5 and Boedeker 1984: 
74-9.
99 Merriam 1993: 73.
100 Cf. Collins 1967: 74: “Apollonius is practically the only source for this part of the story – 
perhaps its obscurity attracted him to it”; he refers to Peschties 1912: 23 (non vidi).
μεταδρομάδην (755), and ἐν (757). As for other prototypically descriptive features of the text, visual details are scarce. I note δύω (752) and προτενές (756).

The image depicts two competing chariots in full speed. The chariot in the lead is guided by Pelops; Hippodameia is standing next to him. The other chariot is guided by Myrtilus; Oenomaus is falling out, because the axle is breaking. The race depicted is part of a larger myth that is well-known, though the story varies. The myth is told by the scholiast ad 1.752-58a as follows (I quote the paraphrase by Collins): "Oenomaus had an oracle saying that he would be undone by his son-in-law; and so he decided to marry his daughter to no one but the man who could defeat him in a race. In this fashion he had disposed of thirteen suitors. But Pelops came with horses given him by Poseidon. And Hippodameia persuaded Myrtilus (…) to substitute a piece of wax for one of the linch-pins in her father’s own chariot (…)".

The image does not contain a sequence of events: it depicts one moment only. It does suggest what happened before the depicted moment, and what will happen after. Pelops and Hippodameia are in the chariot in the lead (753-4). Myrtilus is just behind them: τοῦ δὲ μεταδρομάδην ἐπὶ Μυρτίλος ἤλασεν ἵππους, "Myrtilus had driven the horses of the other [chariot] in close pursuit" (755). The anterior aorist ἐπὶ…ἤλασεν refers to an action that is already completed. On the cloak, not the action itself but its result is depicted: Myrtilus is just behind Pelops, which means that he has driven his horses just

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101 ἐπί (755) goes with the verb ἤλασεν.
102 Collins 1967: 75-6; scholiast in Wendel 1935: 64-5; the thirteen suitors are mentioned in Pi. Ol. 1.79. In this same ode, the victory is due to the golden chariot and winged horses that Pelops gets from Poseidon (1.87-8; cf. Gerber 1982: 134-6 ad 1.87). For other versions, see Apollod. Epit. 2.4-9 with Frazer’s extensive notes.
103 According to Schmale 2004: 118, "[w]enn die Achse bricht, fällt Oinomaos (758: πῖπτεν), der im Vers zuvor noch neben Myrtilos stehend beschrieben ist, vom Wagen; hier liegt das einzige Mal Unklarheit darüber vor, welcher Moment tatsächlich auf dem Bild dargestellt sein soll". However, σὺν τῷ δ’ Οἰνόμαος does not mean that Oenomaus is standing; it means that Oenomaus is depicted next to Myrtilus.
104 The manuscripts read τὸν δέ. If this reading is retained, ἐπελαύνω governs a double accusative (cf. Mooney 1912: 17 ad loc., who notes that “the double acc. with ἐπελαύνειν is an innovation”).
105 The aorist is understood as anterior by Vian and Delage 1974: 85, note 1 ("[[l]’aoriste ἤλασεν avec valeur de plus-que-parfait peut être maintenu comme en 3.762 (…)". According to Platt 1919: 74, “the context shews ἤλασεν to be an impossible tense”. Comparing ἤλαεν in 3.872, he proposes to read the imperfect ἤλαεν (adopted by Fränkel).
behind him. By using an anterior aorist, this foregoing action is implied.\textsuperscript{106} The verb also suggests that Myrtilus was first (perhaps far) behind Pelops, and has just now reached Pelops. The narrator thus adds tension to the image.

Oenomaus is depicted while falling out of the chariot, because the axle is breaking. Both breaking and falling are telic verbs, which means they have a natural endpoint.\textsuperscript{107} The present participle \textit{ἀγνυμένοιο} (757) and the imperfect \textit{πῖπτεν} (758) both refer to actions that are not completed, but that are ongoing in the now of the picture. Yet because they are telic verbs – the action of which takes, furthermore, only a short time to complete – the completion of this action is anticipated. Thus, both \textit{ἀγνυμένοιο} and \textit{πῖπτεν} imply a moment in the near future, in which the axle will be broken and Oenomaus will have fallen.

Although the image is necessarily static, the narrator describes the figures in a way which suggests that the actions are following upon each other. (1) Pelops is in the lead, shaking the reins (753-4), probably to incite his horses to go faster. (2) Close behind him, Myrtilus has almost overtaken Pelops (\textit{μεταδρομάδην}, 755). Oenomaus is positioned next to him (\textit{σὺν τῷ δ’ Οἰνόμαος}), with a forward-pointing spear in his hand (\textit{προτενὲς δόρυ χειρὶ μεμαρπώς}, 756). This line lacks a verb, which may lead the narratee to assume that Oenomaus is standing. Furthermore, from the fact that Oenomaus has a forward-pointing spear in his hand, the narratee will infer that he is trying to stab Pelops. (3) Yet Oenomaus is not standing, but falling out of the chariot in his attempt to stab Pelops in the back (757-8). By the order of the description as well as the piecemeal disclosure of information, the narrator suggests that these actions follow after each other. This procedure strengthens the idea that the image is full of action and movement.\textsuperscript{108}

World disruption is present. Oenomaus clearly expects to kill Pelops, just as he killed the previous thirteen suitors. He is depicted in the very act of trying to kill Pelops, an attempt that fails because the axle of the chariot breaks. This must come as a surprise for Oenomaus. The mention of Myrtilus may remind the narratee that he

\textsuperscript{106} As such, \textit{ἐπὶ...δὴλασεν} is used in a similar way as the pluperfect \textit{κεχάλαστο} in line 744 above.

\textsuperscript{107} For a definition of telicity, see Smith 2003: 293: “[t]elic events have a natural final endpoint (\textit{draw a circle, walk to school}).”

\textsuperscript{108} According to Hunter 1993: 57, note 53, “[t]he narrative of the chariot race and perhaps the details in \textit{ἐμενε} and \textit{λεγαίνων} (738, 740) may be thought to stretch the bounds of ‘representability’” (emphasis mine). The narrative of the chariot race can be represented, for it is very much a \textit{visual} one.
betrayed Oenomaus. The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is not present. The narrativity of the image, then, is due to the disruptive nature of the depicted event. Important, too, is the presence of action and movement. The image also suggests a sequence of events.

Hippodameia stands out in this dynamic image, because she is the only figure not involved in an action. She is merely standing in Pelops’ chariot (ἔσκε παραιβάτις Ἰπποδάμεια, 754). The scholiast cannot believe that Hippodameia would actually take part in the race. He sees a reference to another future event, Pelops’ victory: οὐχ ὅτι αὐτῷ κατὰ τὸν ἀγώνα συμπαρῆν, ἀλλ’ ὅτι ὁ τεχνίτης ἀμφότερα δείξαι θέλων, καὶ τὸν δρόμον καὶ τὴν νίκην, τούτο πεποίηκεν, “not because she stood by him [sc. Pelops] during the contest, but because the craftsman, wanting to show both things, both the race and the victory, has made it [sc. the picture] [thus]”. Fränkel agrees that Hippodameia’s presence is symbolic. He further notes that the image is perhaps synoptic.

Hippodameia is, of course, the “prize” of the contest, but even if she were not present the narratee would know that Pelops wins the race and marries her. Yet in some versions of the myth, Hippodameia does accompany Pelops on his chariot. In most ancient visual depictions, Hippodameia is found in Pelops’ chariot, too. Lastly, the other images on the cloak are not synoptic. The interpretation of the scholiast must therefore be rejected.

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110 In the end, Pelops will be victorious. We may compare the chariot race depicted on Heracles’ shield (Hes. Sc. 305-11). The pseudo-Hesiodic narrator states that “never for them [the charioteers] victory was achieved, but they had a contest undecided” (οὐδέ ποτέ σφιν / νίκη ἐπηνύσθη, ἀλλ’ ἄκριτον εἶχον ἄεθλον, 310-11). The Apollonian narrator, on the other hand, refers to an image which suggests a victory.
111 Wendel 1935: 65 (ad 1.752-58b). I want to draw attention to the fact that the scholion speaks of ὁ τεχνίτης rather than ὁ ποιητής: the scholiast, too, discusses the image, though he forgets that Athena is a woman.
112 Fränkel 1964: 105: “Apollonios meint es symbolisch (und vielleicht auch dem archaischen Bildstil entsprechend), wenn er bereits auf dem Wagen im Rennen Pelops vereint sein ließ mit dem Mädchen, das der Fahrer durch seinen Sieg gewann”. For the term synoptic, see 1.4.3.
113 See e.g. Apollod. Ἐπ. 2.5.
114 Lacroix 1976: 337; see also Shapiro 1980: 283.
6. Apollo is shooting at Tityus, who is pulling Leto by her veil (759-62)

The text of the sixth image has both a prototypically descriptive and narrative textual structure. Lines 759-761a have a descriptive textual organization; only one verb is found, the pluperfect ἐτέτυκτο (759), accompanied by two present participles (ὀιστεύων, 759; ἐρύοντα, 760), which refer to the ongoing actions in which the figures are involved. One temporal adverb occurs, too (οὔ πω, 760). Lines 761b-2 have a prototypically narrative structure. The relative clause forms an external analepsis (three anterior aorists: ἔτεκεν, 761; θρέψεν, ἐλοχεύσατο, 762). Thus, these lines are clearly marked as diegetic. They do not refer to what is depicted on the cloak, but provide background information regarding Tityus' birth.

As for other prototypically descriptive elements, the occurring details relate to the size of the figures (βούπαις, οὔ πω πολλός, 760; μέγαν, 761). The image depicts three figures: Apollo is shooting at Tityus, who is dragging Apollo's mother by her veil. In Od. 11.576-81 the punishment of Tityus is mentioned, who had assaulted Leto. In the Odyssey, it is not told who killed Tityus. In Pi. P. 4.90-2, it is Artemis who kills him; according to another version, he is slain by both Artemis and Apollo. In the image on Jason's cloak, it is Apollo alone who is killing Tityus.

The image depicts one moment in time. Event sequencing is absent, but the image does refer to a future event: the killing of Tityus is foreshadowed by ὀιστεύων (759). Apollo is called βούπαις, οὔ πω πολλός, "a big boy, not yet fully grown" (760).

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95 The scholia mention two versions of Tityus' birth, for which see Mooney 1912: 117; see also Frazer ad Apollod. 1.4.1.
96 Scholars are bothered by these lines. For example, Hunter 1993: 57, note 53 states that “[t]he genealogy of Tityos is always adduced as the ‘unrepresentable’ exception; the point is not be pressed, however, as it can be argued that to represent ‘a person’ is to represent their genealogy – Tityos and ‘the child of Elare, the nursling of Earth’ are, in this sense, synonymous”. Apart from the fact that this is a dubious line of reasoning, there is no need in the first place to view Tityus’ genealogy as an “unrepresentable exception”: the relative clause is by its verbal form marked as background information that does not refer to what is depicted on the cloak.
97 See Braswell 1988: 184 (ad 90 (c)); “sch. 160b reports that according to Pherecydes (= FGrHist 3 F 56), Tityus was slain by both Artemis and Apollo”. This is also the version in Apollod. 1.4.1.
98 According to Merriam 1993: 79, “[t]his is the only version of the story of Tityos in which Apollo is solely responsible for avenging his mother’s insult” (emphasis in the original).
99 For the meaning of βούπαις, the commentators refer to the scholia, who explain it as μέγας παῖς, σύνια τέλαιος ἀνήρ, “a big boy, not yet a fully grown man” (Wendel 1935: 65). According to Collins 1967: 76-7, note 48 and Byre 1976: 114 βούπαις, also used in Ar. V. 1206, may carry a comic overtone.
combination οὔ πω (a negative and a temporal adverb) modifies the adjective πολλός. The phrase οὔ πω πολλός suggests that Apollo will be fully grown one day, and as such looks forward to a future state of affairs. This future state of affairs is, however, not directly related to the ongoing action (as is ἔτι in 736 above). οὔ πω rather emphasizes the (young) age of Apollo – he is not grown up yet – as depicted in the image.

World disruption is present: Tityus, a giant, is attempting to rape Apollo’s mother Leto (ἑὴν…/ Μητέρα, 760-1; she is not named by the narrator). This action is characterized by the narrator as θαρσαλέως, “audaciously” (760). Evaluative comments on the ongoing action in the image occur rarely in the ekphraseis of this study. The narrator also draws attention to the difference in size between Apollo (οὔ πω πολλός, 760) and Tityus (μέγαν, 761). This contrast reinforces the wondrous nature of the depicted action. The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is absent.

7. Phrixus is listening to the ram (763-7)

The text of the last image differs in two respects from that of the other images. First, it contains both the descriptive discourse mode (763-4) as well as the discursive discourse mode (765-7). Second, the descriptive discourse mode is found in two lines only. The lines contain only one imperfect (ἔην, 763), accompanied by three participles (εἰσαΐων, ἐξενέποντι ἐοικώς, 764). They have a descriptive textual organization. As for the passage as a whole (763-7), there are no other prototypical features of description present.

The subject matter of the image, Phrixus and the talking ram, takes the narratee back to the purpose of the Argo’s voyage, the golden fleece. The narrator focuses only on the two figures and their actions: he does not mention a location or setting. This makes it difficult to decide which moment from the myth is depicted. Two moments from the Argonautica could be depicted: (i) the ram comforts Phrixus after he has lost

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120 According to Hunter 1986: 53, note 22, lines 759-62 allude to an etymology of Ἀπόλλων from πολλός. I might add that at the same time οὔ πω πολλός seems to be a gloss on βούπαις.
121 Cf. ἐτώσια in Theoc. Id. 1.38; there a secondary narrator is speaking.
122 Cf. the scholiast ad 760-62d (Wendel 1935: 66).
123 For all references to Phrixus in the Argonautica, see Klooster 2007: 70.
124 In comparison with the Homeric and pseudo-Hesiodic narrators, the Apollonian narrator pays little attention to either the setting or scenery of the images. He touches upon the setting in the second image (Thebes) and locates the action in a meadow in the fourth image.
his sister Helle (1.256–7); or (2) the ram orders Phrixus to sacrifice him (2.1146–7). The first version is advocated by the scholia (ad 1.763b and 1.256–9). I quote the paraphrase of both scholia by Fränkel: “[d]em verzweifelnden Phrixos (er stand unter dem Schock von Helles versinken in den Wellen und glaubte nicht mehr daran daß er selbst lebend davonkommen könnte) sprach der Widder Mut zu, und verhieß ihm im Namen des Zeus (der dem Tier für diesen Zweck momentan die Gabe der Rede verlieh), er (der Widder) würde ihn gesund (διασώσειν, σωτερίαν) nach Kolchis hinbringen”.

Following this version, the ram speaks to Phrixus in the Hellespont, just after he has lost his sister Helle. As for the second version, Fränkel has argued that in A.R. 2.1146–7 the ram does not speak at all. Fränkel draws attention to another version (3) that is not found in the Argonautica, in which the ram would have spoken to Phrixus and Helle before their flight. Following the evidence from the Argonautica itself, it is most likely that version (1) is depicted on the cloak.

The narrator furnishes little information about what is going on in the image. Nevertheless, it would seem that the image lacks all three elements of narrative: event...

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126 Fränkel 1968: 59. The scholiast ad 1.256–9: λέγεται γάρ, ὅτι τῆς Ἑλλῆς καταπεσούσης ἀγωνιῶντι τῷ Φρίξῳ κατὰ Διός βούλησιν ἐφθέγξατο θαρσύνων αὐτὸν ὁ κριὸς διασώσειν αὐτὸν εἰς τὴν Σκυθίαν (Wendel 1935: 30), “for it said that when Helle had fallen the ram spoke according to the will of Zeus to an anxious Phrixos, while encouraging him, that he would bring him safely (διασώσειν) him to Scythia (= Colchis);” the scholiast ad 1.763b: ἐφθέγγετο γὰρ ὁ κρίς πιστοῦμεν τῷ Φρίξῳ τὴν σωτηρίαν κατὰ βούλησιν Διός (Wendel 1935: 67), “because the ram spoke guaranteeing Phrixus salvation according to the will of Zeus”.

127 In 1.256, Apollonius refers to the version in which the ram swam across the Hellespont (see Fränkel 1968: 38, and cf. Braswell 1988: 243). This could mean that the figures are depicted in the sea.

128 Fränkel 1968: 294–5; it is Zeus who orders the sacrifice, speaking through Hermes. According to Vian and Delage 1974: 283, either the ram, Zeus or Hermes could be meant.

129 Fränkel 1968: 59, note 85. Collins 1967: 77, referring to Peschties 1912: 29–30, writes that “[c]ritics are agreed that the moment depicted is the ram’s arrival at the intended sacrifice of Phrixus, plotted by his lying step-mother”.

130 It should be noted that both in 1.256–7 and 2.1146–7 characters are speaking. The narrator may, of course, choose to depict a version on the cloak which the characters do not know.
sequencing, world disruption and ‘what-it’s-like’ are absent. It does depict a wondrous event, a man listening to a speaking ram. The narrator twice draws attention to the miraculous nature of the image: Phrixus is depicted “like someone who was really listening to the ram” (ὡς ἐτεόν περ / εἰσαίων κριοῦ, 763-4);131 the ram “looked as though he was speaking” (ὁ δ’ ἄρ’ ἐξενέποντι ἐοικώς, 764).132 I also note the particles περ (which strengthens ἐτεόν) and ἄρα (which underlines the miraculous nature of what is said).133

In lines 765-7, the narrator addresses the primary narratee (as he did in lines 725-6 above).134 The narrator draws attention to the lifelikeness of the figures depicted on the cloak. The narratee would take the figures for real, on account of which he would want to hear something from them – perhaps the narratee would want to know what the figures are saying, so as to determine which moment is depicted in the image. At the same time, the lines comment on the illusionary nature of the image.135 By placing this address at the end of his ekphrasis, the narrator may want to suggest that the other images share this quality.136

131 I interpret ὡς as “like, just as” (with εἰσαίων); cf. the translation of Vian and Delage 1974: 85 (“il semblait écouter vraiment le belier”). Others translate “as if” (e.g. Race), but this could imply that Phrixus was not listening. The phrase ὡς ἐτεόν περ recurs in Q.S. 5.84, also an ekphrasis. In Q.S. 5.84, Vian 1963: 21 prints a comma before ὡς (but there, too, a participle follows in the next line) and translates with “comme dans la réalité”.

132 Shapiro 1980: 285 argues that the participle ἐοικώς is reserved for figures who transcend the limits of natural art. He also notes that “[a] talking ram is in itself a ἐξώφα, but here it is doubly so because of another ἐξώφα: the woven figures are so lifelike that the viewer would be convinced he could actually hear the ram’s words” (see also note 72 above).

133 For περ, see Bakker 1988. For ἄρα, see Ruijgh 1971: 435: “(…) la valeur fondamentale de ἄρα consiste à souligner le caractère intéressant du fait exprimé: ἄρα marque l’intérêt vif du sujet parlant à l’égard d’un fait nouveau”.

134 Such addresses to the narratee later become conventional (see e.g. Belsey 2012: 194-5).

135 Zanker 1987: 69 writes that the final scene “(...) emphasizes the artistic illusion that the ram is actually speaking to Phrixus. Coming last in the description, the scene suggests that the preceding ones were executed in a similar vein of trompe l’oeil”; similarly Shapiro 1980: 285. Schmale 2004: 118, following Simon 1993: 134-5, writes that “es liegt sogar eine Übersteigerung von Realismus vor, denn einen sprechenden Widder gibt es auch in der Realität nicht – Kunst ist hier also wirklicher als die Wirklichkeit” (emphasis mine).

The lines have been interpreted in a number of ways. Byre interprets them metapoetically, as a *mise en abyme* for the reception of the poem as a whole. Others state that the lines hint at the problems of interpreting the cloak *as a whole*. I, for my part, want to draw attention to the fact that the narrator refers to seeing (κείνους ... ἐσακοῦσαι, 767) as well as hearing (ἐσακοῦσαι, 766). If visual art can suggest that figures speak, what about poetry that refers to visual art that suggest that figures speak? This, I would argue, is ekphrasis at its best: we would be looking – even for a long time – in the expectation to hear something.

### 6.3 Jason's Cloak: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Conclusion

The text (721-74) contains three discourse modes: the diegetic mode, the discursive mode, and the descriptive mode. The lines that contain the diegetic discourse mode refer either to actions of Jason that are part of the fabula, or they contain external analepses. In the lines that refer to the appearance of the cloak (725-68), only the

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137 Byre 1991: 226-7: “in fact, the hypothetical situation posited in the address playfully thematizes the relationship between the narratee, the narrator and his narrative, and the fictional world. Phrixus listening to the ram is depicted on the mantle so realistically that the narratee, in his hypothetical situation, finds himself in a position like that of both the ‘real’ Phrixus and the depicted Phrixus: contemplating the scene, he would, like the former, hearken to the ram; but, like the latter, he would experience the stasis of art, silently waiting in long and vain expectation of hearing the ram’s utterance. Moreover, this hypothetical situation of the narratee, as he views a scene drawn from the Argonautic saga, seems to mirror the actual situation of the narratee in hearing/reading the description of the scene on the mantle, and, beyond that, in hearing/reading the *Argonautica* and becoming caught up in the characters and events of its fictional world. (...) the narrator is playfully alluding to the narratee’s enthrallment by what he communicates. (...) what the narratee’s attention is drawn to is to a mirror image of his own activity. The scene with Phrixos wrought by Athena upon the mantle and the address to the narratee, thus, together become a *mise en abyme* of the reception of the poem (...).

138 E.g. Klooster 2012: 73: “[i]nviting the participation of the narratees, this final passage hints at the problems of interpreting the pictorial program on the cloak as a whole: it would seem to evoke the narratees’ amazement, their wish to hear ‘some wise pronouncement’ on its (prophetic) meaning”; cf. also Collins 1967: 78.

139 Clauss 1993: 127 writes that “this last scene corresponds by way of contrast with the first, and neatly brings the ekphrasis to a close – whereas in the first the accent was on the visual quality of the scene (the brilliance of the thunderbolt), here Apollonius underscores the aural quality (the message we hear)”.

discursive (725-6; 765-7) and the descriptive discourse modes (727-64; 769) occur. The lines that contain the discursive discourse mode frame the description of the images; the two addresses to the primary narratee make explicit that the ekphrasis is oriented towards them. Lines 730-64, which refer to what is depicted in the images, only contain the descriptive discourse mode.

The text which represents the images (730-64) has a prototypically descriptive structure. Some temporal adverbs are found, as well as one aorist, but these do not create a sequence of events. The text does not feature many other prototypical features of description. In comparison with Homer and pseudo-Hesiod, the text contains relatively few visual details; other details are scarce, too. Focus is on the res ipsae throughout. When describing the images, the narrator does not draw explicit attention to the opus ipsum, by saying, for example, that the figures were made of cloth, or that they were dyed in a certain colour. References to the opus ipsum are concentrated in lines 727-9, which relate the appearance of the cloak as a whole.

The images have various degrees of narrativity. They all depict a single moment in time, which means that event sequencing is absent. Because the subject matter of the images is mythical, the narrator and the narratee may recognize the depicted moment and use their knowledge of the myth to supply events that have happened before or will happen after the depicted moment. It is not always clear, however, which version of a myth is depicted, so that the precise course of events sometimes remains unclear. The narrator also uses verbal means to suggest events which precede or come after the depicted moment: temporal adverbs (images one and two), a pluperfect (image three) or aorist (image five), telic verbs (image five), and the order of the description (images three and five).

The images have a mythical subject matter, but this does not mean that they therefore necessarily have a high degree of narrativity. Images one, two, three and seven do not feature world disruption, which means that their narrativity is low. Images one and three do not necessarily refer to specific events from a myth; they thus also

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140 The diegetic discourse mode is found in a relative clause (761-2), but it should be noted that for tense analysis only main clauses are taken into consideration.

possess a certain amount of descriptivity, in that they depict the figures in a situation in which they are frequently found. Images two and seven, on the other hand, do refer to a particular moment from a myth.

Of the images which feature world disruption (four, five and six), the chariot race (five) has the highest degree of narrativity. It is the image to which the narrator devotes most attention (seven lines), and it is full of movement and action. It consists of a pregnant moment: both what happened immediately before and what will happen immediately after the depicted moment is suggested by the image. The other two images (four and six, the fight between the Teleboae and the sons of Electryon, and Apollo who is shooting at Tityus) do not consist of pregnant moments. Rather, they depict ongoing actions, of which the completion lies farther away from the depicted moment. As for the element of ‘what-it’s-like’, this is nowhere strongly present.142

6.4 Coda: Visualizing Jason’s Cloak

I want to start this section by contrasting two opinions regarding the visualization of Jason’s cloak. I begin with Wilamowitz: “[e]ine Ekphrasis ist es doch nicht geworden, denn von der Verteilung auf dem Gewande und von den Darstellungen selbst kann sich niemand eine Vorstellung machen”.143 Almost a century later, we find Otto. Contrasting Homer with Apollonius, she writes:

Ganz anders verhält es sich bei Apollonios, der in der Mantelbeschreibung nicht nur die Bedürfnisse des Hörers/Lesers hinsichtlich der Visualisierbarkeit des Beschriebenen in weit stärkerem Maße berücksichtigt, sondern sich auch eng an die Möglichkeiten, die der Bildenden Kunst zur Verfügung stehen, hält: Die Aufteilung der einzelnen Bilder auf die Mantelfläche bereitet keine großen Schwierigkeiten, sondern scheint im wesentlichen eindeutig, wenn sich auch im Detail freilich noch manche Fragen ergeben mögen.144

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142 Cf. the emphasis on ‘what-it’s-like’ in the first and second image on the goatherd’s cup in Theoc. Id. 1.32-44.
143 von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff 1924: 220; he also writes that “[n]iemand kann einem Widder auf einem Gewebe oder auch Gemälde ansehen, daß er spricht, 764; daß die Steine nach dem Takte von Amphions Kitharodie zum Mauerbau von Theben marschieren, 741, ist vollends nicht darstellbar. Und wenn der Lichteffekt in der Schmiede der Kyklopen hervorgehoben wird, und Aphrodite sich in einem blanken Schilde spiegelt, so begrüßen wir die Zeugnisse für die hellenistische Malerei, aber im Gewebe was es undenkbar” (ibid.: 221, note 1).
Otto’s ideas are shared by a number of scholars.\textsuperscript{145} We must not, however, overstate the case. Although it can indeed be argued that Jason’s cloak is more easily visualizable than the shield of Achilles, there remain issues, too, regarding the visualization of Jason’s cloak.\textsuperscript{146}

The visualization of the cloak resembles the visualization of the goatherd’s cup in Theocritus’ first \textit{Idyll}. In both ekphraseis, the images are described in detail, but their arrangement on the object itself is unknown. \textit{Pace Otto}, we have no clue how the images are arranged on the cloak.\textsuperscript{147} This is a feature that all Hellenistic ekphraseis share with their archaic counterparts: the narrator remains silent on the precise lay-out of the images on the object.

One can argue that the \textit{images} on Jason’s cloak are more easily visualizable than those on the shields of Achilles and Heracles. Otto draws attention to two features: (1)
the number of figures is reduced from an unknown number to a representable number; and (2) the images do not depict movements which cannot be represented.\textsuperscript{148} It should be kept in mind, however, that in image one and four the number of represented figures is unknown;\textsuperscript{149} and that what one regards as ‘representable’ seems to depend on one’s own – necessarily subjective – views.\textsuperscript{150}

The images on Jason’s cloak – as those on the goatherd’s cup – do not only contain less figures, they also contain considerably less detail.\textsuperscript{151} The Apollonian narrator focuses almost solely on the figures and the actions they are engaged in; he uses spatial indicators only where necessary. The Homeric narrator, on the other hand, devotes more attention to the scenery and to the appearance of the figures. Thus, a curious paradox arises: by incorporating less detail, it becomes easier to visualize the image. It would seem, then, that it is not the amount of detail that matters. Rather, it is the selection of significant details, or even the omission of detail and a sole focus on the ongoing action, that makes an image easier to visualize.\textsuperscript{152} What is not described by the narrator can be imagined by the narratee.\textsuperscript{153} For this purpose, he may use his knowledge of (contemporary) visual art.\textsuperscript{154} As such, the reader of, or listener to, Apollonius’ ekphrasis finds himself in the same position as a member of Homer’s audience: much goes untold, and much needs to be supplied by the mind’s eye.

\textsuperscript{148} Otto 2009: 215-16.
\textsuperscript{149} Otto 2009: 193 acknowledges that the number of figures in image four is many; as for image one, she limits the number to a maximum of four (following Shapiro, for which see note 51 above).
\textsuperscript{150} See further my remarks in section 3.5.
\textsuperscript{151} This observation also holds for the goatherd’s cup in Theocritus’ first \textit{Idyll} (see my remarks in section 5.4).
\textsuperscript{152} Cf. Jajdelska et al. 2010: 444, who note that “some features are likely to be more salient than others in any description; simply adding more information will not necessarily increase vividness”. The authors investigate which methods are likely to make descriptions of faces more vivid. They list, among other things, “describing the face as a whole (…) rather than listing individual features” and “describing changes and movements in the face” (ibid.: 447).
\textsuperscript{154} For the relationship between Apollonius and visual art, see e.g. Fowler 1989: 15-7 and Shapiro 1980.

7.1 Introduction
The last ekphrasis of this study is found in Moschus’ Europa, a small-scale epic poem of 166 lines, commonly dated to the middle of the second century BC. The poem is named after its heroine, Europa, and relates her abduction and seduction by Zeus. While Europa and her companions are on their way to the meadows by the sea to gather flowers, the narrator meticulously describes the basket that Europa is carrying (37-62). This basket contains three images, all depicting a scene from the Io myth.

As in the case of the other ekphraseis, scholars have mainly focused on the meaning of the ekphrasis within the poem as a whole. It is generally assigned a proleptic function: the Io myth provides a number of parallels for what will happen to Europa. The ekphrasis has also been assigned a metapoetical value. The narrativity and descriptivity of the ekphrasis have received little attention; this chapter does therefore not start with a state of the art. From the scattered remarks by various scholars, it would seem that the ekphrasis is both narrative and descriptive. The three

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2 E.g. Harrison 2001: 84: “[the basket] depicts Io, Europa’s ancestor, whose story provides many parallels for what is about to happen to her descendant (...). Both Io and Europa are virgins raped by the same god, Zeus, and in both stories love is the motive for a bovine transformation of beloved (Io) or lover (Zeus); Io crosses the sea from Europa to Asia, Europa from Asia (Phoenicia) to Europa; both stories end with a return to human form; and both are implicitly aetiological. None of these resemblances would have occurred to Europa at the narrative time in the poem, since at that point she is peacefully gathering flowers in a meadow, and nothing significant has happened; this produces dramatic irony and pathos (...). Thus the proleptic ekphrasis here functions as a device for raising sympathy with a character as well as informing the reader of multiple future developments in the plot”; the idea that the ekphrasis foreshadows the future is already found in Friedländer 1912: 15. Fantuzzi and Hunter 2004: 223 draw attention to the “paraded avoidance” of exact parallelism between both stories.


4 For example, Zanker 1987: 93 writes that “the basket description (...) deals with scenes which are connected in that they represent three moments of the same myth. The description thus has a unity (...). This unity extends to an internal connection between the inset and its frame. The
images which depict different moments from the same myth seem to be regarded as a narrative element.5

In this chapter, the narrativity and descriptivity of the ekphrasis will be investigated (section 7.2). As in the other chapters, a distinction is made between text and image. After the conclusion (section 7.3), the chapter ends with a coda that deals with the visualization of the basket (section 7.4).

7.2.1 Europa’s Basket: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Text and Translation6

description forms a narrative illustrating Zeus’ desires, Hera’s thwarted attempts at hindering their fulfilment and his leniency once he has accomplished his aim” (emphasis mine); Fantuzzi and Hunter 2004: 222 state that “Europa’s basket is decorated with three scenes which depict moments from the myth of Io (...). The ekphrasis itself has now become a narrative, and a narrative quite different from that of the framing poem, which is focused on one specific incident (the abduction of Europa) (...); later on they note that “[t]he scenes of Io as a cow and of Zeus’ impregnation are described in the chronological sequence of the myth, and therefore imply or create a narrative” (emphasis mine).

5 See also Schmale 2004: 124-5 (“[e]ine Neuheit besteht darin, dass verschiedene Szenen aus demselben Mythos abgebildet sind, also eine kleine Bildergeschichte vorliegt, denn mit dem zweiten Bild schreitet das zeitliche Geschehen voran, es entsteht sukzessive Handlung, obwohl die Bilder selbst als Tableaux beschrieben sind”), and Petrain 2006: 251-4 (who I discuss below in 7.2.5, 4).

6 Text by Bühler; translation based on Gow 1953: 129-30.
νηχομένῃ ἰκέλη· κυάνου δ’ ἐτέτυκτο θάλασσα.
δοιοῦ δ’ ἑστασαν ὑφοῦ ἐπ’ ἀφρόσιν αἰγιαλοῖο
φώτες ἀολλήδην, ἥμετο τε ποντιπόρον βοῦν.

ἐν δ’ ἦν Ζεὺς Κρονίδης ἐπαφώμενος ἠρέμα χερσὶ
πόρτιος Ἰναχίης, τήν δ’ ἑπταπόρῳ παρὰ Νείλῳ
ἐκ βοὸς εὐκεράοιο πάλιν μετάμειβε γυναῖκα
ἀργύρεος μὲν ἦν Νείλου βόσκ, ἡ δ’ ἱδρυς πόρτις
χαλκείη, χρυσοῦ δὲ τετυγμένος αὐτὸς ἦν Ζεὺς.

ἀμφὶ δὲ δινήεντο ὑπὸ στεφάνην ταλάροιο
Ἑρμείης ἱσκοτο: πέλας δὲ οἱ ἐκτετάνυστο
Ἄργους ἀκοιμήτοισι κεκασμένος ὀφθαλμοῖσι
τοῖο τε ἀφ’ αἵματος ἐξανέτελλεν ὡσεί τέ τις νηῦς
χρυσεῖου ταλάροιο περίσκεπε χείλεα ταρσοῖς.
τοῖος ἦν τάλαρος περικαλλέος Ἐυρωπείης.

And quickly they came to her, each with a basket for flowers in her hand; and to the meadows in
the vicinity of the sea they went, where they were always gathering in groups, delighting in the
roses that grew there and the murmur of the waves. (37) Europa herself was carrying a golden
basket, wondrous, a great marvel, a great work of Hephaestus, which he had given to Libya as a
gift, when she went to the Earthshaker’s bed; and she had given it to the very beautiful
Telephaassa, who was of her blood; and to the maid Europa her mother Telephaassa gave that
renowned gift. On it had been wrought many gleaming intricate motifs; (44) on it had been
wrought of gold Inachus’ daughter Io, still a heifer, not having the shape of a woman; and
wandering in a mad frenzy she was going over the briny paths with her feet, looking like one
who was swimming; and the sea was made of dark-blue enamel. High on the brow of two coasts
people were standing, together, and they were gazing at the seafaring cow with wonder. (50)
And on it was Zeus, the son of Cronos, while lightly touching with his hands the heifer, child of
Inachus, whom by the seven-mouthed Nile he was changing back from a cow with beautiful
horns into a woman; the stream of the Nile was silver, and she, the heifer, [was] bronze, and
Zeus himself had been wrought of gold. (55) Round about, beneath the rim of the rounded
basket, Hermes had been wrought; and nearby him was lying outstretched Argus, endowed with
unsleeping eyes; and from his crimson blood was springing up a bird, glorying in the
multicoloured hues of its wings; having spread these out like a swift ship it was covering all
around the rim of the golden basket with its wings. Such was the basket of the very beautiful
Europa. (63) And when they had come to the flowery meadows, one was delighting in this
bloom, one in the other.

7.2.2 Europa’s Basket: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Overview of Tenses
In this section, I will establish which discourse modes are found in this passage (33-64).
I start with the lines that refer to the images on Europa’s basket (43-62). These lines
consist of the descriptive discourse mode: only pluperfects and imperfects are found.
Progression is spatial and/or enumerative. The surrounding lines (33-8 and 63-4)
feature, of course, the diegetic discourse mode. Lines 33-8 contain one aorist and three
imperfects; lines 63-4 feature two imperfects, as well as subordinate temporal clause
(ἐπεί…, 63) and a temporal adverb (τότε, 64). Lines 39-42, which start off as a relative
clause, also feature the diegetic discourse mode. They form an external analepsis; the
aorists are anterior. In sum, the textual organization of the lines that refer to the images
is prototypically descriptive. The rest of the passage has a prototypically narrative
textual organization.

7.2.3 Europa’s Basket: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Preliminaries
The last ekphrasis of this study concerns an object that is owned by a woman. The
basket is a container for flowers (ἀνθοδόκον τάλαρον, 34). There could be no greater
difference with the shield of Achilles, a martial object of immense size, which contains
a multitude of images. By comparison, Europa’s basket is small. It contains only three
images, just as the goatherd’s cup in Theocritus first
Idyll 8 Nevertheless, the ekphrasis
of the flower basket marks Europa as a heroine
9 – but one quite different from Achilles

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7 One could perhaps also argue that lines 63-4 contain the descriptive discourse mode. In the
lines that follow (64-71), only imperfects occur (ἀπαίνυτο, 66; ἔκλεισεκε, 67; ἔρεπτον, 69;
δέπρεπεν, 71). Hence, one could say that in lines 63-71 the picking of the flowers is “described”
(cf. Sistakou 2009: 316, who states that “[t]he gathering of flowers as a time-consuming process is
stressed by a series of imperfects tenses and iterative forms (…’). In any way, a scenic effect is
8 For a discussion of the similarities and differences between the basket and the cup, see
9 Merriam 2001: 61: “[t]he description of Europa’s flower basket (…) also emphasizes Europa’s
position as a singular character and the hero of the poem. That an article so closely related to
her natural attributes is so thoroughly described clearly identifies Europa as a hero of potentially
or Heracles. Rather than going off to do battle, Europa is armed to pick flowers with her companions. This is, however, a pastime that is not wholly devoid of danger: if Europa had read the Homeric Hymn to Demeter, she would have known that women may be abducted while picking flowers.

The ekphrasis of Europa's basket is focalized by the primary narrator. As in the other ekphraseis of this study, there is no indication that a character looks at the images on the object. Ekphraseis are usually meant for the primary narratee only (the exception being the goatherd's cup). In the Europa, the narrator uses this convention to create dramatic irony: Europa does not pay attention to what is depicted on the basket, and even if she had done so would have failed to understand its relevance for her own fate. The external narratee, on the other hand, will immediately understand the relevance of the images for Europa's situation.

This obvious correspondence between ekphrasis and main story is regarded by Friedländer as an important innovation in the technique of ekphrasis. He also regards the fact that the ekphrasis consists of three moments taken from the same myth as a novel element. It should be noted, however, that the Homeric shield ekphrasis also contains stories that are depicted in more than one image (the city at war in 18.509-40; 20.486-509).

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11 For this intertext, see e.g. Campbell 1991: 71; Hopkinson 1988: 205 writes that "[y]oung girls who pluck flowers do so at their own risk, as the sequel shows. Europa stands in a long line of literary heroines who are themselves plucked in flower-meadows by gods". For the so-called 'meadow of love' motif, see Bremer 1975: 268-74.

12 However, Fusillo 1983: 94, note 44 argues that such an obvious connection is already present in the ekphrasis of Jason's cloak: "riguardo al periodo alessandrino non condivido che sia stato Mosco il primo a stabilire un nesso fra la scene descritte e il racconto centrale, bens Apollonio: la pertinenza narrativa dell'ekphrasis apolloniana è innegabile almeno per il riquadro centrale di Pelope e Ippodamia, per Afrodite che si specchia nello scudo e per l'ultima scene di Frisso".

the attack on the cattle in 18.573-86). For example, the city at war consists of six different moments in time. The subject matter of these stories is not mythical, however. The novel element, then, is not the different moments of time, but the mythical subject matter that is divided into three different images.

7.2.4 Europa's Basket: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Lines surrounding the Images (37-42 and 62)
The main theme of the ekphrasis is found at the beginning, in lines 37-8: αὐτὴ δὲ χρύσεον τάλαρον φέρεν Εὐρώπεια / θηητόν, μέγα θαῦμα, μέγαν πόνον Ἡφαίστοιο, “Europa herself was carrying a golden basket, wondrous, a great marvel, a great work of Hephaestus”. The imperfect φέρεν (37) makes clear that the basket is described while Europa is walking to the meadow. Indeed, in line 63 she and her companions have reached the meadows. Thus, the narrator suggests that fabula time moves on while the basket is described.14

The ekphrasis has a clear structure, which is marked by ring composition.15 It is framed by an outer ring, which encloses four consecutive smaller rings. This can be schematized as follows:

A  αὐτὴ δὲ χρύσεον τάλαρον φέρεν Εὐρώπεια (37)
B  ὃν Λιβύῃ πόρε βῶρον, δὴ ἐς λέχος Ἐννοσιγαίου (39)
B' μήτηρ Τηλεφάασσα περικλυτὸν δῶρον (42)
C  ἐν μὲν ἔην χρυσοῖο τετυγμένη Ἰναχὶς Ἰὼ (44)
C' φῶτες ἀολήδην, θηεῦντο δὲ ποντοπόρον βοῦν (49)
D  ἐν δ' ἦν Ζεὺς Κρονίδης ἐπαφώμενος ἠρέμα χερὶ (50)
D' χαλκείη, χρυσοῦ δὲ τετυγμένος αὐτὸς ἔην Ζεύς (54)
E  ἐμφαὶ δὲ δυνήντος ὑπὸ στεφάνην ταλάροιο (55)
E' χρυσείου ταλάρου περίσσεπε χείλεα ταρσοῖς (61)
A' τοῖς ἐν τάλαρος περικαλλέος Εὐρωπείης (62)

14 This technique is already found in Homer, for which see e.g. Od. 13.95 (discussed in section 2.3.2). Sistakou 2009: 315 writes that “[n]arrative time comes to a standstill for almost 30 verses, dedicated to the detailed description of the basket (37-62)”; this is not wholly correct.
The ekphrasis is marked off from the surrounding lines by an introductory and a closing line (37; 62). It can be further divided into two parts (37-42 and 43-62). The first part may itself be divided into two sections. The first section (37-8) contains an introductory line (37), and names the quality of the work and its maker (38). The second section (39-42) relates the lineage of the basket. The second part also contains an introductory line (43), which introduces the images as a whole, as a separate subtheme (Δαιδάλη πολλά...μαρμαρόντα). The images are described in three separate sections, all introduced by a spatial indicator (ἐν μέν, 44; ἐν δὲ, 50; ἀμφὶ δὲ... ὑπό, 55).

A basket is a novel object for an ekphrasis, but it is not wholly unfamiliar. Both shield ekphrases do contain images which depict baskets: in Il. 18.567-8, young girls and boys are carrying grapes in wicker baskets (πλεκτοῖς ἐν ταλάροισι φέρον μελιηδέα χαρπόν, 568); in Sc. 293-4 and 296, people are carrying grapes into baskets (οἳ δ’ αὖτ’ ἐς ταλάρους ἐφόρευν ὑπὸ τρυγητήρων / λευκοὺς καὶ μέλανας βότρυας, 293-4). Europa's basket is used for a more or less similar purpose, in a more or less similar environment. It is as if the narrator of the Europa has zoomed in on one of the baskets of the ekphrastic tradition. He has taken an everyday object featuring in archaic ekphrases, and transformed it into an object that is itself worthy of an ekphrasis.

Europa's basket is also reminiscent of Helen's wool basket in the Odyssey (4.125, 131-2). Helen's basket (τάλαρόν) has wheels underneath it (ὑπόκυκλον, 131). It is made of silver and it has golden rims (ἀργύρεον, χρυσῷ δ’ ἐπὶ χείλεα κεκράαντο, 132). The basket was also presented to Helen as a gift (ὀ πασσεν, 131). The similarities between both baskets must set the narratee thinking about the similarities between their owners. Both Helen and Europa can be regarded as victims of Aphrodite. At the same time, both women seem to have had more than a small share in what happens to them.

Scholars have noted that the use of a golden basket for collecting flowers is not realistic. According to Bühler, “[e]s ist bei Moschos mit literarischer Erhöhung zu rechnen”. Hence, the narrator is able to recall Helen's basket, but also Achilles' shield, which is made from bronze, tin, gold and silver (Il. 18.474-7; 20.268-72) as well as

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16 I discuss the shape of the τάλαρος in 7.2.5 below.
17 Cf. Dubel 2010: 22: “un humble détail récurrent dans les modèles archaïques est devenu chez Moschos le support même de l’ecphrasis”. Likewise, one may wonder whether the goatherd's cup in Theocritus' first Idyll – called a δέπας in 55 and 149 – in some way recalls the δέπας μελιηδέος οἴνου of Il. 18.545.
18 Bühler 1960: 87 lists four known examples of metal baskets in ancient Greek literature.
19 Bühler 1960: 87; see also Campbell 1991: 53.
Heracles’ shield (Sc. 141-3). Gold, furthermore, characterizes the basket as a precious object; this ekphrasis contains many more references to precious metals.20 It is fitting that Europa, a princess, carries such a valuable object. Lastly, it should be noted that objects in ekphrases are often “unrealistic”.21 Narrators of ekphrases are usually not led by considerations of realism.

In a rising tricolon, the narrator emphasizes the great value of Europa’s basket. It is θητόν, μέγα θαῦμα, μέγαν πόνον Ἡφαίστοιο (38).22 The expression of wonder is common in ekphrasis. The phrase may serve to heighten the credibility of the narrator.23 Thus, it could well be that Europa is carrying a golden basket – it is, after all, a μέγα θαῦμα. At the same time, the line has a comic effect. The repetition of μέγας seems inappropriate for an object that cannot be very large. The line would certainly be fitting for Achilles’ shield, but less so for a flower basket. Hephaestus has, furthermore, made this basket as a gift for a bride of Poseidon. The line, then, does not apply to arms made for a hero, but to a precious trinket made for a woman; this discordance has a humorous effect.24

21 Cf. note 302 in section 3.5.
22 According to Faber 1998: 55, the phrase μέγαν πόνον Ἡφαίστοιο is here for the first time applied to a wicker basket rather than to a term denoting metal-work. However, it would seem that the basket is wholly made of metal. According to Cusset 2001: 69, “[c]e μέγας πόνος d’Héphaïstos (…) est bien en fait l’image intradiégétique de la narration elle-même qui est aussi le résultat de μέγας πόνος poétique (…)” (emphasis mine).
23 For which see 3.3.3.2, 3.
24 Cf. Merriam 2001: 68, note 25: “[t]he introduction of Hephaestus at this point again suggests Moschus’ humorous exploitation of traditional epic machinery in this poem. Rather than manufacturing weaponry and arms, as is his usual role, Hephaestus is here portrayed as making trinkets to aid the other gods in their seduction of mortal women”. It should be noted that in the Iliad Hephaestus makes trinkets, too. In book 18, when Thetis visits Hephaestus, he tells his wife Charis that after his fall from Olympus he spent nine years crafting trinkets for Eurynome and Thetis (τῇσι παρ’ εἰνάετες χάλκευον δαίδαλα πολλά, / πόρπας τε γναμπτάς θ’ ἔλκας καλύκας τε καὶ / ὅρμους / ἐν σπῆι γλαφυρῷ, “for them I made nine years many intricate things, brooches and curved spirals and buds and necklaces within the hollow cave”, 18.400-2). According to Purves 2010: 52, “[t]his image of the craftsman at work on beautiful curved objects in his cave prefigures the description of the Shield [the Homeric shield ekphrasis]. We might imagine Hephaestus in...
Lines 39-42 contain a catalogue of previous owners.25 As in general, the catalogue forms an external analepsis, which starts off as a relative clause. Europa’s basket is the only object in the ekphrases of this study of which the previous owners are mentioned in catalogue form.26 A striking feature of the catalogue is that all the previous owners of the basket are women.27 The catalogue thus once more emphasizes the feminine nature of the object, and perhaps also adds to the humour of the passage.28

The catalogue has various functions. First, it underscores the precious nature of the basket. Second, it has a proleptic function: Europa will be raped by a god, just as her grandmother Libya.29 In this light, commentators draw attention to the words ἀνύμφῳ δ’ Εὐρωπείῃ in line 41: Europa is emphatically not yet a bride.30 Third, Hopkinson has suggested that the catalogue of owners can also be understood metapoetically.31

the cave as a prototype for a scene within the ekphrasis; in both cases a figure, surrounded by the ever-flowing Ocean, performs and reperforms a continuously revolving activity*. 25 Such catalogues are also found in the Iliad and the Odyssey. For a discussion of the history of objects in the Iliad and Odyssey, see Minchin 2001: 119-22.

26 Only the goatherd’s cup has a previous owner (for which see 5.3.4).


28 It is thus not “a studiedly arid and stiff reflection (the succession of proper names at line-end, 37-41, does nothing to enliven the description) of an Homeric routine (...), as Campbell 1991: 56 contends.

29 Hopkinson 1988: 206: “[t]hus Europa’s basket belonged to her grandmother Libya, who was raped by a god and gave her name to Libya; and it depicted the rape by a god of her grandmother Io, eponym of Ionia. Europa inherits not only the basket, but also the experiences depicted on it” (emphasis in the original).


31 Hopkinson 1988: 201: “this stress on lineage and pedigree provides an interesting parallel with the self-conscious literary ancestry of the ekphrasis itself, which is part of a venerable line stretching back to Homer’s Shield of Achilles at Iliad 18.478-608”.

7.2.5 Europa’s Basket: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. The Images (43-61)
In line 43, the images are introduced together (ἐν τῷ δαίδαλα πολλὰ τετεύχατο μαρμαίροντα). The pluperfect τετεύχατο refers to the opus ipsum. The phrase δαίδαλα πολλὰ, which also introduces the images on Achilles’ shield and Jason’s cloak, is here modified by another adjective, μαρμαίροντα, “gleaming”.32 This adjective pertains to the shining qualities of the metal images. As in the case of Achilles’ shield, only the last image (55-61) is assigned a specific location, under the (upper) rim (ἀμφὶ…ὑπὸ στεφάνην ταλάροιο, 55). The first two images are simply enumerated (ἐν μέν, 44; ἐν δέ, 50). As in all other ekphraseis, then, the narrator remains vague on the precise lay-out of the object.33
Nevertheless, some scholars have assigned the images a specific location on the basket. Before discussing some proposed arrangements, first the shape of the basket itself merits discussion. The basket is called a τάλαρος (37; 61; 62). It has three images depicted on it (ἐν τῷ... τετεύχατο, 43); it is round (δινήεντο) and it has a rim (στεφάνην, 55). For the shape of a τάλαρος, Campbell refers to Gow and Page, who note that a κάλαθος is also called a τάλαρος: “a funnel-shaped basket with a wide mouth tapering down to a base of much smaller diameter”; it was used for various purposes.34 Gow and Page do not refer to any sources for this statement.35 Webster notes that what Moschus calls a τάλαρος we should call a κάλαθος.36 Yet the text offers no indications that this is the case.
As for the position of the images on the cup, the narrator locates the third image under the upper rim. Scholars usually locate the other two images below the third

32 As Campbell 1991: 59 has noted, in Il. 18.480, the rim of Achilles’ shield is called μαρμαρέην; in 18.617 the armour as a whole is called μαρμαίροντα. The narrator of the Europa has transferred this quality to the images.
33 See e.g. Webster 1964: 154 (“[n]or need we suppose that Moschos worried much about how the three scenes fitted the basket”) and Beckby 1975: 540 (“[d]ie Beschreibung des Körbchens ist nicht immer klar”).
34 Campbell 1991: 53; Gow and Page 1965: 37 (ad καλαθίσκον). Bühler and Hopkinson remain silent on the shape of the basket.
35 The LfgrE translate τάλαρος with “open basket” and note that the handle is not mentioned (s.v. τάλαρος 8). In archaic epic, τάλαροι are used for the gathering of grapes and for the making of cheese (in which case they are made of wicker-work); Helen’s silver basket is used for holding wool.
36 Webster 1964: 154, who continues: “Europa already holds one on an Attic vase of the earliest fifth century, and in Alexandria Demeter’s kalathos was draw by white horses through the city”.
image, opposite each other. This seems the most likely solution. Alternatively, the images could run around three separate bands across the basket, all below each other. In this case, the ekphrasis can be called iconic, in that the ring composition mirrors the way the images are located on the basket. However, one could wonder whether the basket is large enough to accommodate three separate bands with figures. On the other hand, the size of the basket – and the figures – is unknown. Although it has been suggested that the images are located on the inside of the basket, the exterior seems to be the most likely location.

The following three images are depicted on the basket:

1. Io is wandering over the sea in bovine form; people are watching her (44-9)
2. Zeus is changing Io back into a woman (50-4)
3. Hermes, and next to him Argus; from his blood a bird is rising up (55-61)

All images are introduced by a verb that expresses stasis; in the introductory lines, two pluperfects (ἔην…τετυγμένη, 44; ἤσκητο, ἐκτετάνυστο, 56) and one imperfect (ἦν, 50) occur. The narrator thereby makes clear that he is describing static figures.

In the following, the images will first be discussed separately (1-3), then in conjunction (4).

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37 Gow 1927: 168: “the description suggests two bands of decoration, the upper with one figure, the lower with one scene, on each side of the vessel. (...) In the lower zone, which occupies the shorter circumference of the vessel, are scenes which must take considerable space, for they include an expanse of sea and the river Nile. It is natural, therefore, to think of the scenes each occupying half the circumference (...)”; Bühler 1960: 93: “[m]ann kann sich die Verteilung aber kaum anders denken, als daß sich das eine Bild gegenüber dem anderen befand; beide entsprechen sich ja ganz offenkundig”; and Campbell 1991: 53: “each of the lower scenes (44-49; 50-54) contains in addition to figures an area of water: the sea (46/47) matched by the Nile (51/53). So it is natural to assume that each will occupy one half of the shorter circumference and a substantial proportion of the main body; the points of demarcation must be the twin shores (48) flanking the wandering Io” (emphasis mine). It should be noted that the twin shores are a conjecture (δοιοῦ for δοιοί; see further below).

38 Bühler 1960: 93: that the images could be on the outside is regarded as a possibility by von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff 1906: 229. Könnecke 1914: 550-1 locates the images on the inside of the basket. For a similar discussion regarding the images on the goatherd’s cup, see 5.3.5.

39 In this respect, it is similar to the goatherd’s cup (see 5.3.5) and Jason’s cloak (see 6.2.5).
1. Io is wandering over the sea in bovine form; people are watching her (44-9)

The text that represents the first image has a prototypically descriptive organization. Textual progression is enumerative; two spatial indicators occur (ἐπί, 46; ὑψοῦ ἐπί, 48). Of the six occurring verbs, four designate states (ἔην…τετυγμένη, 44; εἶχε, 45; ἐτέτυκτο, 47; ἕστασαν, 48). Only two imperfects refer to ongoing actions (βαῖνε, 46; θηεῦντο, 49).

The following other prototypically descriptive elements are present. Two visual details pertain to the material of which the figures are made (χρυσοῖο, 44; κυάνου, 47). Both refer to the opus ipsum. Other details refer to the res ipsae (γυναίην, 45; ἁλμυρά, 46; δοιοῦ, 48; ποντοπόρον, 49). The phrase νηχομένῃ ἰκέλη (47) stresses the fact that the narrator is describing an image.

The image depicts Io passing over the sea in the form of a cow (44-7) and a number of people watching her (48-9). In the text as printed by most editors – among whom Bühler – the number of spectators is unspecified. In fact, line 48 contains two conjectures. The manuscripts read δοιοὶ δ’ ἕστασαν ὑψοῦ ἐπ’ ὀφρύος αἰγιαλοῖο. Editors emend for the following reasons: 1) δοιοί does not easily combine with ἀολλήδην; 2) with δοιοῦ… αἰγιαλοῖο (“two/twin coasts”), reference is made to the Bosporus with its coasts on both sides; the name of the Bosporus was commonly derived from βοὸς πόρος.

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40 In line 47, the manuscripts read κυανή or κυανῆ. This reading is defended by Arnott 1971: 154-5 (but cf. the remarks by Campbell 1991: 62).
41 For the meaning of the use of various metals throughout the ekphrasis, see Manakidou 1993: 178-81.
42 Bühler 1960: 97, who speaks of a comparison between what is depicted and reality (“Schwimmen auf dem Bild und Schwimmen in Wirklichkeit”). For such phrases, see also section 4.3.2, 6-9.
43 The reading of the manuscripts is retained by Legrand in the Budé; Manakidou 1993: 175, note 243 argues against emendation of δοιοῦ. Gow’s OCT, Bühler, Campbell and Hopkinson print both emendations.
44 So Campbell 1991: 62-3: the reading δοιοῦ “was prompted by the awkwardness of ‘two men … in a throng/crowd’. (It is hard to believe that Moschus meant ‘two men crowd-wise’, representing a crowd.) One would expect more than the ‘two’ main subjects commonly encountered in the ecphrasis (e.g. Il.xxviii.604, [Hes.] Scutum 21, A.R.i.732), the more so as ἀολλέες can be used of a massed body of spectators (e.g. A.R.iv.1182), while on the shield in Il.xxviii.609f. an ὅμιλος is set against two individuals”.
45 Campbell 1991: 63. Gow 1927: 168 further notes that with δοιοῦ, “[t]he scene containing Io will then be flanked with the rising shores of Greece and Egypt respectively, each with its group of
3) ἐπ’ ὀφρύσιν must almost certainly be plural, when δοιοῦ... αἰγιαλοῖο refers to more than one coast; and 4) ἐπ’ ὀφρύσιν is a traditional epic expression. However, the change from δοιοῖ to δοιοῦ is unnecessary, if not unwanted. First of all, the specification of the number of figures is typical for Hellenistic ekphraseis. Furthermore, whereas archaic ekphraseis contain many figures, Hellenistic ekphraseis usually focus on a few individuals – an example being the goatherd’s cup, on which the number of figures depicted in an image is never more than three. Manakidou has noted that by retaining δοιοῖ, the number of figures depicted by the three images is symmetrical: three figures in the first image (Io and two men), two figures in the second (Io and Zeus), and three figures in the third image (Hermes, Argus and the bird). In addition, on such a relatively small object, a large number of spectators seems hard to accommodate. As for ἀολλήδην, I see no reason why this word cannot be combined people; and the two groups, one on each side of the τάλαρος, will effectively separate the two scenes [images one and two] in this zone of the composition”.

46 Bühler 1960: 99: “e[]nige Herausgeber haben die Änderung δοιοῦ, nicht aber die von ὀφρύος in ὀφρύσιν angenommen; aber wenn mit αἰγιαλοῖο hier eine Zweizahl gemeint ist, scheint der sg. ὀφρύος sehr schwierig, wenn nicht unmöglich”.

47 Bühler 1960: 98; Campbell 1991: 62, though noting that this emendation “is certainly right”, does not state anything regarding the necessity of this change.

48 This also means that the reading ἐπ’ ὀφρύσιν can be retained. In fact, as editors note, υψοῦ ἐπί is usually followed by a genitive (Bühler 1960: 99; Campbell 1991: 62).

49 Campbell’s argument (see note 44 above) that more than “two main subjects” would be expected (by whom?) is odd; he refers, furthermore, to two archaic ekphraseis. As for Jason’s cloak, A.R. 1.752 contains four figures; Campbell could have referred to the Cyclopes (7:30-4) or the fight between the Teleboae and the sons of Electryon (7:47-51), the number of which is unspecified. In the latter image, the unspecified number of fighters seems to be an imitation of the shields of Achilles and Heracles.

50 Manakidou 1993: 175, note 243. She also notes that this creates an exact parallel with the goatherd’s cup. Legrand 1927: 146, note 2, on the other hand, sees a parallel between the first and the second image. The two men stand together: “[d]e façon à ne pas tenir plus de place qu’un personnage unique. Ils pouvaient ainsi faire pendant à eux deux à la figure de Zeus; et la symétrie entre les deux scènes représentées subsistait”. This idea derives from Wilamowitz (quoted in note 52 below).

51 This idea is derived from a parallel in the Teleboae. The two men stand together: “et la symétrie entre les deux scènes représentées subsistait”. This idea derives from Wilamowitz (quoted in note 52 below).

52 Pace Campbell (see note 44), it may well be that these two men represent a crowd.
with two people; *LSJ* translate with "in a body, together".⁵² Lastly, Bühler notes that δοιός in the singular is nowhere found with the meaning "two, both".⁵³ It is thus preferable to retain the reading of the manuscripts; lines 48-9 can be translated as "high on the brow/cliff of the coast two men were standing, next to each other, and they were gazing at the seafaring cow with wonder".⁵⁴ The image, then, consists of three figures.

The image depicts one moment in time: Io is traversing the sea while two men are watching. Event sequencing is absent, but the image suggest both a previous and a future event. By speaking of Ἰναχὶς Ἰώ (44), the narrator reminds the narratee that Io was a human being before she was turned into a cow. In line 45, the narrator refers to a future event: Io is still a heifer and does not have the shape of a woman (εἰσέτι πάρτις ἐστι, φυὴν δὲ οὐκ ἔχει γυναῖκην). The adverb εἰσέτι, in combination with the negation οὐκ, looks forward to a future moment in time, when Europa is no longer a heifer, but a woman again. In the ekphrasis of Jason’s cloak, ἔτι looks forward to a moment that is not depicted.⁵⁵ In this ekphrasis, εἰσέτι looks forward to a moment that is depicted on the basket, but in another image (50-4).⁵⁶ Of course, this is something that the narratee does not yet know.

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⁵² S.v. ἀολλήδην A. There is, furthermore, one instance of ἀολλής that refers to two people (*LSJ* s.v. ἀολλής A; they refer to S. Tr. 514). Cf. also von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff 1906: 228: "[d]as sind zwei genau respondierende Szenen, eine Kuh auf dem durch Farbe bezeichneten Wasser und aufrecht neben ihr stehend einmal Zeus, das anderemal zwei Zuschauer, ἀολλήδην, gedrängt nebeneinander: das sagt er im Anschluss zugleich und im Gegensatze zu ἀμοίβαδὶς ἄλλοθεν ἄλλος, wie bei Theokrit die Männer stehen. Die beiden Figuren überschnitten sich: so entsprechen sie dem einen Zeus" (emphasis mine).

⁵³ Bühler 1960: 98-9; it rather means "twofold, double" (see *LSJ* s.v. δοιός 2). Campbell 1991: 63 does not discuss this issue, but refers to Gow and Page 1965: 205, who note ad *AP* 7.89.3 (which is also one of the passages discussed by Bühler) that δοιός, in spite of the singular, equals δύο.

⁵⁴ Cf. the translation by Legrand 1927: 146, "[h]aut placés, deux hommes se tenaient debout sur l’escarpement du rivage, serrés l’un contre l’autre; ils regardaient la vache qui traversait la mer".

⁵⁵ For ἔτι...οὐκ, cf. ἔτι δεύετο in A.R. 1.732 (discussed in section 6.2.5, 1) and ἔτι Θήβη in A.R. 1.735.

⁵⁶ Cf. Ravenna 1974: 26: "[q]ui il rapporto con lo stato futuro è dato in praesentia, poiché poco poi più avanti (…) è rappresentata la nuova trasformazione in donna" (italics in the original); in other ekphraseis (e.g. A.R. 1.736), ἔτι creates "un rapporto con uno stato futuro, i cui termini sono in absentia".
World disruption is present. Not only has Io been turned into a cow, she is also traversing the sea, "wandering in a mad frenzy" (φοιταλέη, 46). Traditionally, it is the gadfly sent by Hera that drives Io over the sea. The gadfly is not mentioned by the narrator, which probably indicates that it is not depicted in the image. Nevertheless, the adjective φοιταλέη suggests that the gadfly torments Io and drives her ceaselessly here and there.

The element of 'what-it's-like' is present, too. The adjective φοιταλέη refers to the experiences of Io as cow. The feelings of the spectators are also included: the men are gazing with wonder (θηεῦντο) at the seafaring cow (ποντοπόρον βοῦν, 48). The words ποντοπόρον βοῦν refer to the focalisation of the spectators; they are astonished by the sight of a cow traversing the sea. The striking nature of this sight is further strengthened by the fact that ποντοπόρον βοῦν forms a ring with Ἰναχὶς Ἰώ in 44; it is the only instance of ring composition in this ekphrasis which does not include verbatim repetition (see 7.2.4 above). By ending the image with these words, the eye of the narratee is, as it were, drawn to the central figure of the image, Io.

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58 References in Bühler 1960: 93. For a brief overview of Io's story, see Griffith 1983: 189; more extensively Gantz 1993: 198-203.
60 In both shield ekphraseis, spectators are also found (for Homer, see the references in Clay 2011: 9; for the Shield, see 214 and 242-4). Only here are the spectators watching something extraordinary. Cf. also Manakidou 1993: 175: "[h]ier wird das Sehen (der dargestellten Zuschauer) zum Hauptmotiv der Szene, das zur Bewunderung führt und dem Sehen des wirklichen Zuschauers, d.h. des jeweiligen Lesers entspricht und es somit andeutet".
61 According to Hopkinson 1988: 207, "Io is shown passing through the Bosporus, whose etymology is hinted at in the words ποντοπόρον βοῦν"; Campbell 1991: 63 notes that "folk watch Io pass either from Europe into Asia (...) or (...) from Asia into Europe". Though the name ποντοπόρον βοῦν suggests that the sea depicted in the image is the Bosporus, this need not be the case: Io has roamed widely (see Bühler 1960: 100). It should be noted that the idea that people are standing on two coasts is based on emendations in line 48.
62 On the spectators, see also Zanker 2004: 50-1. He concludes that Moschus "shows us fascinatingly how sculpture and painting have trained his eye in the selection of detail, here simultaneously giving spatial depth of field, providing an emotional perspective, and directing the reader's eye toward the central figure" (ibid.: 51).
The narrativity of the image is high: both world disruption and ‘what-it’s-like’ are present. Though the image does not contain a sequence of events, it does refer to an earlier and a later event.

2. Zeus is changing Io back into a woman (50-4)
The text which represents the second image has a prototypically descriptive structure. The text proceeds by enumeration; one spatial indicator is found (παρά, 51). The first three lines (50-2) are devoted to the res ipsae; they contain two details (ἑπταπόρῳ, 51; εὐκεράοιο, 52). The last two lines (53-4) focus on the opus ipsum: the material of the three most important elements in the image is mentioned; only verbs designating states are found. Seeing that these lines focus on the appearance of the basket, they can be called prototypically descriptive in every respect.

The image consists of two figures: Zeus and Io. The location of this action is specified, the seven-mouthed Nile (51). Io traditionally recovers her human form in Egypt. The image follows this tradition: the fact that the river has seven mouths identifies it as the Nile. Event sequencing is absent. One action is depicted: Zeus is touching the cow lightly with his hands (50-1), and transforms Io back into a woman (52).

It is unclear how Io is depicted. Two options may be considered. First, one could argue that Io still wholly has the form of a cow.63 The narrator twice refers to Io as heifer (πόρτιος Ἰναχίης, 51; πόρτις 53). In this case, Zeus’ touch sets her transformation in motion, but the transformation itself is not depicted. This means that line 52 (ἐκ βοὸς εὐκεράοιο πάλιν μετάμειβε γυναῖκα) does not refer to what is depicted in the image, but must be regarded as an interpretation of ἐπαφώμενος.64 Second, one could also argue that Io is partially cow and partially human; for example, the narratee might envisage her with a human body, but the head of a cow.65 In this case, line 52 does refer to what is

63 Bühler 1960: 100: “wie aus V. 53/4 hervorgeht, war die Rückverwandlung nur durch die Berührung angedeutet, nicht wirklich ausgeführt. Durch das Auflagen der Hand (...) vollzog Zeus die Rückverwandlung”.
64 So Bühler 1960: 102, who notes that ἐπαφώμενος and μετάμειβε are two aspects of one and the same action (“[i]n der Tat handelt es sich um eine in zwei Aspekte zerlegte Handlung”).
65 See e.g. Manakidou 1993: 176: “[m]öglicherweise läßt sich Io halb als Kuh und halb als Frau wiedergegeben denken, obwohl eine solche Einzelheit von Moschos nicht zu erwarten ist”; and Campbell 1991: 60: “Moschus does not pause to exploit fully the theme of partial metamorphosis (...) he is not interested in spectacle for its own sake. What does matter is that, although Io has
depicted in the image: Io is both cow (ἐκ βοὸς εὐκεράοιο) and woman (γυναῖκα). This would mean that the image represents a pregnant moment: by depicting Io as cow-woman, both what has gone before (Io was a cow) and what will come after (Io will be a woman again) can be easily deduced from the depicted moment. In this light, I draw attention to μετάμειβε, which is an imperfect of a telic verb. By using a telic verb in the imperfect, the narrator anticipates the outcome of the action: it will not take long before the metamorphosis is fully completed and Io has regained her human form. Line 52, then, not only refers to the now of the picture, but also looks to the immediate past (ἐκ βοὸς εὐκεράοιο) as well as to the immediate future (πάλιν...γυναῖκα).

Lines 50-1 (ἐπαφώμενος ἥρέμα χερι / πόρτιος Ἰναχίης) also refer to a future event: by touching Io (ἐπαφώμενος), Zeus also impregnates her. As a result of this so-called ἐπαφή, Io will give birth to Epaphus. With the adverb ἥρέμα ("gently, softly"), the narrator underscores the erotic nature of Zeus' touch. Traditionally, it was also by touching that Zeus had transformed Io into a cow. In line 52, the adverb πάλιν ("back") reminds the narratee that Io was originally a woman. Thus, Io's metamorphosis of cow into woman also recalls her metamorphosis as woman into cow. By depicting one moment, the image tells, as it were, Io's whole metamorphosis.

As in the previous image, world disruption is present: Io's metamorphosis from human to cow and back again from cow to human are disruptive events. When Io regains her human form, her torment comes to an end. Although a metamorphosis from cow to human is a disruptive event, this metamorphosis also brings the world back to its normal state. As for the element of 'what-it's-like', I note ἥρέμα. Taking into consideration the fact that the image also suggests a number of earlier and future events, I conclude that its narrativity is high.

still not left her bovine form behind when we leave her for good, the process has been set in motion, and her torment will soon be a thing of the past"; he later notes that "[p]resumably Moschus is thinking of Io as βουκέρως [horned like a cow] or at most βουκέφαλος γυνή [a woman with the head of a cow] at this stage [in line 52]" (ibid.: 65).

Telic verbs have a natural endpoint (see further 6.2.5, 5).

See e.g. Bühler 1960: 100.

Manakidou 1993: 185. Commentators draw attention to line 95, where the words ἥρέμα χείρεστον are used in an explicit erotic context (on which see Gutzwiller 1981: 69).

3. Hermes, and next to him Argus; from his blood a bird is rising up (55-61)

The text which represents the last image has a prototypically descriptive structure. Textual progression is spatial (πέλας, 56; ἀπό, 58; περίσκεπε, 61). Of the four verbs, two refer to the opus ipsum (ἡσκετο, 56; περίσκεπε, 61); one to the res ipsae (ἐξανέτελεν, 58); the pluperfect ἐκτετάνυστο (56) may refer to both. The following other prototypically descriptive elements are present. A number of visual details pertains to the opus ipsum (φοινήεντος, 58; πολυανθέι, 59; χρυσείου, 61); δινήεντος (55) describes the shape of the basket. In contrast to the two previous images, the narrator does not refer to the material of which the figures are made.70 One other detail refers to the res ipsae (ἀκοιμήτοισι, 57). In the comparison in line 60, the ship is called ὠκύαλος.

Although I speak of image, what is described in lines 55-61 is not so much the representation of an action as the decorative scheme of the basket. In addition, the term image suggests a clearly demarcated part of the object, whereas lines 55-61 pertain to the whole circumference of the basket.71 Thus, the representation has become part of the ornament.72 In other words, the decoration is of a narrative nature, too.73 It is therefore no surprise that the image does not have a setting. As has been noted, the killing of Argus by Hermes comes before Io’s wanderings and metamorphosis from cow to woman. Thus, the narrator refers to the first event of the myth last. I further discuss this point below.

The image depicts one moment: a bird is rising from the blood of Argus. Event sequencing is thus absent. By depicting Hermes and the dead Argus, however, the image does refer to a previous event, the killing of Argus by Hermes. The imperfect ἐξανέτελεν (“was rising up”, 58 – another telic verb) looks forward to the completion of the action, viz. the birth of the peacock. It should be noted that the bird is not named.74

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71 E.g. Bühler 1960: 104.
73 Cf. the goatherd’s cup, of which parts of the decoration also possess some narrativity (see 5-3-4).
74 Scholars have noted that this is the first instance where the death of Argus and the birth of the peacock (“ornithogony”) are connected; and that only here the bird arises from the blood of...
What is perhaps the most disruptive event in the story, the killing of Argus, is not depicted. The birth of the peacock from the blood of Argus is also a disruptive event: world disruption is present. As for the element of 'what-it’s-like', the bird is “glorying in the multicoloured hues of his wings” (ἀγαλλόμενος πτερύγων πολυανθέι χροιῇ, 59). Notwithstanding the fact that the narrator focuses on the decoration, I conclude that its narrativity is high.

The spatial arrangement of the figures on the basket is not wholly clear. The wings of the bird run around the rim (60-1). The wings (ταρσοί, 61) most likely refer to the tail of the peacock; the χείλεα must refer to the upper rim. Line 60 (τὰς [sc. πτέρυγας] Argus (Bühler 1960: 104; Campbell 1991: 66). It has been tentatively suggested that the bird could be the phoenix (Schm wiel 1988: 270-1 and Cusset 2001: 71-2; they note, among other things, that Europa’s father is called Phoenix in line 7; cf. also Merkelbach 1962: 327-8). This seems far-fetched, as the phoenix does not have anything to do with either Argus or Hermes (Campbell 1991: 55 writes that “[a]ttempts to accommodate here, in any meaningful way, either the phoenix or Phoenix, Europa’s father (...) seem to me fanciful”; he does not provide any arguments for this statement).

75 Dubel 2010: 21 notes that “[l]a périphrase qui désigne l'oiseau est très clairement un souvenir de la seule véritable notation de couleur de l'écphrasis de Théocrite: καρπῷ ἕλιξ εἰλεῖται ἀγαλλομένα κροκόεντι (I, 31...). Dans l'un et l'autre cas, le verbe ἀγάλλομαι associe le plaisir à l'éclat de la couleur et souligne l'art”.

76 In line 60, most editors print τὰς ὅ γ’ ἀναπλώσας ὡσεί τέ τις ὠκύαλος νηῦς (Gow, Bühler, Hopkinson, Campbell), τὰς ὅ γ’ is a conjecture by Maas; the manuscripts read ταρσὸν ἀναπλώσας ὡσεί τέ τις ὠκύαλος νηῦς; Legrand prints ταρσὸδ’ ἀναπλώσας (...). The reading ταρσὸν is perfectly acceptable, as Arnott 1971: 156-7 has demonstrated: nothing is wrong with the meaning of ταρσὸν (“[i]n 60-1 Moschus’ bird, a peacock, spreads his ταρσὸν like the sail of a ship, and fills the rims of the golden τάλαρος with his ταρσοί. It may be repetitive, but it is not nonsensical; the reference in both cases will be to the bird’s outstretched tail, viewed as unit (ταρσὸν ἀναπλώσας) and as a collection of feathers covering the rim of the τάλαρος (ταρσοί)”, ibid.: 156); the repetition is not only acceptable but intentional (the lines constitute a reference to Od. 9.219 and 246-7: “[b]ut τάλαρος was originally a wicker-work receptacle used in cheese-making (...). In Od. 9.246-7 Polyphemus ἤμειν μὲν θρέψας λευκά κρέατος / πλεκτοῖς ἐν ταλάρισιν ἀμφάμανος κατέθηκεν. But these wicker-work crates have been mentioned shortly before (219) under a different name: ταρσοὶ μὲν τυρῶν βρίθουν. Originally there would not have been much difference between wicker-work ταρσοὶ and wicker-work τάλαροι. What design then could have been more appropriate for a golden τάλαρος than a peacock with outspread sail (...)?”, ibid.: 157). For this last point, cf. also Dubel 2010: 22 (quoted in note 80 below).

77 Hopkinson 1988: 208; Campbell 1991: 70.
either compares the outspread wings of the peacock with the unfolded sails of a ship, or with the oars on either side of ship. In light of the fact that ταρσοί can also refer to the rows of oars on the sides of ships, the latter interpretation seems to be the most obvious one. Indeed, the tail of the peacock resembles the oars on the side of a ship, in that the multitude of the central shafts (so-called rachises) look like oars.

Below this decorated rim, three figures are depicted: the bird itself, Argus and Hermes. The text provides the following information: Hermes is fashioned round about; nearby him, Argus is lying outstretched. This interpretation is further supported by the fact that the manuscripts read ταρσὸν ἀναπλώσας in line 60 (for which see note 76 above). Cusset 2001: 77-8 draws attention to the reversal in the objects of comparison: "ce ne sont plus le navire et ses rames qui sont comparés aux ailes d’un oiseau comme chez Hésiode ou Eschyle, mais l’oiseau qui ressemble à un navire; ce n’est plus la nature qui sert de référent, ce sont les ouvrages humains, comble de l’artifice dans la description de l’œuvre d’orfèvrerie d’Héphaïstos!"
endowed with unsleeping eyes (ἀκοιμήτοις κεκασμένος ὀφθαλμοί, 57). The adverb ἀμφὶ indicates that Hermes is fashioned "round about", and therefore must take up quite some horizontal space. It is thus most likely that Hermes is depicted in a horizontal position, too. Scholars usually envisage both figures opposite each other. The position of the bird remains unspecified, but from the fact that it springs from Argus’ blood, it can be surmised that it is positioned close to Argus. It covers, at the same time, the rim of the basket with its wings. From this fact, it has been deduced that the bird is depicted as rising above Argus and Hermes, and that he must be bigger than both figures so as to be able to cover the whole rim. It must be noted that the position of the bird remains hypothetical, in that the text offers no definite clues.

4. The Images Together
Europa’s basket depicts three moments from the same myth, the story of Io. As such, the basket as a whole contains the first basic element of narrative, event sequencing. It is the repetition of the figure of Io in two different actions (as a cow traversing the sea, open after death, the image could also depict a version of the myth in which Argus is not lulled to sleep before being killed (this is suggested by Campbell 1991: 67; cf. Legrand 1927: 146, note 4).

82 Hopkinson 1988: 207 notes that “[e]ven in death, his eyes remain open; they are transferred to the tail of the peacock, sacred bird of Hera”. Others have objected against the idea that Argus’ eyes remain open in death (e.g. Manakidou 1993: 177: “[d]as Adjektiv ἀκοιμήτος ist in diesem Zusammenhang zweifellos widersinnig, da es den toten Argos nicht kennzeichnen kann, und kann nur als eine poetische Freiheit, vielleicht mit ironischer Funktion (der φύλαξ κατ’ ἐξοχήν Argos sieht nun nichts mehr) betrachtet werden”). Apart from the fact that eyes may remain open after death, the image could also depict a version of the myth in which Argus is not lulled to sleep before being killed (this is suggested by Campbell 1991: 67; cf. Legrand 1927: 146, note 4).

83 E.g. Campbell 1991: 53-4: “[a]s our eyes move round the residual circumference we observe an outstretched Argus; he almost meets up with Hermes, who will himself be positioned horizontally (as the flow of 55f. suggests: ‘and round about ... Hermes ... and Argus ...’).”

84 See e.g. Könnecke 1914: 551.


86 Bühler 1960: 107: “das Rad des Pfau (…) – und damit den ganzen Pfau – hat man sich erhaben vorzustellen. Im Verhältnis zu den Gestalten des Hermes und des Argos müßte das Tier sehr groß gewesen sein”. Campbell 1991: 53, on the other hand, notes that “[t]he bird may well be eye-catching (…) but it need not be imagined as especially large; indeed, the imperfect in 58 could indicate that the body is not wholly represented – a partial metamorphosis to match Io’s at 51-2.”
and her being metamorphosed into a woman) which makes clear that the first two images depict two different moments of time. Event sequencing in the visual arts is always implicit. This is mirrored by the text, since the images are not temporally but spatially connected (ἐν μὲν, 44; ἐν δὲ, 50). On the basis of his knowledge of the Io myth, the narratee will understand that there is a temporal connection between the images, i.e. that they follow after each other. This temporal connection is also hinted at in the description of the first image (εἰσέτι πόρτις ἐοῦσα, φυὴν δ’ οὐκ εἶχε γυναίην, 45).

The third image does not contain a repeated figure. The narratee can only rely on his knowledge of the myth to connect this image to the previous ones. In addition, whereas the first two images depict actions that follow after each other, the third image depicts an action that is temporally situated before the previous two images. Thus, the order in which the images are described does not follow the order of the fabula of the Io myth. This can be explained by the fact that the so-called Randstücke (framing elements) are described last, a procedure also found in other ekphraseis. The narrator is led by spatial considerations in the order of his description.

In order to capture this distinction, Petrain speaks of fabula and sjuzhet: "the temporal sequence of the scenes (fabula) is disrupted by a different, anachronous ordering of narration (sjuzhet) determined by their spatial distribution on the basket". Petrain, who has also taken the goatherd's cup in Theocritus' first Idyll and the temple ekphrasis in Aeneid i into consideration, concludes that "[t]here seems to have been a

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87 See further section 1.4.3.
88 As has been noted by Bühler 1960: 104; in the ekphrasis of Jason's cloak, the images are woven into the borders; in the ekphrasis of the goatherd's cup, the goatherd starts with the rim. Only in the ekphrasis of Europa's basket do spatial considerations lead to a visual narrative that is described "out of order", for it is only in this ekphrasis that a visual narrative is depicted by three images of which the last is a framing element.
89 Petrain 2006: 253: “the spatial position of the Argus scene explains and justifies its deviation from narrative sequence because, as a framing element, it is a natural candidate for being described last despite its chronological priority”.
90 Petrain 2006: 253. He further states that “[o]ther treatments of ancient ecphrasis have employed 'story' and 'narration' to distinguish the visual artwork itself from the particular way in which its elements are ordered and mediated by a specific viewer's verbal (or textual) description; my terms, by contrast, refer solely to phenomena of sequence in ecphrases featuring narrative content” (ibid.: 254; emphasis mine).
marked interest in viewing 'against the grain', that is, in neglecting an obvious narrative sequence in favour of striking juxtapositions not sanctioned by chronology".91

Whereas the Io myth certainly has a fabula, I do not think the term story should be used in connection with the ekphrasis of the basket of Europa, which is essentially a description (see 7.2.2 above): the narrator views the basket primarily as an object, not as a narrative. In the case of a narrative, the term story would make sense, because the underlying fabula has a fixed temporal order. In descriptions, however, no such fixed order exists.92 There is no fixed order in describing an object. Hence, there is no order from which one can deviate. Even though Petrain suggest that the narrator deviates from an order (anachronous ordering), he notes himself that it is logical and natural that the narrator ends with the framing elements. Certainly, the images are not described in their chronological order, but the term story should not be applied.

In addition, we may wonder whether one can speak of 'viewing against the grain' in the case of the basket of Europa. The narrator first looks at its two principal images, after which he turns to the decorative scheme. This seems a very natural way of looking at an object. If anything, we may credit the "artist" of the basket, Hephaestus, with creating an object which directs the look of the viewer in such a way as to produce an effect of surprise – the decorations depict the very first event of the myth. Lastly, we may credit the narrator with creating an ekphrasis that allows for both processes to be seen by the narratee.93

91 Petrain 2006: 267. For a discussion of Petrain's argument in the case of the goatherd's cup, see 5.3.5-4.
92 Cf. Fowler 1991: 29, who refers to Levelt's notion of the speaker's linearization problem (for which see 1.3.1): "when we describe in words a scene, we have to decide the order in which we are to present the details and the duration – which may be zero – of the description of each of them. Narratologically, that is, the visual scene described functions as story to the narration of the verbal description. There is no neutral, zero focalized way of linearizing a visual scene: a point of view is necessarily inscribed, though there may be accepted ways in a particular culture of ordering the elements (...);"); cf. also Laird 1996: 100-1.
93 In the words of Fowler 1991: 29-30 (for the terms employed, see the previous note): "[t]he converse of the speaker's linearization problem is the artist's non-linearization problem, how to represent time through simultaneity, and there are various ways of solving this. In the literary description of a work of art, we may find traces of both linearization and non-linearization: the cleverest example I know is that of the ekphrasis in Moschus, where the story of Argos and Io which was non-linearized by the artist in spatial terms is then relinearized by Moschus in a way which allows both processes to be seen".
At any rate, the basket depicts a sequence of three events. It is up to the viewer to determine the order in which these events happen. The images on the basket most likely resemble a picture series. The only other object in the ekphraseis of this study which depicts a story in a number of separate images is the shield of Achilles, viz. in the city at war (509–40) and the attack on the herd of cattle (573–86), consisting of respectively six and two images. Europa’s basket is different in that it depicts a well-known myth, whereas the shield of Achilles depicts anonymous figures. In the Homeric shield ekphasis, it is only by the repetition of identical figures in different actions that different moments of time can be indicated. The basket of Europa does not rely on repetition only – as is demonstrated by the third image – because it depicts a well-known myth.

All three images depict disruptive events: Io as a cow traversing the seas, Io being transformed back into a woman, and a bird rising up from the blood of Argus. Indeed, the basket represents the three most striking moments of the Io myth. On the basket, these three disruptive events combine to depict a disruptive story. It is especially the third image that increases the disruptive nature of the events. Argus was sent by Hera to guard the cow Io. Furthermore, according to most accounts, it was Hera’s anger at Argus’ death that made her send the gadfly to plague Io. Argus’ presence on the basket, then, helps to remind the narratee of Hera’s role in tormenting Io. In addition,
it was out of fear of Hera that Zeus transformed Io into a cow. Thus, the third image not only broadens the temporal scope of the story depicted on the basket, but also refers – both directly and indirectly – to other unsavoury episodes of the Io story.

According to some scholars, the basket depicts a version of the Io myth that has been stripped of its more unpleasant elements. Campbell speaks of a "specially tailored, diluted version (...), with stress laid on the happy outcome". Indeed, the basket does not depict the whole story – a realistic touch in the case of a visual narrative. I do not, however, believe that by not depicting certain elements of the story – Campbell mentions, among other things, the unwillingness of Io, Hera's anger, the gadfly, and the slaying of Argus – the basket therefore does not imply these elements. Because the myth is known, the 'viewer' of the basket will be reminded by these elements simply by looking at the images. Can the viewer look at Io as a cow and believe that she is having a good time? In addition, I draw attention to φοιταλέη (46) and the fact that Argus' blood is mentioned (τοῖο δὲ φοινήεντο ἀφ’ αἵματος, 58). Of story is not mentioned explicitly in Moschus' poem does not negate her importance. Rather, she seems by this distance to become an ever more powerful figure, controlling the events without herself becoming involved (...)."

"In some versions it is Hera who transforms Io into a cow (Griffith 1983: 189; see for discussion Friis Johansen and Whittle 1980: 239 ad A. Supp. 299).

"Campbell 1991: 55-6: the Io myth "(...) is an unpleasant, harrowing tale, of a common type (...). But Moschus can of course be selective, and is: he nowhere states that Io was (...) an unwilling party to the proceedings (...). The Zeus we see here is majestic and benign, not selfish and arbitrary. Further, there is none of the shock of an initial metamorphosis, nothing on the actual slaying of Argus, while φοιταλέη (...) is as close as we get to the tormenting gadfly. Indeed, by placing the Argus-Hermes-peacock scene last, Moschus has created the illusion (...) that the story ended there, in a blaze of colour. In fact, according to most accounts it was her sense of outrage at the killing of Argus that induced Hera to plague Io with a gadfly. Hera's anger simply does not come into the picture" (emphasis in the original); Manakidou 1993: 191: "jede Szene entweder in der Korbbeschreibung oder in der Hauptgeschichte entfaltet sich mit der Absicht, ein mehr oder weniger fröhliches Bild zu präsentieren. Dies gilt merkwürdigerweise auch in den wirklich traurigen oder schlimmen Momenten der Geschichte (etwa beim Tod des Argos (...))"; she later notes that “die Szenen auf dem Korb so dargestellt sind, daß der Eindruck einer Geschichte mit gutem Ende und großem Glück erweckt wird” (ibid.: 194).

"Campbell 1991: 56.

course, a bird arises from Argus' blood, but I wonder whether this can be called a happy outcome.\textsuperscript{105}

The element of 'what-it’s-like' is not very prominently present in any of the three images. This can be viewed as a realistic touch, in that visual narratives can only indirectly refer to feelings and the like. Io’s experiences as cow are mentioned (φοιταλέη, 46), but emphasis in the first image lies on the feelings of the spectators (48-9). In the second image, the touch of Zeus is soft (ἠρέμα, 50), but Io’s feelings in the midst of her metamorphosis are unknown. Io’s feelings are apparently of no importance to the narrator.

The three images together form a sequence of events which consists of three disruptive events. The basket, then, depicts a story with a high degree of narrativity.

7.3 Europa’s Basket: Its Descriptivity and Narrativity. Conclusion

The ekphrasis of Europa’s basket features two discourse modes. The text that represents the images (43-62) contains the descriptive discourse mode; the surrounding lines (33-42; 63-4) feature the diegetic discourse mode. Lines 37-42, which also pertain to the basket, are not devoid of descriptive details. I note especially lines 37-8, which refer to the basket’s material and spectacular nature.

The text that represents the images does not only have a prototypically descriptive textual organization, but also features a number of other prototypically descriptive elements. In comparison with the other two Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study, references to the opus ipsum occur relatively often. It is especially the mention of the materials in lines 44-54, and the bird surrounding the basket in 59-61, which constitute eye-catching visual details. This relatively large emphasis on the opus ipsum may be due to the fact that Europa’s basket is the only object in the three Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study that is made of various materials: the cup is of solid wood, and the cloak wholly of cloth. Nevertheless, these references create the strong impression that the narrator is describing an actual object. They can be said to create an effet de réel.

All three images have a high degree of narrativity. As such, Europa’s basket is unique in the corpus of this study: none of the other objects features only images with a high degree of narrativity. The narrativity of the images is mainly due to the fact that they depict disruptive events. In addition, they suggest both earlier and later events.

\textsuperscript{105} In a sense, Io’s transformation from cow to human can be called a happy outcome. However, it seems that it is mainly Zeus who will profit from this metamorphosis.
The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ is not prominently present. In fact, references to thoughts or emotions are absent – as are references to sound. Indeed, when referring to the images the narrator limits himself to what is readily representable.\footnote{Manakidou 1993: 185 notes only one element that is alien to the visual arts (ἁλμυρά…κέλευθα, 46); see ibid.: 69-71 and 116-7 on such elements in the ekphraseis of the goatherd’s cup and Jason’s cloak.}

The three images combine into a visual narrative with a high degree of narrativity. The depiction of a mythological story in three more or less separate images is a novel element. The shield of Achilles also contains a story – the city at war, which is not of a mythological nature – that is depicted by six different images. In those lines (509-540), the text contains many narrative elements – even the diegetic discourse mode occurs.\footnote{See further 3.3.3.3, 2b.} In the ekphrasis of Europa’s basket, on the other hand, the text contains only one temporal adverb (line 45). Thus, we have a text with a high degree of descriptivity. This text, in turn, represents a series of images with a high degree of narrativity. Such a text strongly suggests a visual narrative: both do not contain explicit event sequencing. It is the “viewer” who must connect the various events.

7.4 Coda: Visualizing Europa’s Basket

As in all other ekphraseis of this study, the narrator is not very clear on the precise layout of the basket. Thus, the location of the images on the basket or vis-à-vis each other is not clear. Furthermore, the shape of the basket itself is unknown.\footnote{This does not mean that the narratee should not attempt to visualize Europa’s basket.\footnote{Cf. Könnecke 1914: 550: “[d]ass es ihm jedoch im übrigen nicht vornehmlich darum zu tun war, in der Phantasie des Lesers eine konkrete Vorstellung des Korbes zu erwecken, folgt aus dem schon erwähnten Mangel an räumlichen Angaben (…)”.} In fact, it has even been argued that the narrator is describing an object that has existed in reality.\footnote{Legrand 1927: 143: ”[e]ncore que l'agencement des motifs n'apparaisse pas clairement d'après les vers de Moschos, il se peut qu'en écrivant ces vers le poète se soit figuré avec exactitude un talaros décoré de la sorte, ou même qu'il ait écrit un talaros réel, un talaros qu'il avait ou qu'il avait eu sous les yeux”; Nicosia 1968: 47: “(…) le varie scene sono legate per il contenuto,”}
The narratee may visualize the basket by making use of his knowledge of (contemporary) visual art. First, metal baskets, even though none remain, existed in antiquity. Second, the basket is made of precious metals, and it is thus likely that it is reminiscent of Hellenistic silver and goldware. In connection with Europa's basket, Fowler refers to Hellenistic silver work. She notes that Hellenistic silver work is often gilded; and that polychrome inlays are a mark of Hellenistic gold work. She compares a small silver dish in the Brooklyn Museum, dated to the second half of the second century BC. The dish itself and most of the exterior relief are cast; the details are chased and the reliefs gilded. Although the metals of which Europa's basket is made certainly recall the shield of Achilles, they were also used in the fabrication of contemporary works of art.
8. Summary and Conclusion: Ekphrasis between Description and Narration

Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard
Are sweeter; therefore, ye soft pipes, play on;
Not to the sensual ear, but, more endeared,
Pipe to the spirit ditties of no tone.

John Keats, “Ode on a Grecian Urn”, 11-42

8.1 Research question and methodology

This study contains an investigation into the nature of five ancient Greek ekphraseis. Ekphrasis is defined as the verbal representation of visual representation. This means that an ekphrastic text embodies two layers of representation: a primary verbal layer and a secondary visual layer. Ekphrasis is thus doubly mimetic: the text represents an image which in turn represents something else. This study focuses on ekphraseis of which the images represent figures engaged in actions.

The main aim of this study is to investigate to what degree these ekphraseis can be regarded as narrative and to what degree as descriptive. For definitions of narration and description, this study draws on modern narratological and linguistic theory. Both concepts are defined by making use of a prototype approach: a given object has a certain amount of narrativity and/or descriptivity. Both are a matter of degree: an object can be more or less narrative and/or descriptive. Thus, this study does not aim at determining whether an ekphrasis is either narrative or descriptive. Rather, it establishes which elements that are prototypically associated with narration and description are present, and thus where on a gradual scale between narration and description the ekphrasis is located.

1 “Simonides calls painting silent poetry and poetry talking painting”, Plut. Mor. (De glor. Ath.) 346F. Simonides’ famous dictum is also found elsewhere.

2 Text in Allott 1972: 534-5.

3 This is the modern definition of ekphrasis, as formulated by Heffernan.
Following Herman’s *Basic Elements of Narrative* (2009), this study distinguishes three prototypical elements of narration: (1) event sequencing (a prototypical narrative contains a sequence of events), (2) world disruption (these events introduce some sort of disruption into the storyworld), and (3) ‘what-it’s-like’ (what is it like for the characters in the storyworld to experience these (disruptive) events). The prototypical features of description have been taken from Wolf’s “Description as a Transmedial Mode of Representation” (2007): the attribution of qualities to elements of the storyworld and a focus on what these elements look like. Descriptions are full of details, which are prototypically of a visual nature. The following table illustrates the prototypical features of narration and description:

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<th>Prototypical features of NARRATION</th>
<th>- event sequencing (temporal organization)</th>
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Table 8.1: Prototypical Features of Narration and Description

The ekphraseis of this study have been analysed as follows. First, the primary verbal layer, the text, has been investigated. I started with a linguistic analysis of the discourse modes to establish the organization of the text. This analysis helps to establish the presence of some of the prototypical features of narration and description. If the text has narrative structure, it features a sequence of events. This means that the first basic element of narrative is present. In this case, the text advances temporally. If the text has a descriptive structure, fabula time has stopped. As a consequence, the text progresses spatially and by enumeration. After the textual organization had been established, it was further investigated which prototypical features of description are present.

Next, I examined the secondary visual layer, the image. It was investigated which of the three basic elements of narrative were represented or, otherwise, evoked by the image. The starting point for this investigation were the results of the linguistic analysis. Particular attention was paid to the relation between the linguistic structure of the text
and the nature of the image. The question of what is explicitly represented and what is merely evoked by the image was also of central concern.

In the following section (8.2), I first discuss the text (8.2.1), after which I turn to the images (8.2.2). I end with a general conclusion (8.2.3). In section 8.3, I address the issue of the ekphraseis' visualization. In section 8.4, I discuss the relevance of the findings of this study for the understanding of the concept of ekphrasis in general.

8.2.1 Ekphrasis between Description and Narration: The Text
Ekphrasis consists of two levels of representation, a primary verbal layer and a secondary visual layer. The primary layer concerns the text. The five ekphraseis of this study – the shield of Achilles in Homer's *Iliad* (18.478-608), the shield of Heracles in pseudo-Hesiod's *Shield* (139-320), the goatherd's cup in Theocritus' first *Idyll* (27-60), the cloak of Jason in Apollonius Rhodius' *Argonautica* (1.721-68), and the basket of Europe in Moschus' *Europa* (37-62) – have, for the most part, a descriptive textual organization. This means that the text does not feature a sequence of events. Only the shield of Achilles has a main narrative textual organization: the narrator presents the shield while it is being made by Hephaestus. The sections dealing with what is depicted in the shield's images, however, mostly have a descriptive textual organization, too.

Even though the text that represents the images does not feature a sequence of events, it does feature events. These are expressed by imperfects and thereby characterized as ongoing. The many ongoing events in the text indicate that the narrator is referring to actions that are depicted in an image: 1. actions in an image can be regarded as ongoing, since they can never reach their endpoint; 2. the ongoing actions are not part of a sequence of events, given that an image cannot create an explicit sequence of events; and 3. these ongoing actions are all presented as happening at the same time, as they are a verbal representation of actions depicted in a single image.

That the text referring to the images mostly contains ongoing events is due to the fact that the narrator focuses mostly on what the images represent, the so-called *res ipsae*. The physical properties of the object, the *opus ipsum*, are paid relatively little attention to. References to the *opus ipsum* can be made in passing (e.g. *Il.* 18.577, χρυσεῖοι δὲ νομῆες ἅμ' ἐστιχόωντο βόεσσι, “golden herdsmen were marching with the cattle”). The narrator may also explicitly draw attention to the *opus ipsum* (e.g. *Il.* 18.574, ἀι δὲ βόας χρυσότα τετεύχατο κασσιτέρου τε, “and they, the cattle, had been made of gold and tin”). In such cases, the text contains states, expressed by imperfects and
pluperfects. References to the *opus ipsum* are often located at the beginning of the ekphrasis, or at the beginning of a new image. Such references remind the narratees that the actions presented belong to an image.

The descriptive organization of the text, then, is mainly due to the tenses that are used: imperfects and pluperfects. The text mostly proceeds by enumeration: the various ongoing events are enumerated. Spatial indicators are found, too. These are used to introduce a new image and locate it on the object (ἐν μέν, ἐν δέ, etc.) they also make clear the spatial relationship of the various figures vis-à-vis each other.

Only in the ekphrasis of Europa’s basket does the text that refers to the images have a completely descriptive structure. In the other ekphraseis, the text sometimes diverges from a descriptive structure. In the shield of Achilles, lines 525-32, 544-6 and 599-602 have a narrative structure: they feature a sequence of events. In lines 525-32, where a number of aorist indicatives occur, the aorists presumably refer to actions that are not depicted in the image. They provide background information that refers to actions temporally anterior to what is depicted in the image. These events thus belong to the primary textual layer only: they are not depicted on the shield. However, lines 544-6 and 599-602, which contain iterative aorists, do refer to what is depicted. The iterative aorists indicate that the actions must be thought of as repeating themselves *ad infinitum* in the image.

In the shield of Heracles, lines 252b-7 and 261-3 have a narrative structure. Lines 252b-7 express a sequence of iterative events. Most likely, these lines must be interpreted as lines 544-6 and 599-602 of the shield of Achilles. Alternatively, they could refer to actions that are not depicted, or, since the shield of Heracles has magical properties, may even refer to actions that are not merely imagined as ongoing but actually ongoing. In this case, the figures would really move – as do other figures on the shield, such as Perseus and the Gorgons in 228-37. Lines 261-3 contain finite aorists. These cannot refer to non-depicted events, as in the shield of Achilles. One could again argue that the figures are really moving. Alternatively, the narrator has created a sequence of events in response to a static image. It remains unclear how the figures are depicted in the image.

In the three Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study, only the goatherd’s cup features a passage with a narrative structure that refers to what is depicted on the cup, lines 36-8. Again, it concerns a sequence of iterative events. We see, then, that passages with a narrative textual organization are rare in archaic ekphraseis, but almost wholly absent from Hellenistic ekphraseis. On the other hand, two Hellenistic ekphraseis, the
goatherd’s cup and Jason’s cloak, feature passages which have neither a descriptive nor a narrative but a discursive textual organization (A.R. 1.765-7, Theoc. Id. 1.42). In these brief passages, the narrator directly addresses the narratee.

A passage with a descriptive textual organization is not necessarily devoid of all temporal elements. In the Homeric shield ekphrasis, aorist participles, subordinate temporal clauses and temporal adverbs are all found. In the shield of Heracles, the use of aorists participles and subordinate temporal clauses becomes rarer. In the Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study, only one aorist participle and one subordinate temporal clause are found.4 Temporal adverbs remain in use. Thus, it would seem that in Hellenistic ekphraseis the text reflects the image more directly, in that it does not contain any temporal elements which might a priori be regarded as alien to an image. This is also clear from the kind of adverbs that are used. In the Homeric shield ekphrasis, the text contains the temporal adverb ἔπειτα.5 Hellenistic ekphraseis, on the other hand, do not contain ἔπειτα. Rather, we find ἐτι or ἠδη.6 Whereas ἔπειτα suggests that different actions are happening after each other, ἐτι and ἠδη refer to the temporal scope of a single action.

The text of the ekphraseis does not solely refer to the images. The Homeric shield ekphrasis is a dramatized description: the shield is described while it is being made by Hephaestus. It is the only ekphrasis of this study which does not constitute a pause, since both fabula and story time advance. As stated above, the lines in which the actions of Hephaestus are related have a narrative structure.

In the other ekphraseis, part of the object’s history is related.7 These passages have a narrative structure, but Theoc. Id. 1.57-9 has a discursive structure. Lines dealing with other parts of the object – such as its decorations, for example – generally have a descriptive textual organization.8

Descriptive details are found throughout the ekphraseis. They are not confined to passages with a descriptive structure only, but also occur in passages with a narrative organization. In the investigation of the other prototypical elements of description, then, the text of the ekphrasis as a whole must be taken into account. It is one of the

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4 Mosch. Eur. 60 and Theoc. Id. 1.51.
5 Il. 18.506, 527, 545.
6 For ἠδη, see A.R. 1.731; for ἐτι, see A.R. 1.732, 736; Mosch. Eur. 45 (εἰσέτι). Both adverbs are also found in the shield of Heracles: ἠδη in 172 and ἐτι in 176 and 241.
7 Hes. Sc. 139-40, 219, 318-20; Theoc. Id. 1.57-9; A.R. 1.722-4; Mosch. Eur. 39-42.
main functions of descriptions to provide an idea of what the storyworld looks like; descriptions typically focus on concrete objects that can be visualized. In this sense, the ekphrasesis can indeed be called descriptive: the narrator devotes all his attention to an object so that the narratee may get an idea of what it looks like.

As has been stated above, the narrator focuses mainly on the \textit{res ipsae}; the \textit{opus ipsum} receives comparatively little attention. This means that the main focus in ekphrasesis does not lie so much on the surface of the object as on the actions represented by that surface. This means that the attribution of qualities, the prototypical mode of descriptive presentation, occurs mainly \textit{in passing} (e.g. in Il. 18.577, \textit{χρύσειοι δὲ νομῆες ἄμ' ἐστικόσωτο βόεσσι}, where the attributive adjective \textit{χρύσειοι} is found). Passages of any length where the narrator \textit{explicitly} attributes qualities are relatively scarce (e.g. in Il. 18.574, \textit{αἳ δὲ βόες χρυσοῖο τετεύχατο κασσιτέρου τε}, where the predicative adjectives \textit{χρυσοῖο} and \textit{κασσιτέρου} are found).\footnote{Il. 18.517-19, 562-5, 595-8; Hes. Sc. 161-7, 220-7, 264-70, 296-300; Theoc. \textit{Id}. 1. 29-31; A.R. 1.727-9, Mosch. \textit{Eur}. 44-5, 52-3.} The qualities that are attributed do not necessarily pertain to the \textit{opus ipsum}; most often, they refer to the \textit{res ipsae}.\footnote{Compare Il. 18.517-19 (\textit{opus ipsum}) with Hes. Sc. 264-70 (\textit{res ipsae}).}

The amount and type of detail varies per ekphrasis. On the whole, the archaic ekphrasesis contain more descriptive details than the Hellenistic ones; these details are, furthermore, more often of a visual nature. This is not simply due to the fact that the archaic ekphrasesis are much longer: they contain more details per line. In this regard, archaic ekphrasesis have a higher degree of descriptivity than their Hellenistic counterparts.

However, when comparing the archaic ekphrasesis on the one hand, and the Hellenistic ekphrasesis on the other, one notices that the structure of the text that represents the images becomes more prototypically associated with description: not only do passages with a narrative textual organization almost disappear, the passages with a descriptive textual organization contain fewer temporal elements. As has been noted, the amount of descriptive detail decreases. Both developments result in images that are, in my view, easier to visualize. I further discuss this issue in section 8.3.

8.2.2 Ekphrasis between Description and Narration: The Images
The secondary layer of ekphrasis concerns the images. The images that are represented by the text have various degrees of narrativity and descriptivity. On the whole, one
notices that in Hellenistic ekphraseis images with a high degree of narrativity predominate. This is mainly due to the fact that they feature world disruption. In the early ekphraseis, on the other hand, most images have a low degree of narrativity. In these images, world disruption is absent. One notices, then, that there is no one-to-one relationship between the nature of the text and the nature of the image. Texts with a high degree of descriptivity may refer to images that have a high degree of narrativity.

The first element of narrative, event sequencing, is present in two ekphraseis. In order to depict a sequence of events, an image must contain repeated figures who are involved in different actions. This indicates that different temporal moments of the same story are depicted. The separate images depict a single ongoing event, but the events together suggest a sequence. In the shield of Achilles, I have argued that the city at war in lines 509-540 consists of six different images (some of which are set in different locations); the attack on the herd of cattle in 573-86 consists of two different images. Likewise, Europa’s basket contains three moments from the Io myth, depicted in three images. One may compare these passages with a picture series.

Many images do not contain a sequence of events, but merely suggest one. The shield of Achilles features a number of single images in which more than one temporal moment is depicted: different figures are involved in different actions within one and the same image. This type of representation suggests that the actions are to be understood as following one after the other: the image implies a sequence of events. A similar image is perhaps found on the shield of Heracles. Only archaic ekphraseis contain images of this type, which can be regarded as a subtype of polyphase single images.

Most images depict a single moment in time: they are monophase images. Often, the image suggests either what has occurred before and/or what will happen after the depicted moment. Some images contain a pregnant moment: here, the moment depicted is strongly suggestive of what has just gone before and what will happen in the immediate future. In the case of an image with a mythical subject, the narratee will use his knowledge of the myth to supplement the depicted event. The fact that an event has been going on before or will continue afterwards can be made explicit in the text by adverbs such as ἤδη or ἔτι.

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11 E.g. the ploughers in the field in 18,544-7.
12 The battle of the Lapiths and Centaurs in 178-90.
13 E.g. the battle between wild boars and lions in Hes. Sc. 168-77; the chariot-race in A.R. 1,752-8; the metamorphosis of Io into a woman in Mosch. Eur. 59-4.
The narrative element of world disruption, i.e. the introduction of a disruption or disequilibrium into the storyworld, is present in all ekphraseis. Generally, the archaic ekphraseis contain many images which do not contain world disruption. The Homeric shield ekphrasis has only two images (out of nine) that feature world disruption; the shield of Heracles features four images (out of thirteen) that depict disruptive events.\(^4\) The number of images that contain world disruption is higher in the three Hellenistic ekphraseis of this study. All three images on Europa’s basket depict disruptive events. Two out of three images on the goatherd’s cup feature world disruption. On Jason’s cloak, three images (out of seven) feature disruptive events.\(^5\)

The element of ‘what-it’s-like’ (i.e. what it is like for someone to experience the events of the storyworld) is present in all ekphraseis. This element might, a priori, seem alien to images, since images cannot directly refer to feelings or emotions. First, however, it should be noted that all ekphraseis contain elements that are, strictly speaking, alien to the visual arts. Ekphrasis, as a verbal imaginative response to a static image, may therefore also include feelings and emotions. Second, images can refer to feelings or emotions indirectly. For example, in Sc. 242-8 the women who are rending their cheeks and the old men who are praying indicate feelings of anxiety and fear.

In order for an image to have a high degree of narrativity, the element of world disruption must be present. Disruptive events – events which disrupt the normal order of things – are a prototypical element of a story or narrative. As stated above, in the shield of Achilles only two images feature world disruption, the city at war in 509-40 and the attack on the herd of cattle in 573-86. They are the only images with a high degree of narrativity. Interestingly enough, their narrativity is further increased by the fact that they also feature event sequencing.

The other images on the shield of Achilles lack world disruption. An image without disruptive events depicts the world as it is. This is a prototypically descriptive feature. Indeed, many images depict events that often happen in the life of human beings. The events follow a script (a more or less standardized sequence of events): everything happens according to expectation. In addition, the figures involved in these events are

\(^4\) The city at war in Il. 18.509-40, and the attack on the herd of cattle in 573-86; the battle between boars and lions in Sc. 168-77, the battle of the Lapiths and Centaurs in 178-90, Perseus fleeing the Gorgons in 216-37a, and the mortals at war in 237b-70a.

\(^5\) The woman and two men in Theoc. Id. 1.32-8, and the boy and two foxes in 45-54; the fight between the Teleboae and sons of Electryon in A.R. 1. 747-51, the chariot-race in 752-8, and Apollo who is shooting at Tityus in 759-62.
many and anonymous. For example, in the ploughing image on the shield of Achilles (541-9) we find those events depicted that regularly and normally occur when people are ploughing. Everything goes as it should go. Nothing goes wrong: the image does not, for example, depict a plough that breaks. Images which follow a script can be said to have generic narrativity. At the same time, they possess descriptivity: they provide a picture of the world in its normal state.

In the shield of Heracles, four images contain world disruption. All four lack event sequencing. Nevertheless, on account of the fact that they depict disruptive events, their narrativity is high. As in the shield of Achilles, the images which lack world disruption possess descriptivity, too. Some of these images depict an individual or have a mythical subject matter, but this does not mean that they are therefore more narrative than images with a multitude of anonymous figures.16

In the three Hellenistic ekphraseis, images with a low degree of narrativity are less frequent; images with a high degree of narrativity predominate. Europa's basket, which depicts the story of Io and therefore has a mythical subject matter, does not only contain three images that all feature world disruption, these images also form a sequence of events. The goat herd's cup also features three images, which depict individuals. Their subject is not drawn from myth, nor do they form a sequence of events. Two images have a high degree of narrativity, since they feature world disruption. The image with the fisherman (39-44) lacks this feature, and also possesses descriptivity. The images on Jason's cloak are all of a mythical nature. Three images feature disruptive events. The other four images do not, on account of which their narrativity is low. Of these, two images also have a certain amount of descriptivity, since they depict figures in situations in which they are frequently found. The other two refer to particular moments from a myth.17

8.2.3 Ekphrasis between Description and Narration: Conclusion
The five ekphraseis of this study are situated in more than one way between a prototypical description and a prototypical narration. Their textual organization has both narrative and descriptive properties. The images, too, have both narrative and

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16 Individual: fisherman in 213-5; mythical subject matter: Ares with Fear and Rout in 191-6, Athena in 197-200, and the immortals and Apollo in 201-6.
17 The Cyclopes who are forging a thunderbolt for Zeus in 730-4, and Aphrodite who is holding up Ares' shield in 742-6; Amphion and Zethus who are laying the foundations for the walls of Thebes in 735-41, and Phrixus who is listening to the ram in 763-7.
descriptive properties. However, there are some tendencies that can be discerned. Even though there are a few exceptions, the text has a predominantly descriptive organization. The images, on the other hand, possess a certain amount of narrativity, since they represent one or more figures engaged in ongoing actions. Ekphrasis, then, has both narrative and descriptive properties, but it is in the primary verbal layer that descriptive elements predominate, while narrative elements predominate in the secondary visual layer.18

8.3 Ekphrasis and Visualization

It might be self-evident that in an ekphrastic text – ekphrasis being the verbal representation of a visual representation – it is the narrator’s aim to enable his narratees to visualize the object that is described. However, in the case of the Homeric shield ekphrasis it has been claimed that this is not the narrator’s aim, on the grounds that the shield would be unvisualizable. A similar argument has been advanced in the case of the goatherd’s cup and Jason’s cloak. On the other hand, it has also been suggested that Jason’s cloak can be visualized. The shield of Heracles, though very similar in a number of respects to the shield of Achilles, is also considered to be visualizable. What to make of these contradictory views?

In my view, all ekphraseis of this study can be visualized. Just as with the distinction between narration and description, visualization is not a question of either/or: some ekphrastic passages may be more easy to visualize than others. At the same time, visualization is an elusive concept: whereas some narratees may be able to form a mental image of the shield of Achilles, others may perhaps not be able to do so. It also very much depends on one’s approach to ekphrasis. I contend that ekphrastic texts at least aim to represent images. The dominance of the imperfect tense makes this idea plausible. In antiquity, too, readers would attempt to visualize the object, as witness the scholia, for example.

In all five ekphraseis of this study, the narrator provides relatively little information regarding the object as a material object. Many particulars, such as size, are not explicitly mentioned. The position of the images on the object and vis-à-vis each other also remains unclear. All attention goes out to the images as separate entities; focus is on the res ipsae, and not on the opus ipsum. Hence, whereas the separate images are

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18 This means that in table 1.1 (section 1.3.1) option 1b best captures the nature of the ekphraseis of this study.
often meticulously described, the lay-out of the object as a whole remains relatively unclear. The narratee must therefore exercise his imagination to turn the ekphrastic text into an object. Contemporary listeners or readers will have used their knowledge of art in order to do so. True, the objects of ekphrasis may be unrealistic: it is doubtful if they could have ever existed as they are described. Nevertheless, many of the constitutive elements of the object are known from (contemporary) art, and these realistic elements may have been used by the contemporary listener or reader to visualize an object that is, in its totality, unrealistic.

In my view, there is a difference between the archaic ekphraseis on the one hand, and the Hellenistic ekphraseis on the other. The Hellenistic ekphraseis are easier to visualize than their archaic counterparts. The archaic ekphraseis are more crowded. They contain many images, which in turn contain many figures. The Hellenistic ekphraseis contain fewer images, which generally focus on a limited number of individuals. The nature of the text in the Hellenistic ekphraseis also makes visualization easier. Their textual structure is more prototypically descriptive than that of the archaic ekphraseis.

At the same time, the text of the Hellenistic ekphraseis contains considerably less detail. Though this means that in this respect the text is less prototypically descriptive, the inclusion of more detail does not necessarily make visualization easier. In my view, there is a certain optimum between too little and too much descriptive detail. In the Hellenistic ekphraseis, most attention goes out to the ongoing actions in the image, rather than to what the figures or other elements of the image look like. I would suggest that by leaving this information to be supplied by the mind’s eye the image becomes easier to visualize. This is a tentative conclusion that needs further investigation.

8.4 The Findings of this Study and the Notion of Ekphrasis

Ekphrasis, as the verbal representation of visual representation, is doubly mimetic. Its two levels of representation belong to different media, the verbal medium and the visual medium. Ekphrastic passages must therefore overcome a difficulty: how to represent something that exists in an order that is different from that of the medium of representation, i.e. how to represent the visual by verbal means. To complicate matters further, ekphrastic passages do not simply represent spatial objects, but spatial objects that represent some form of visual narrative.

This study has investigated the form and nature of five ancient Greek ekphraseis. Modern scholarship has noted that ekphrasis may have many different
Realisationsformen. Description, which is an almost invariable part of the definition of ekphrasis in classical scholarship, is regarded as one of its possible forms. I have argued that in order to investigate the form of ekphrasis insightfully, a distinction must be made between text and image. This study has demonstrated that five major ancient Greek ekphraseis have a predominantly descriptive text, although in a number of passages a narrative or other type of text also occurs. This means that description is an important Realisationsform in ancient Greek ekphrasis.

In all five ekphraseis, the narrator first introduces the object as a purely physical object. The descriptive nature of the text therefore comes as no surprise: objects are usually described. Even though the narrator next focuses on the narrative images on the object, the nature of the text remains largely descriptive: it does not contain a sequence of events. In the five ekphraseis of this study, most events depicted on the object are presented as ongoing, and they are merely enumerated.

In the five ekphraseis of this study, in sum, the represented visual medium is suggested by the representing verbal medium by means of a predominantly descriptive organization. This textual form can be regarded as one possible way of representing the visual medium in the verbal medium. Of course, the visual medium can only be partially represented by the verbal medium: something is always lost in translation. The text can never represent the object in all its aspects.

At the same time, the representation of the visual by the verbal medium also creates opportunities for the verbal medium to exploit its own strengths. In the ekphraseis of this study the verbal medium repeatedly goes beyond the possibilities of the visual medium. Images cannot depict movement, sound, thought or emotion. All these elements are frequently found in the ekphraseis of this study. The text represents a static image, and at the same time endows it with life. Indeed, it is the narrative depicted by the image (the res ipsae) that is the narrator’s main point of interest in the ekphraseis of this study.

The relation between word and image can be interpreted in various ways. Some scholars regard their relation as one of rivalry. I, for my part, have not found any overt signs of rivalry (paragone) between text and image in the ekphraseis of this study. On

19 See Schaefer and Rentsch 2004: 152-3, discussed in section 1.3.2.
20 In Latin literature, it would seem that the text referring to the images is mostly descriptive, too. Thus, Adema 2008: 168-9 writes that “[t]hose parts of the ekphraseis which concern the features of and depictions on the art object are indeed most likely to be presented in the description mode (…)” (emphasis mine).
the contrary, the text uses all its verbal means to create a spectacular vision of an object with its accompanying images. It is all a game of make-believe, since the object has no existence outside the text – it owes its very existence to the text. Therefore, ekphrasis can be regarded as a demonstration of the power of the word. At the same time, the power of images must not be underestimated. Ekphrastic texts can only be understood by listeners or readers who use their knowledge of images and of other visual artworks to make sense of what is described.

We would do well to remember Simonides' maxim that "painting is silent poetry and poetry is talking painting". In ekphraseis, it is not the rivalry between the visual and the verbal media, but their combined strength that should be emphasized and appreciated. By combining the verbal with the visual medium, ekphrastic passages produce aesthetic pleasure that is as complex as it is captivating. The imagination is of paramount importance: "heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard / are sweeter". Ekphrasis is talking painting of silent poetry.
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Samenvatting

Dit proefschrift, getiteld *Ancient Greek Ekphrasis: Between Description and Narration* (*Oudgriekse Ekphrasis: Tussen Vertelling en Beschrijving*) bevat een onderzoek naar vijf Oudgriekse ekphraseis. Ekphrasis kan gedefinieerd worden als de verbale representatie van een visuele representatie: elke ekphrasis bestaat uit een tekst die een afbeelding voorstelt; de afbeelding stelt zelf ook weer iets voor. In dit proefschrift zijn vijf ekphraseis onderzocht waarvan de afbeeldingen handelende figuren bevatten.


Deze studie stelt niet vast of een ekphrasis narratief of descriptief is. Het doel is daarentegen om te bepalen welke prototypische elementen van narratie en descriptie in ekphraseis gevonden kunnen worden, en zo vast te stellen waar op een graduele schaal tussen beschrijving en vertelling de ekphrasis zich bevindt.

De ekphraseis zijn als volgt geanalyseerd. Eerst is de tekst bestudeerd. Er is een discourse-linguïstische analyse uitgevoerd om de tekstuele organisatie te bepalen. Als de tekst een opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen bevat, is deze narratief georganiseerd. In dit geval is de voortgang van de tekst temporeel. Is de tekst daarentegen descriptief georganiseerd, dan bevat deze geen opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen. De voortgang van de tekst is in dat geval spatieel en enumeratief.

Na de tekst is de afbeelding geanalyseerd. Er is onderzocht welke prototypische elementen van narratie in de afbeelding te vinden zijn, of door de afbeelding worden opgeroepen. Bijzondere aandacht is besteed aan de relatie tussen de organisatie van de tekst en de aard van het beeld.

De vijf ekphraseis van deze studie – twee archaïsche ekphraseis, het schild van Achilles in Homerus’ Ilias (18.478-608), het schild van Hercules in het Schild van Pseudo-Hesiodus (139-320); en drie Hellenistische ekphraseis, de beker van de geitenhoeder in Theocritus’ eerste Idylle (27-60), de mantel van Jason in de Argonautica van Apollonius Rhodius (1.721-68), en het mandje van Europa in Moschus’ Europa (37-62) – hebben allen grotendeels een descriptieve tekstuele organisatie: de tekst bevat geen opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen. Alleen het schild van Achilles heeft een algemeen narratieve organisatie: de verteller laat Hephaestus het schild maken. De tekst die verwijst naar wat is afgebeeld op het schild, heeft echter grotendeels een descriptieve tekstuele organisatie.

Dat de tekst geen opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen bevat wil niet zeggen dat hij ook geen gebeurtenissen bevat. De gebeurtenissen worden door imperfecta weergegeven en dientengevolge als aan de gang gepresenteerd. De vele gebeurtenissen in de tekst die aan de gang zijn, geven aan dat de verteller verwijst naar gebeurtenissen die afgebeeld zijn in een afbeelding: 1. gebeurtenissen in een afbeelding kunnen worden gepresenteerd als aan de gang zijnde, aangezien deze nooit hun eindpunt bereiken; 2. de aan de gang zijnde gebeurtenissen zijn geen onderdeel van een opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen, aangezien afbeeldingen geen expliciete opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen kunnen representeren; en 3. de aan de gang zijnde gebeurtenissen vinden allemaal tegelijk plaats, aangezien zij handelingen in één afbeelding voorstellen.
Dat de tekst die de afbeeldingen representeert voornamelijk aan de gang zijnde gebeurtenissen bevat, komt doordat de verteller vooral aandacht besteedt aan wat de afbeelding voorstelt, de zogenaamde res ipsae. De verteller besteedt weinig aandacht aan de fysieke eigenschappen van het object, het opus ipsum. Verwijzingen naar het opus ipsum kunnen terloops gemaakt worden, maar de verteller kan ook expliciet het opus ipsum beschrijven. In het laatste geval bevat de tekst toestanden, weergegeven door imperfecta en plusquamperfecta.

De tekst die de afbeeldingen representeert, heeft niet alleen maar een descriptieve organisatie. Dit is slechts in de ekphrasis van het mandje van Europa het geval. In de andere ekphraseis komen ook passages voor met een narratieve of discursieve tekstuele organisatie. In passages met een discursieve tekstuele organisatie spreekt de verteller direct tot een personage of zijn publiek. Ook deze vormen van tekstuele organisatie kunnen in verband gebracht worden met een afbeelding.

Alle ekphraseis bevatten beschrijvende details. Deze komen niet alleen voor in passages met een descriptieve tekstuele organisatie, maar ook in passages met bijvoorbeeld een narratieve tekstuele organisatie. Passages waarin de verteller de tijd stilzet en expliciet eigenschappen toeschrijft aan objecten of personen zijn zeldzaam. Dit betekent dat het toeschrijven van eigenschappen voornamelijk indirect gebeurt. Veel eigenschappen in de tekst hebben geen betrekking op het opus ipsum, maar op de res ipsae.

Deze studie toont aan dat de tekst van de archaïsche ekphraseis die naar de afbeeldingen verwijst op twee belangrijke punten verschilt van de tekst van de Hellenistische ekphraseis. 1. De tekst van de archaïsche ekphraseis bevat meer passages die een narratieve structuur hebben. Ook bevat de tekst van de archaïsche ekphraseis meer temporele elementen (bijv. participia en temporele bijzinnen). In dit opzicht zijn de archaïsche ekphraseis narratiever. 2. De archaïsche ekphraseis bevatten meer descriptieve details, in welk opzicht zij descriptiever zijn dan de Hellenistische ekphraseis.

De afbeeldingen van de vijf ekphraseis van deze studie hebben verschillende hoeveelheden narrativiteit en descriptiviteit. Over het algemeen zijn de afbeeldingen in de Hellenistische ekphraseis narratiever dan de afbeeldingen van de archaïsche
ekphraseis. Er bestaat overigens geen een-op-eenrelatie tussen de aard van de tekst en
de aard van het beeld: een tekst met een hoge descriptiviteit kan een afbeelding
representeren met een hoge narrativiteit.

Twee ekphraseis bevatten afbeeldingen die een opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen
uitbeelden (event sequencing). Op het schild van Achilles komen twee afbeeldingen
voor die respectievelijk uit zes en twee verschillende momenten bestaan. Het mandje
van Europa bestaat uit drie verschillende momenten. In alle gevallen is er sprake van
dezelfde figuren die meerdere keren afgebeeld zijn. Veel andere afbeeldingen bevatten
geen opeenvolging van gebeurtenissen, maar suggereren er wel een. De meeste
afbeeldingen zijn dan ook zogeheten monophase images: ze beelden één moment uit.

World disruption komt in alle ekphraseis voor. De meeste afbeeldingen in de
archaïsche ekphraseis beelden geen destabiliserende gebeurtenissen uit. Dit betekent
dat zij de wereld laten zien zoals zij normaal is. Als gevolg daarvan hebben deze
afbeeldingen ook een zekere hoeveelheid descriptiviteit. Ook in de Hellenistische
ekphraseis komen afbeeldingen voor zonder destabiliserende gebeurtenissen, maar
deze zijn in de minderheid.

Ook what-it’s-like komt in alle ekphraseis voor. Dit is op het eerste gezicht wellicht
verrassend, aangezien afbeeldingen niet direct naar gevoelens of emoties kunnen
verwijzen. Alle ekphraseis bevatten echter elementen die strikt genomen niet direct
afgebeeld kunnen worden, zoals beweging en geluid. Voorts kan worden opgemerkt dat
afbeeldingen wel indirect naar gevoelens en emoties kunnen verwijzen.

Dit proefschrift toont aan dat de vijf ekphraseis zowel descriptieve als narratieve
elementen bevatten, en zich zodoende tussen een prototypische vertelling en een
prototypische beschrijving bevinden. De tekst heeft zowel narratieve als descriptieve
eigenschappen, en dat geldt ook voor de afbeeldingen. Er is echter een duidelijke
tends: de tekst heeft over het algemeen een descriptieve organisatie, en de
afbeeldingen daarentegen zijn allemaal in meer of mindere mate narratief. De
descriptiviteit zit dus voornamelijk in de tekst, terwijl de narrativiteit zich in de
afbeeldingen bevindt.

Ten slotte is in dit proefschrift ook de visualisatie van de ekphraseis onderzocht.
Hoewel soms wordt beweerd dat sommige ekphraseis niet visualiseerbaar zijn, betoogt
deze studie dat alle vijf ekphraseis wel degelijk visualiseerbaar zijn. Er zijn wel onderlinge verschillen: zo lijkt het erop dat de archaïsche ekphraseis moeilijker te visualiseren zijn dan de Hellenistische ekphraseis.