HISTORY OF GREECE;

I. LEGENDARY GREECE

II. HELLENIC HISTORY TO THE REIGN OF PEISISTRATUS AT ATHENS

BY

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CHAPTER XVIII.

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CLOSING EVENTS OF LEGENDARY GREECE.—PERIOD OF INTERMEDIATE DARKNESS, BEFORE THE DAWN OF HISTORICAL GREECE.

SECTION I.—RETURN OF THE HERAKLEIDS INTO PELOPONNESUS.

In one of the preceding chapters, we have traced the descending series of the two most distinguished mythical families in Peloponnèsus—the Perscids and the Pelopids: we have followed the former down to Héraklès and his son Hyllus, and the latter down to Orestès son of Agamemnôn, who is left in possession of that ascendency in the peninsula which had procured for his father the chief command in the Trojan war. The Herakleids or sons of Héraklès, on the other hand, are expelled fugitives, dependent upon foreign aid or protection: Hyllus had perished in single combat with Echemus.
of Têgea, (connected with the Pelopids by marriage with Timandra sister of Klyæmnêstræ1;) and a solemn compact had been made, as the preliminary condition of this duel, that no similar attempt at an invasion of the peninsula should be undertaken by his family for the space of 100 years. At the end of the stipulated period the attempt was renewed, and with complete success; but its success was owing not so much to the valour of the invaders as to a powerful body of new allies. The Herakleids re-appear as leaders and companions of the Dorians,—a northerly section of the Greek name, who now first come into importance,—poor indeed in mythical renown, since they are never noticed in the Ælian, and only once casually mentioned in the Odyssey, as a fraction among the many-tongued inhabitants of Krête—but destined to form one of the grand and predominant elements throughout all the career of historical Hellas.

The son of Hyllus—Kleodæus—as well as his grandson Aristomachus, were now dead, and the lineage of Héraklês was represented by the three sons of the latter—Têmenus, Kresphontês, and Aristodêmus, and under their conduct the Dorians penetrated into the peninsula. The mythical account traced back this intimate union between the Herakleids and the Dorians to a prior war, in which Héraklês himself had rendered inestimable aid to the Dorian king Ægimius, when the latter was hard pressed in a contest with the Lapithæ. Héraklês defeated the Lapithæ, and slew their king Korônus; in return for which Ægimius assigned

to his deliverer one third part of his whole territory, and adopted Hyllus as his son. Héralkés desired that the territory thus made over might be held in reserve until a time should come when his descendants might stand in need of it; and that time did come, after the death of Hyllus (see Chap. V.). Some of the Herakleids then found shelter at Trikorythos in Attica, but the remainder, turning their steps towards Ægimius, solicited from him the allotment of land which had been promised to their valiant progenitor. Ægimius received them according to his engagement and assigned to them the stipulated third portion of his territory; and from this moment the Herakleids and Dorians became intimately united together into one social communion. Pamphylus and Dymas, sons of Ægimius, accompanied Témenus and his two brothers in their invasion of Peloponnésus.

Such is the mythical incident which professes to explain the origin of those three tribes into which


The Doric institutions are called by Piastor ξεφών Αλκηνίων Αναγομέ (Pyth. 1, 124).

There existed an ancient epic poem, now lost, but cited on some few occasions by authors still preserved, under the title Alkyone; the authorship being sometimes ascribed to Hesiod, sometimes to Kekrops (Athenae. ii. p. 363). The few fragments which remain do not enable us to make out the scheme of it, inasmuch as they embrace different mythical incidents lying very wide of each other,—10, the Argonauts, Pelias and Thetis, &c. But the name which it bears seems to imply that the war of Ægimius against the Lapiths, and the aid given to him by Héralkés, was one of its chief topics. Both O. Müller (History of the Dorians, vol. i. b. i. x. 8) and Welcker (Der Ephesus Kyklos, p. 263) appear to me to go beyond the very scanty evidence which we possess in their determination of this lost poem; compare Marktscheffl, Prehist. Hesiod. Perg. cap. 5, p. 129.
all the Dorian communities were usually divided—the Hyllés, the Pamphyli, and the Dymanes—the first of the three including certain particular families, such as that of the kings of Sparta, who bore the special name of Herakleids. Hyllus, Pamphylus, and Dymas are the eponymous heroes of the three Dorian tribes.

Temenus and his two brothers resolved to attack Peloponnesus, not by a land-march along the Isthmus, such as that in which Hyllus had been previously slain, but by sea across the narrow inlet between the promontories of Rhrium and Antirrhium, with which the Gulf of Corinth commences. According to one story indeed—which however does not seem to have been known to Herodotus—they are said to have selected this line of march by the express direction of the Delphian god, who vouchsafed to expound to them an oracle which had been delivered to Hyllus in the ordinary equivoctal phraseology. Both the Ozolian Lokrians, and the Ætolians, inhabitants of the northern coast of the Gulf of Corinth, were favourable to the enterprise, and the former granted to them a port for building their ships, from which memorable circumstance the port ever afterwards bore the name of Naupaktus. Aristodemus was here struck with lightning and died, leaving twin sons, Eurysthenes and Procles; but his remaining brothers continued to press the expedition with alacrity.

At this juncture, an Akarnanian prophet named Karnus presented himself in the camp under the

1 Respecting this prophet, consult Ennemus, ap. Eusebium, Preparat. Evangel. v. p. 211. According to that statement, both Kleisthenes
inspiration of Apollo, and uttered various predictions: he was however so much suspected of treacherous collusion with the Peloponnesians, that Hippotès, great-grandson of Héraklès through Phylus and Antiochus, slew him. His death drew upon the army the wrath of Apollo, who destroyed their vessels and punished them with famine. Témenus in his distress, again applying to the Delphian god for succour and counsel, was made acquainted with the cause of so much suffering, and was directed to banish Hippotès for ten years, to offer expiatory sacrifice for the death of Kárnus, and to seek as the guide of the army a man with three eyes. On coming back to Naupaktus, he met the Ætolian Oxylus, son of Andromón returning to his country, after a temporary exile in Elis incurred for homicide: Oxylus had lost one eye, but as he was seated on a horse, the man and the horse together made up the three eyes required, and he was adopted as the guide prescribed by the oracle. Conducted by him, they refitted their ships, landed on the opposite coast of Achaea, and marched to attack

(here called Aridana, son of Hylus, and Arístomachus son of Eledras, had made separate and successive attempts at the head of the Herakleids to penetrate into Peloponnessa through the Ithmus; both had failed and perished, having misunderstood the alteration of the Delphian oracle. Eumenes could have known nothing of the pledge given by Hylus, as the condition of the single combat between Hylus and Eheusmos (according to Herodotus), that the Herakleids should make no fresh trial for 100 years: if it had been understood that they had given and then violated such a pledge, such violation would probably have been adduced to account for their failure.

\[\text{Plutarch, ii, 8} \] Pausan. iii. 13, 3.

\[\text{Pausan. i, 8, 3. According to the account of Pausanias, the lawn upon which Oxylus rode was a male and had lost one eye (Paus. v. 3, 5).}\]
Tisamenus son of Orestès, then the great potentate of the peninsula. A decisive battle was fought, in which the latter was vanquished and slain, and in which Pamphylus and Dymas also perished. This battle made the Dorians so completely masters of the Peloponnèsus, that they proceeded to distribute the territory among themselves. The fertile land of Elis had been by previous stipulation reserved for Oxylus, as a recompense for his services as conductor; and it was agreed that the three Herakleides—Témenus, Kresphontès, and the infant sons of Aristodémus—should draw lots for Argos, Sparta, and Messènè. Argos fell to Témenus, Sparta to the sons of Aristodémus, and Messènè to Kresphontès; the latter having secured for himself this prize, the most fertile territory of the three, by the fraud of putting into the vessel out of which the lots were drawn, a lump of clay instead of a stone, whereby the lots of his brothers were drawn out while his own remained inside. Solemn sacrifices were offered by each upon this partition: but as they proceeded to the ceremony, a miraculous sign was seen upon the altar of each of the brothers—a toad corresponding to Argos, a serpent to Sparta, and a fox to Messènè. The prophets, on being consulted, delivered the import of these mysterious indications: the toad, as an animal slow and stationary, was an evidence that the possessor of Argos would not succeed in enterprises beyond the limits of his own city; the serpent denoted the aggressive and formidable future reserved to Sparta; the fox prognosticated a career of wile and deceit to the Messenian.
Such is the brief account given by Apollodorus of the Return of the Herakleids, at which point we pass, as if touched by the wand of a magician, from mythical to historical Greece. The story bears on the face of it the stamp, not of history, but of legend—abridged from one or more of the genealogical poets, and presenting such an account as they thought satisfactory, of the first formation of the great Dorian establishments in Peloponnēsus, as well as of the semi-Etolian Elis. Its incidents are so conceived as to have an explanatory bearing on Dorian institutions—upon the triple division of tribes, characteristic of the Dorians—upon the origin of the great festival of the Karneia at Sparta, alleged to be celebrated in expiation of the murder of Karnus—upon the different temper and character of the Dorian states among themselves—upon the early alliance of the Dorians with Elis, which contributed to give ascendancy and vogue to the Olympic games—upon the reverential dependence of Dorians towards the Delphian oracle—and lastly upon the etymology of the name Naupactus. If we possessed the narrative more in detail, we should probably find many more examples of colouring of the legendary past suitable to the circumstances of the historical present.

Above all, this legend makes out in favour of the Dorians and their kings a mythical title to

1 Herodotus observes, in reference to the Lacedaemonian account of their first two kings in Peloponnēsus (Eurystenes and Prokles, the twin sons of Aristodēmos), that the Lacedaemonians gave a story not in harmony with any of the poets—Ἀριστοδήμου γιορμ, ἀριστοδήμου διαλεγόμενον εἰδικὴ ποιήτῃ, λέγων τοῖς ὁμολογοῦσι τινος ἱστορικοῦ . . . . . . . . Διδοκόμος διαλεγόμενος εἰς τοὺς τὸν κυρίον τὴν χάριν τῆς τῆς ἑκάστης ὁχυρὸν τοὺς Ἱλαρον. [Herodot. vi. 82].
their Peloponnesian establishments; Argos, Sparta, and Messènè are presented as rightfully belonging, and restored by just retribution, to the children of Héraklès. It was to them that Zeus had specially given the territory of Sparta; the Dorians came in as their subjects and auxiliaries. Plato gives a very different version of the legend, but we find that he too turns the story in such a manner as to embody a claim of right on the part of the conquerors. According to him, the Achaïans who returned from the capture of Troy found among their fellow-citizens at home—the race which had grown up during their absence—an aversion to re-admit them: after a fruitless endeavour to make good their rights, they were at last expelled, but not without much contest and bloodshed. A leader named Dorieus collected all these exiles into one body, and from him they received the name of Dorians instead of Achaïans; then marching back under the conduct of the Herakleids into Peloponnesus, they recovered by force the possessions from which they had been shut out, and constituted the three Dorian establishments under the separate Herakleid brothers, at Argos, Sparta, and Messènè. These three

1 Tyrtæus, Fragm.

Αὐτὸς γὰρ Κροιόν, καλλιτεχνῶν πότες Ἰππος,
Ζηλὸς Ἡρακλείδας τόνον δίδωσε πολὺς
Οἶδος δέος, προλίησε τῆς Κρίτης ἱερίδοντα,
Κέρεσον Πελοπόννησον νόμον ἀρχόμεθα.

In a similar manner Pindar says that Apollo had planted the sons of Héraklès, jointly with those of Αγίμας, at Sparta, Argos and Pylus (Pyth. v. 93).

Isokrás (Or. vi. Archaidamus, p. 120) makes out a good title by a different line of mythical reasoning. There seem to have been also stories, containing mythical reasons why the Herakleids did not acquire possession of Areàsin (Polyæn. i. 7).
fraternal dynasties were founded upon a scheme of intimate union and sworn alliance one with the other, for the purpose of resisting any attack which might be made upon them from Asia, either by the remaining Trojans or by their allies. Such is the story as Plato believed it; materially different in the incidents related, yet analogous in mythical feeling, and embodying alike the idea of a rightful reconquest. Moreover the two accounts agree in representing both the entire conquest and the triple division of Dorian Peloponnësus as begun and completed in one and the same enterprise,—so as to constitute one single event, which Plato would probably have called the Return of the Achaens, but which was commonly known as the Return of the Herakleids. Though this is both inadmissible and inconsistent with other statements which approach close to the historical times, yet it bears every mark of being the primitive view originally presented by the genealogical poets: the broad way in which the incidents are grouped together, was at once easy for the imagination to follow and impressive to the feelings.

The existence of one legendary account must never be understood as excluding the probability of other accounts, current at the same time, but inconsistent with it; and many such there were as to the first establishment of the Peloponnesian Dorians. In the narrative which I have given from Apollodorus, conceived apparently under the influence of Dorian feelings, Tisamenus is stated to have been slain in the invasion. But according to an-

other narrative, which seems to have found favour
with the historical Achæans on the north coast of
Peloponnesus, Tisamenus, though expelled by the
invaders from his kingdom of Sparta or Argos, was
not slain: he was allowed to retire under agree-
ment, together with a certain portion of his sub-
jects, and he directed his steps towards the coast
of Peloponnesus south of the Corinthian Gulf, then
occupied by the Ionians. As there were relations,
not only of friendship, but of kindred origin, be-
tween Ionians and Achæans (the eponymous heroes
Iôn and Achæus pass for brothers, both sons of
Xuthus), Tisamenus solicited from the Ionians ad-
mission for himself and his fellow-fugitives into
their territory. The leading Ionians declining this
request, under the apprehension that Tisamenus
might be chosen as sovereign over the whole, the
latter accomplished his object by force. After a
vehement struggle, the Ionians were vanquished
and put to flight, and Tisamenus thus acquired
possession of Helikê, as well as of the northern
coast of the peninsula, westward from Sikyôn; which
coast continued to be occupied by the Achæans,
and received its name from them, throughout all
the historical times. The Ionians retired to Attica,
many of them taking part in what is called the
Ionic emigration to the coast of Asia Minor, which
followed shortly after. Pausanias indeed tells us
that Tisamenus, having gained a decisive victory
over the Ionians, fell in the engagement⁰, and did
not himself live to occupy the country of which his
troops remained masters. But this story of the

⁰ Pausan. vii. 1–3.
death of Tisamenus seems to arise from a desire on the part of Pausanias to blend together into one narrative two discrepant legends; at least the historical Achæans in later times continued to regard Tisamenus himself as having lived and reigned in their territory, and as having left a regal dynasty which lasted down to Ogyges, after whom it was exchanged for a popular government.

The conquest of Témenus, the eldest of the three Herakleids, originally comprehended only Argos and its neighbourhood; it was from thence that Troezen, Epidaurus, Ægina, Sikyôn, and Phlius were successively occupied by Dorians, the sons and son-in-law of Témenus—Dêiphontès, Phalkès, and Keisus—being the leaders under whom this was accomplished. At Sparta the success of the Dorians was furthered by the treason of a man named Philonomus, who received as recompense the neighbouring town and territory of Amyklæ. Messènia is said to have submitted without resistance to the dominion of the Herakleid Kresphontès, who established his residence at Stenyklaros: the Pylian Melanthus, then ruler of the country and representative of the great mythical lineage of Né-

1 Polyb. ii. 45; iv. 1. Strabo, viii. p. 363-364. This Tisamenus derives his name from the memorable act of revenge ascribed to his father Orestès. So in the legend of the Siege of Thèbes, Thermander, as one of the Epigoni, avenged his father Polynikès: the son of Thermander was also called Tisamenus (Herodot. iv. 149). Compare O. Müller, Dorians, i. p. 69, note 9, Eng. Trans.

2 Diodor. iv. 1. The historian Ephorùs embodied in his work a narrative in considerable detail of this grand event of Grecian legend—the Return of the Herakleids—with which he professed to commence his consecutive history: from what sources he borrowed we do not know.

3 Strabo, viii. p. 389. Pausan. ii. 6, 2; 12, 1.

4 Conon, Narr. 36; Strabo, viii. p. 365.
leus and Nestor, withdrew with his household gods and with a portion of his subjects to Attica.

The only Dorian establishment in the peninsula not directly connected with the triple partition is Corinth, which is said to have been Dorised somewhat later and under another leader, though still a Herakleid. Hippotes—descendant of Herakles in the fourth generation, but not through Hyllus—had been guilty (as already mentioned) of the murder of Karnus the prophet at the camp of Naupaktus, for which he had been banished and remained in exile for ten years; his son deriving the name of Aletes from the long wanderings endured by the father. At the head of a body of Dorians, Aletes attacked Corinth; he pitched his camp on the Solygeian eminence near the city, and harassed the inhabitants with constant warfare until he compelled them to surrender. Even in the time of the Peloponnesian war, the Corinthians professed to identify the hill on which the camp of these assailants had been placed. The great mythical dynasty of the Sisyphids was expelled, and Aletes became ruler and Cecist of the Dorian city; many of the inhabitants however, Aeolic or Ionic, departed.

The settlement of Oxylus and his Eotolians in Elis is said by some to have been accomplished with very little opposition; the leader professing himself to be descended from Etolus, who had been in a previous age banished from Elis into

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1 Strabo, v. p. 359; Conon, Narr. 59.

Thucydides calls the anti-Dorian inhabitants of Corinth Aeolians; Conon calls them Ionians.
Ætolia, and the two people, Epeians and Ætolians, acknowledging a kindred origin one with the other¹. At first indeed, according to Ephorus, the Epeians appeared in arms, determined to repel the intruders, but at length it was agreed on both sides to abide the issue of a single combat. Degmenus, the champion of the Epeians, confided in the long shot of his bow and arrow; but the Ætolian Pyrrēchmēs came provided with his sling,—a weapon then unknown and recently invented by the Ætolians,—the range of which was yet longer than that of the bow of his enemy; he thus killed Degmenus, and secured the victory to Oxylus and his followers. According to one statement the Epeians were expelled; according to another they fraternised amicably with the new-comers: whatever may be the truth as to this matter, it is certain that their name is from this moment lost, and that they never reappear among the historical elements of Greece². We hear from this time forward only of Eleians, said to be of Ætolian descent³.

One most important privilege was connected with the possession of the Eleian territory by Oxylus, coupled with his claim on the gratitude of the Dorian kings. The Eleians acquired the administration of the temple of Olympia, which the Achaeans are said to have possessed before them; and in

¹ Ephorus ap. Strabo. x. p. 463.
² Strabo. viii. p. 358; Pausan. v. 4, 1. One of the six towns in Triphylia mentioned by Herodotus is called Ereqos (Herodot. iv. 149).
³ Herodot. viii. 73; Pausan. v. 1, 2. Hekatams affirmed that the Epeians were completely alien to the Eleians; Strabo does not seem to have been able to satisfy himself either of the affirmative or negative (Hekatams, Fr. 348, ed. Didot; Strabo, viii. p. 341).
consideration of this sacred function, which subsequently ripened into the celebration of the great Olympic games, their territory was solemnly pronounced to be inviolable. Such was the statement of Ephorus: we find, in this case as in so many others, that the Return of the Herakleids is made to supply a legendary basis for the historical state of things in Peloponnêsus.

It was the practice of the great Attic tragedians, with rare exceptions, to select the subjects of their composition from the heroic or legendary world, and Euripidês had composed three dramas, now lost, on the adventures of Têmenus with his daughter Hymnethô and his son-in-law Dêiphontês—on the family misfortunes of Kresphontês and Meropê—and on the successful valour of Archelaus the son of Têmenus in Macedonia, where he was alleged to have first begun the dynasty of the Temenid kings. Of these subjects the first and second were eminently tragical, and the third, relating to Archelaus, appears to have been undertaken by Euripidês in compliment to his contemporary sovereign and patron, Archelaus king of Macedonia; we are even told that those exploits which the usual version of the legend ascribed to Têmenus, were reported in the drama of Euripidês to have been performed by Archelaus his son. Of all the heroes, touched upon by the three Attic tragedians, these

1 Ephorus ap. Strabo. viii. p. 358. The tale of the inhabitants of Pisa, the territory more immediately bordering upon Olympia, was very different from this.


Compare the Fragments of the Τημενίδων, Ἀρχέλαιον, and Κρεσφονή-
Dorian Herakleids stand lowest in the descending genealogical series—one mark amongst others that we are approaching the ground of genuine history.

Though the name Achæans, as denoting a people, is henceforward confined to the North-Peloponnesian territory specially called Achaia, and to the inhabitants of Achaea Phthiôtis, north of Mount Æta—and though the great Peloponnesian states always seem to have prided themselves on the title of Dorians—yet we find the kings of Sparta, even in the historical age, taking pains to appropriate to themselves the mythical glories of the Achæans, and to set themselves forth as the representatives of Agamemnôn and Orestês. The Spartan king Kleomenês even went so far as to disavow formally any Dorian parentage; for when the priestess at Athens refused to permit him to sacrifice in the temple of Athênê, on the plea that it was peremptorily closed to all Dorians, he replied—"I am no Dorian, but an Achæan."

Not only did the Spartan envoy, before Gelôn of Syracuse, connect the indefeasible title of his country to the supreme command of the Grecian military force, with the ancient name and lofty prerogatives of Agamemnôn—but in further pursuance of the same feeling, the Spartans are said to have carried to Sparta both the bones of Orestês from Tegea, and those of Tisamenus from Helikê.  

pretence of the historical Spartan kings to Achæan origin.

* The Prologue of the Argonauts seems to have gone through the whole series of the Herakleidian lineage, from Egyptus and Dausus downwards.

1 Herodot. vii. 72.
2 Herodot. i. 68; Pausan. vii. 1, 3.
3 Herodot. vii. 159.
at the injunction of the Delphian oracle. There is also a story that Oxylus in Elis was directed by the same oracle to invite into his country an Achæan, as Ækist conjointly with himself; and that he called in Agorius, the great-grandson of Orestès, from Helikê, with a small number of Achæans who joined him¹. The Dorians themselves, being singularly poor in native legends, endeavoured, not unnaturally, to decorate themselves with those legendary ornaments which the Achæans possessed in abundance.

As a consequence of the Dorian establishments in Peloponnesus, several migrations of the pre-existing inhabitants are represented as taking place.
1. The Epeians of Elis are either expelled, or merged in the new-comers under Oxylus, and lose their separate name. 2. The Pylians, together with the great heroic family of Néleus and his son Nestôr, who preside over them, give place to the Dorian establishment of Messênia, and retire to Athens, where their leader Melanthus becomes king: a large portion of them take part in the subsequent Ionic emigration. 3. A portion of the Achæans, under Penthilus and other descendants of Orestès, leave Peloponnesus, and form what is called the Æolic emigration, to Lesbos, the Troad, and the Gulf of Adramyttium: the name Æolians, unknown to Homer and seemingly never applied to any separate tribe at all, being introduced to designate a large section of the Hellenic name, partly in Greece Proper and partly in Asia. 4. Another portion of Achæans expel the Ionians

¹ Pausan. v. 4, 2.
from Achaia properly so called, in the north of Peloponnésus; the Ionians retreating to Attica.

The Homeric poems describe Achæans, Pylians, and Epeians, in Peloponnésus, but take no notice of Ionians in the northern district of Achaia: on the contrary, the Catalogue in the Iliad distinctly includes this territory under the dominions of Agamennón. Though the Catalogue of Homer is not to be regarded as an historical document, it to be called as evidence for the actual state of Peloponnésus at any prior time, it certainly seems a better authority than the statements advanced by Herodotus and others respecting the occupation of northern Peloponnésus by the Ionians, and their expulsion from it by Tisamenus. In so far as the Catalogue is to be trusted, it negatives the idea of Ionians at Helikê, and countenances what seems in itself a more natural supposition—that the historical Achæans in the north part of Peloponnésus are a small undisturbed remnant of the powerful Achæan population once distributed throughout the peninsula, until it was broken up and partially expelled by the Dorians.

The Homeric legends, unquestionably the oldest which we possess, are adapted to a population of Achæans, Danaans, and Argelians, seemingly without any special and recognised names, either aggregate or divisional, other than the name of each separate tribe or kingdom. The Post-Homeric legends are adapted to a population classified quite differently—Hellen, distributed into Dorian, Ionian, and Æolian. If we knew more of the time and circumstances in which these different
legends grew up, we should probably be able to explain their discrepancy; but in our present ignorance we can only note the fact.

Whatever difficulty modern criticism may find in regard to the event called "The Return of the Herakleids," no doubt is expressed about it even by the best historians of antiquity. Thucydides accepts it as a single and literal event, having its assignable date, and carrying at one blow the acquisition of Peloponnesus. The date of it he fixes as eighty years after the capture of Troy. Whether he was the original determiner of this epoch, or copied it from some previous author, we do not know. It must have been fixed according to some computation of generations, for there were no other means accessible—probably by means of the lineage of the Herakleids, which, as belonging to the kings of Sparta, constituted the most public and conspicuous thread of connection between the Grecian real and mythical world, and measured the interval between the Siege of Troy itself and the first recorded Olympiad. Héraklès himself represents the generation before the siege, and his son Tlepolemus fights in the besieging army. If we suppose the first generation after Héraklès to commence with the beginning of the siege, the fourth generation after him will coincide with the nineteenth year after the same epoch; and therefore, deducting ten years for the duration of the struggle, it will coincide with the eightieth year after the capture of the city\(^1\); thirty years being reckoned for a generation. The date assigned by Thucydides

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\(^1\) The date of Thucydides is calculated, \textit{per ἔτος ἀκοῦσαι} (1. 18).
will thus agree with the distance in which Tēmenus, Kresphontēs, and Aristodēmus, stand removed from Hēraklēs. The interval of eighty years, between the capture of Troy and the Return of the Hera-
kleids, appears to have been admitted by Apollon-
dōrus and Eratosthenēs, and some other professed
chronologists of antiquity: but there were differ-
cent reckonings which also found more or less of
support.

SECTION II.—MIGRATION OF THESSALIANS AND BEOTIANS.

In the same passage in which Thucydidēs speaks
of the Return of the Heraclids, he also marks out
the date of another event a little antecedent, which
is alleged to have powerfully affected the condition
of Northern Greece. "Sixty years after the cap-
ture of Troy (he tells us) the Bœotians were driven
by the Thessalians from Arnē, and migrated into the
land then called Kadmēs, but now Bœotia, wherein
there had previously dwelt a section of their race,
who had contributed the contingent to the Trojan
war."

The expulsion here mentioned, of the Bœotians
from Arnē "by the Thessalians," has been con-
strued, with probability, to allude to the immigra-
tion of the Thessalians, properly so called, from the
Thesprōtīd in Epirus into Thessaly. That the
Thessalians had migrated into Thessaly from the
Thesprōtīd territory, is stated by Herodotus, though
he says nothing about time or circum-
stances. Antiphus and Pheidippus appear in the

1 Herod. xii. 176.
Homer's Catalogue as commanders of the Grecian contingent from the islands of Kös and Karpathus, on the south-east coast of Asia Minor: they are sons of Thessalus, who is himself the son of Héraklès. A legend ran that these two chiefs, in the dispersion which ensued after the victory, had been driven by storms into the Ionian Gulf, and cast upon the coast of Epirus, where they landed and settled at Ephyre in the Thesprotid. It was Thessalus, grandson of Pheidippus, who was reported to have conducted the Thesprotians across the passes of Pindus into Thessaly, to have conquered the fertile central plain of that country, and to have imposed upon it his own name instead of its previous denomination Æolis.

Whatever we may think of this legend as it stands, the state of Thessaly during the historical ages renders it highly probable that the Thessalians, properly so called, were a body of immigrant conquerors. They appear always as a rude, warlike, violent, and uncivilized race, distinct from their neighbours the Achaens, the Magnetes, and the Perrhaebians, and holding all the three in tributary dependence: these three tribes stand to them in a re-

¹ See the epigram ascribed to Aristotle (Antholog. Græc. l. i. p. 181), ed. Reale; Velcius Patercul. l. 1.

The Scholia on Josæp. 912 give a story somewhat different. Ephyre is given as the old legendary name of the city of Kranium in Thessaly (Kines, ap. Schol. Pindar. Pyth. x. 83), which creates the confusion with the Thesprotian Ephyre.

² Herodot. vii. 176; Velcius Patercul. 1, 2, 3; Chumel; ap. Stephan. Byz. v. Assev.; Polyb. viii. 41.

There were several different statements, however, about the parentage of Thessalus: as well as about the name of the country (Strabo, l. 2. p. 443; Stephan. Byz. v. Albania).
lation analogous to that of the Lacedaemonian Perioeci towards Sparta, while the Penestes, who cultivated their lands, are almost an exact parallel of the Helots. Moreover, the low level of taste and intelligence among the Thessalians, as well as certain points of their costume, assimilates them more to Macedonians or Epirots than to Hellens. Their position in Thessaly is in many respects analogous to that of the Spartan Dorians in Peloponnesus, and there seems good reason for concluding that the former, as well as the latter, were originally victorious invaders, though we cannot pretend to determine the time at which the invasion took place. The great family of the Alcmaides, and probably other Thessalian families besides, were descendants of Héraclès, like the kings of Sparta.

There are no similar historical grounds, in the case of the alleged migration of the Boeotians from Thessaly to Boeotia, to justify a belief in the main fact of the legend, nor were the different legendary stories in harmony one with the other. While the Homeric Epic recognises the Boeotians in Boeotia, but not in Thessaly, Thucydidès records a statement which he had found of their migration from the latter into the former; but in order to escape the necessity of flatly contradicting Homer, he inserts the parenthesis that there had been previously an outlying fraction of Boeotians in Boeotia at the time of the Trojan war, from whom the troops who served with Agamemnon were drawn. Neverthe-

2 Pindar, Pyth. x. 2.
3 Thucyd. i. 12. ἐν δὲ αὐτοῖς καὶ πεπλατυνμένοις πρότερον εἰ τῇ γῆ τινι ἀπεθανὼν ἔρχεται καὶ ἐν θάνατι ἀπεθανὼν.
less, the discrepancy with the Iliad, though less strikingly obvious, is not removed, inasmuch as the Catalogue is unusually copious in enumerating the contingents from Thessaly, without once mentioning Boeotians. Homer distinguishes Orchomenus from Boeotia, and he does not specially notice Thèbes in the Catalogue; in other respects his enumeration of the towns coincides pretty well with the ground historically known afterwards under the name of Boeotia.

Pausanias gives us a short sketch of the events which he supposes to have intervened in this section of Greece between the Siege of Troy and the Return of the Herakleids. Peneleós, the leader of the Boeotians at the siege, having been slain by Eurypylus the son of Telephus, Tisamenus, son of Thersander and grandson of Polynikes, acted as their commander both during the remainder of the siege and after their return. Autesión, his son and successor, became subject to the wrath of the avenging Erinnyes of Laïus and Oídipus: the oracle directed him to expatriate, and he joined the Dorians. In his place Damasichthôn, son of Opheltas and grandson of Peneleós, became king of the Boeotians: he was succeeded by Ptolemaus, who was himself followed by Xanthus. A war having broken out at that time between the Athenians and Boeotians, Xanthus engaged in single combat with Melanthus son of Andropompus, the champion of Attica, and perished by the cunning of his opponent. After the death of Xanthus, the Boeotians passed from kingship to popular government. As Melan-

1 Pausan. ix. 5, 8.
thus was of the lineage of the Neleids, and had migrated from Pylus to Athens in consequence of the successful establishment of the Dorians in Messènia, the duel with Xanthus must have been of course subsequent to the Return of the Herakleids.

Here then we have a summary of alleged Boeotian history between the Siege of Troy and the Return of the Herakleids, in which no mention is made of the immigration of the mass of Boeotians from Thessaly, and seemingly no possibility left of fitting in so great and capital an incident. The legends followed by Pausanias are at variance with those adopted by Thucydidès, but they harmonise much better with Homer.

So deservedly high is the authority of Thucydidès, that the migration here distinctly announced by him is commonly set down as an ascertained datum, historically as well as chronologically. But on this occasion it can be shown that he only followed one amongst a variety of discrepant legends, none of which there were any means of verifying.

Pausanias recognised a migration of the Boeotians from Thessaly, in early times anterior to the Trojan war; and the account of Ephorus, as given by Strabo, professed to record a series of changes in the occupants of the country:—first, the non-Hellenic Aones and Temmikes, Leleges and Hyantes; next, the Kadmeians, who, after the second siege of Thèbes by the Epigoni, were expelled by the Thracians and Pelasgians, and retired into Thessaly, where they joined in communion with the inhabitants of Arnè,—the whole aggregate being called

1 Pausan. x. 8, 3.
Boeotians. After the Trojan war, and about the time of the Æolic emigration, these Boeotians returned from Thessaly and reconquered Boeotia, driving out the Thracians and Pelasgians,—the former retiring to Parnassus, the latter to Attica. It was on this occasion (he says) that the Minyæ of Orchomenus were subdued, and forcibly incorporated with the Boeotians. Ephorus seems to have followed in the main the same narrative as Thucydides, about the movement of the Boeotians out of Thessaly; coupling it however with several details current as explanatory of proverbs and customs.

The only fact which we make out, independent of these legends, is, that there existed certain homonymies and certain affinities of religious worship, between parts of Boeotia and parts of Thessaly, which appear to indicate a kindred race. A town named Arne, similar in name to the Thessalian, was enumerated in the Boeotian Catalogue of Homer, and antiquaries identified it sometimes with the historical town Chæroneia, sometimes with


2 Bédier (s. 99, 53) gives a summary of the legendary history of Thbes from Denkalon downwards: he tells us that the Boeotians were expelled from their country, and obliged to retire into Thessaly during the Trojan war; in consequence of the absence of so many of their brave warriors at Troy, they did not find their way back into Boeotia until the fourth generation.


4 Homer, Iliad, ii. 1; Strabo, ix. p. 413; Pausan. ix. 40, 3. Some of the families at Chæroneia, even during the time of the Roman dominion in Greece, traced their origin to Periplus, the prophet, who was said to have accompanied Opheltas in his invading march out of Thessaly (Plutarch, Kínon, c. 1).
Akraephium. Moreover there was near the Bœotian Koroneia a river named Kunrius or Koralius, and a venerable temple dedicated to the Ionian Athéné, in the sacred ground of which the Pamboeotia, or public council of the Bœotian name, was held; there was also a temple and a river of similar denomination in Thessaly, near to a town called Iton or Itonus. We may from these circumstances presume a certain ancient kindred between the population of these regions, and such a circumstance is sufficient to explain the generation of legends describing migrations backward and forward, whether true or not in point of fact.

What is most important to remark is, that the stories of Thucydides and Ephorus bring us out of the mythical into the historical Bœotia. Orchomenus is Bœotised, and we hear no more of the once-powerful Minyæ: there are no more Kadmeians at Thèbes, nor Bœotians in Thessaly. The Minyæ and the Kadmeians disappear in the Ionic emigration, which will be presently adverted to.

1 Strabo, ix. 411-435; Homer, Illad, ii. 696; Hekataeus, Fr. 338, Didot. The Fragment from Alkman (cited by Strabo, but briefly and with a mutilated text) serves only to identify the river and the town.

Itonus was said to be son of Amphimakryon, and Koroneus son of Iton (Pausan. xv. 1, 1. 34, 1; compare Steph. Byz. v. Boeotia) by Melanippē. By another legendary genealogy (probably arising after the name ᾿Aulis had obtained footing as the class-name for a large section of Greeks, but as old as the poet Asius, Olympiod. 50) the eponymous hero Bœotus was fastened on to the great lineage of ᾿Eolus, through the paternity of the god Poseidon either with Melanippē or with Aridē, daughter of ᾿Eolus (Asius, Fr. 8, ed. Dümser; Strabo, vi. p. 266; Diodor. v. 67; Hellanikon ap. Schol. Iliad. ii. 494). Two lost plays of Euripides were founded on the misfortunes of Melanippē, and her twin children by Poseidon—Bœotus and ᾿Eolus (Hygin. Fab. 186; see the Fragments of Melanippē ᾿Eolē and Melanippē Δémarē in Dümser’s edition, and the instructive comments of Welcker, Griech. Tragöd. vol. ii. p. s40-860).
Historical Boeotia is now constituted, apparently in its federative league under the presidency of Thèbes, just as we find it in the time of the Persian and Peloponnesian wars.

SECTION III.—EMIGRATIONS FROM GREECE TO ASIA AND THE ISLANDS OF THE ÆGLEAN.

1. ÆOLIC.—2. IONIC.—3. DORIC.

To complete the transition of Greece from its mythical to its historical condition, the secession of the races belonging to the former must follow upon the introduction of those belonging to the latter. This is accomplished by means of the Æolic and Ionic migrations.

The presiding chiefs of the Æolic emigration are the representatives of the heroic lineage of the Pelopids: those of the Ionic emigration belong to the Neleids; and even in what is called the Doric emigration to Thèra, the Ókist Thèras is not a Dorian but a Kadmeian, the legitimate descendant of Ódipus and Kadmus.

The Æolic, Ionic, and Doric colonies were planted along the western coast of Asia Minor, from the coasts of the Propontis southward down to Lykia (I shall in a future chapter speak more exactly of their boundaries); the Æolic occupying the northern portion together with the islands of Lesbos and Tenedos; the Doric occupying the southernmost, together with the neighbouring islands of Rhodes and Kôs; and the Ionic being planted between them, comprehending Chios, Samos, and the Cycladês islands.
1. ÆOLIC EMIGRATION.

The Æolic emigration was conducted by the Pelopids: the original story seems to have been that Orestês himself was at the head of the first batch of colonists, and this version of the event is still preserved by Pindar and by Hellanikus. But the more current narratives represented the descendants of Orestês as chiefs of the expeditions to Æolis,—his illegitimate son Penthilus, by Erigone daughter of Ægisthus, together with Echelatus and Gras, the son and grandson of Penthilus, together with Kleuês and Malaus, descendants of Agamemnôn through another lineage. According to the account given by Strabo, Orestês began the emigration, but died on his route in Arcadia; his son Penthilus, taking the guidance of the emigrants, conducted them by the long land-journey through Boeotia and Thessaly to Thrace; from whence Archelaus, son of Penthilus, led them across the Hellespont, and settled at Daskylium on the Propontis. Gras, son of Archelaus, crossed over to Lesbos and possessed himself of the island. Kleuês and Malaus, conducting another body of Achaëans, were longer on their journey, and lingered a considerable time near Mount Phrikium in the territory

3 It has sometimes been supposed that the country called Thrace here means the residence of the Thracians near Parnassus; but the length of the journey, and the number of years which it took up, are so specially marked, that I think Thrace in its usual and obvious sense must be intended.
of Lokris; ultimately however they passed over by sea to Asia and took possession of Kyme, south of the Gulf of Adramyttium, the most considerable of all the Æolic cities on the continent. From Lesbos and Kyme, the other less considerable Æolic towns, spreading over the region of Ida as well as the Trœad, and comprehending the island of Tenedos, are said to have derived their origin.

Though there are many differences in the details, the accounts agree in representing these Æolic settlements as formed by the Achæans expatriated from Lacônia under the guidance of the dispossessed Pelopids. We are told that in their journey through Boæotia they received considerable reinforcements, and Strabo adds that the emigrants started from Aulis, the port from whence Agamemnón departed in the expedition against Troy. He also informs us that they missed their course and experienced many losses from nautical ignorance, but we do not know to what particular incidents he alludes.

2. IONIC EMI GRATIO.

The Ionic emigration is described as emanating from and directed by the Athenians, and connects

1 Strabo, xiii, p. 582. Hellanikus seems to have treated of this delay near Mount Phrikium (see Steph. Byz. ΄Φρηκιον). In another account (xiii. p. 621), probably copied from the Kymanus Ephemer, Strabo enumerates the establishments of this colony with the sequel of the Trojan war; the Pelasgians, the occupants of the territory, who had been the allies of Priam, were weakened by the defeat which they had sustained and unable to resist the immigrants.
2 Velleius Patercul. i. 4; compare Antikleides ap. Athenæus, xi. c. 3; Panapassurus, in. 2. 1.
3 Strabo, in. p. 401.
4 Strabo, i. p. 10.
itself with the previous legendary history of Athens, which must therefore be here briefly recapitulated.

The great mythical hero Théseus, of whose military prowess and errant exploits we have spoken in a previous chapter, was still more memorable in the eyes of the Athenians as an internal political reformer. He was supposed to have performed for them the inestimable service of transforming Attica out of many states into one. Each dème, or at least a great many out of the whole number, had before his time enjoyed political independence under its own magistrates and assemblies, acknowledging only a federal union with the rest under the presidency of Athens: by a mixture of conciliation and force, Théseus succeeded in putting down all these separate governments and bringing them to unite in one political system centralised at Athens. He is said to have established a constitutional government, retaining for himself a defined power as king or president, and distributing the people into three classes: Eupatridae, a sort of sacerdotal noblesse; Geômori and Demiurghi, husbandmen and artisans. Having brought these important changes into efficient working, he commemorated them for his posterity by introducing solemn and appropriate festivals. In confirmation of the dominion of Athens over the Megarid territory, he is said farther to have erected a pillar at the extremity of the latter towards the Isthmus, marking the boundary between Peloponnésus and Iónia.

But a revolution so extensive was not consum-

\[1\] Plutarch, Théseus, c. 24, 25, 26.
mated without creating much discontent, and Menestheus, the rival of Thésèus,—the first specimen, as we are told, of an artful demagogue,—took advantage of this feeling to assail and undermine him. Thésèus had quitted Attica to accompany and assist his friend Peirithous in his journey down to the under-world, in order to carry off the goddess Persephôné,—or (as those who were critical in legendary story preferred recounting) in a journey to the residence of Aidôneus, king of the Molossians in Epirus, to carry off his daughter. In this enterprise Peirithous perished, while Thésèus was cast into prison, from whence he was only liberated by the intercession of Héraklês. It was during his temporary absence that the Tyndarids Castôr and Pollux invaded Attica for the purpose of recovering their sister Helen, whom Thésèus had at a former period taken away from Sparta and deposited at Aplidnæ; and the partisans of Menestheus took advantage both of the absence of Thésèus and of the calamity which his licentiousness had brought upon the country, to ruin his popularity with the people. When he returned he found them no longer disposed to endure his dominion, or to continue to him the honours which their previous feelings of gratitude had conferred. Having therefore placed his sons under the protection of Elephenôr in Euboea, he sought an asylum with Lykomîdes prince of Scyros, from whom however he received nothing but an insidious welcome and a traitorous death 1.

Menestheus, succeeding to the honours of the expatriated hero, commanded the Athenian troops

1 Plutarch, Thésèus, c. 34-35.
at the siege of Troy. But though he survived the capture, he never returned to Athens—different stories being related of the place where he and his companions settled. During this interval the feelings of the Athenians having changed, they restored the sons of Théseus, who had served at Troy under Elephenôr and had returned unhurt, to the station and functions of their father. The Theseids Demophôn, Oxyntas, Apheidas, and Thymoctès, had successively filled this post for the space of about sixty years¹, when the Dorian invaders of Peloponnêsus (as has been before related) compelled Melanthus and the Neleid family to abandon their kingdom of Pylus. The refugees found shelter at Athens, where a fortunate adventure soon raised Melanthus to the throne. A war breaking out between the Athenians and Boeotians respecting the boundary tract ofŒnoé, the Boeotian king Xanthus challenged Thymoctès to single combat; the latter declining to accept it, Melanthus not only stood forward in his place, but practised a cunning stratagem with such success as to kill his adversary. He was forthwith chosen king, Thymoctès being constrained to resign².

² Ephorus ap. Harpocration. εἰς Ἀπαρακτομένην ἄχρητα ὁ βασιλεύς τῶν Ἀθηνῶν, ὁ πάλαι ἐκ τῶν ἴδιων ἀπότυχεν, ἔτη πολλοκατά τοῦ Λεύκου ἔτη τῶν Μελάνθου πέρας, Μελάνθου ὁ τῶν Ἀθηνῶν θυρών οἷος ὁ πᾶσαν ἀνανείσθη. Compare Strabo, i. p. 393.

Ephorus derives the term Ἀπαρακτομένη from the words signifying a trick with reference to the boundaries, and assumes the name of this great Ionic festival to have been derived from the stratagem of Melanthus, described in Canôn (Narrat. 39) and Polyænus (i. 19).
Melanthus and his son Kodrus reigned for nearly sixty years, during which time large bodies of fugitives, escaping from the recent invaders throughout Greece, were harboured by the Athenians: so that Attica became populous enough to excite the alarm and jealousy of the Peloponnesian Dorians. A powerful Dorian force, under the command of Alêtès from Corinth and Althemenês from Argos, were accordingly despatched to invade the Athenian territory, in which the Delphian oracle promised them success, provided they abstained from injuring the person of Kodrus. Strict orders were given to the Dorian army that Kodrus should be preserved unhurt; but the oracle had become known among the Athenians¹, and the generous prince determined to bring death upon himself as a means of salvation to his country. Assuming the disguise of a peasant, he intentionally provoked a quarrel with some of the Dorian troops, who slew him without suspecting his real character. No sooner was this event known, than the Dorian leaders, despairing of success, abandoned their enterprise and evacuated the country². In retiring, however, they retained possession of Megara, where they established permanent settlers, and which became from this moment Dorian,—

whole derivation is fanciful and erroneous, and the story is a curious specimen of legendary growing out of etymology.

¹ The orator Lykurgus, in his oration on Kodrus, mentions a Delphian citizen named Kleomantès who secretly communicated the oracle to the Athenians, and was rewarded by them for doing so with αίγυπτος ουρανόμαχος (Lycurg. cont. Lecorn. c. 29).
² Pherekydès, Frug. 110, ed. Didot; Vell. Paterc. l. 2; Conde, Narr. 26; Polyb. 1. c. 18.

Hellenikus traced the genealogy of Kodrus, through ten generations, up to Denkalhôn (Fragment 10, ed. Didot).
seemingly at first a dependency of Corinth, though it afterwards acquired its freedom and became an autonomous community. This memorable act of devoted patriotism, analogous to that of the daughters of Erechtheus at Athens, and of Mencæeus at Thèbes, entitled Kodrus to be ranked among the most splendid characters in Grecian legend.

Kodrus is numbered as the last king of Athens; his descendants were styled Archons, but they held that dignity for life—a practice which prevailed during a long course of years afterwards. Medon and Neileus, his two sons, having quarrelled about the succession, the Delphian oracle decided in favour of the former; upon which the latter, affronted at the preference, resolved upon seeking a new home. There were at this moment many dispossessed sections of Greeks, and an adventitious population accumulated in Attica, who were anxious for settlements beyond sea. The expeditions which now set forth to cross the Ægean, chiefly under the conduct of members of the Kodrid family, composed collectively the memorable Ionic Emigration, of which the Ionians, recently expelled from Peloponnèsus, formed a part, but, as it would seem, only a small part; for we hear of many quite distinct races, some renowned in legend, who withdrew from Greece amidst this assemblage of colonists. The Kadmeians, the Minyæ of Orchomenus, the Abantès of Euboea, the Dryopes; the Molossi, the Phokians, the Bræotians, the Arcadian Pelasgians, and even the Dorians of Epidaurus—are represented as furnishing each a proportion

1 Strabo, xiv. p. 653.
2 Pausan. vii. 2, 4.
of the crews of these emigrant vessels. Nor were the results unworthy of so mighty a confluence of different races. Not only the Cyclades islands in the Ægean, but the great islands of Samos and Chios near the Asiatic coast, and ten different cities on the coast of Asia Minor, from Milèteus on the south to Phokaea in the north, were founded, and all adopted the Ionic name. Athens was the metropolis or mother city of all of them: Androklus and Neileus, the Gkists of Ephesus and Milèteus, and probably other Gkists also, started from the Prytaneium at Athens, with those solemnities, religious and political, which usually marked the departure of a swarm of Grecian colonists.

Other mythical families, besides the heroic lineage of Nèlus and Nestor, as represented by the sons of Kodrus, took a leading part in the expedition. Herodotus mentions Lykian chiefs, descendants from Glaukhus son of Hippolochus, and Pausanias tells us of Philotus descendant of Peneleos, who went at the head of a body of Thebans: both Glaukhus and Peneleos are commemorated in the Íliad. And it is a remarkable fact mentioned by Pausanias (though we do not know on what authority), that the inhabitants of Phokaea—which was the northernmost city of Íonia on the borders of Æolis, and one of the last founded—consisting

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1 Herodot. i. 146; Paus. vii. 2, 3, 4. Isokratès extols his Athenian ancestors for having provided, by means of this emigration, settlements for so large a number of distressed and poor Greeks at the expense of Barbarians (Or. vii. Panathenaea, p. 211).
2 Herodot. i. 146; vii. 9, 1, 46. Velleii. Patric. i. 4. Pherecydes, Frug. i11, ed. Didot.
mostly of Phokian colonists under the conduct of the Athenians Philogenēs and Dæmon, were not admitted into the Pan-Ionic Amphiktyony until they consented to choose for themselves chiefs of the Kodrid family. Proklēs, the chief who conducted the Ionic emigrants from Epidaurus to Samos, was said to be of the lineage of Iōn son of Xuthus.

Of the twelve Ionic states constituting the Pan-Ionic Amphiktyony—some of them among the greatest cities in Hellas—I shall say no more at present, as I have to treat of them again when I come upon historical ground.

3. DORIC EMIGRATIONS.

The Æolic and Ionic emigrations are thus both presented to us as direct consequences of the event called the Return of the Heracleids: and in like manner the formation of the Dorian Hexapolis in the south-western corner of Asia Minor: Kós, Knidos, Halicarnassus and Rhodes, with its three separate cities, as well as the Dorian establishments in Krēte, Melos, and Thēra, are all traced more or less directly to the same great revolution.

Thēra, more especially, has its root in the legendary world. Its ÓEKist was Thēras, a descendant of the heroic lineage of ÓEdipus and Kadmus, and maternal uncle of the young kings of Sparta, Eurysthenēs and Proklēs, during whose minority he had exercised the regency. On their coming of

1. Pausan. vii. 2, 2; viii. 3, 4. 2. Pausan. vii. 4, 3.
Thera, his functions were at an end: but being unable to endure a private station, he determined to put himself at the head of a body of emigrants; many came forward to join him, and the expedition was further reinforced by a body of interlopers, belonging to the Minyae, of whom the Lacedaemonians were anxious to get rid. These Minyae had arrived in Laconia, not long before, from the island of Lemnos, out of which they had been expelled by the Pelasgian fugitives from Attica. They landed without asking permission, took up their abode and began to "light their fires" on Mount Taygetus. When the Lacedaemonians sent to ask who they were and wherefore they had come, the Minyae replied that they were sons of the Argonauts who had landed at Lemnos, and that being expelled from their own homes, they thought themselves entitled to solicit an asylum in the territory of their fathers: they asked, withal, to be admitted to share both the lands and the honours of the state. The Lacedaemonians granted the request, chiefly on the ground of a common ancestry—their own great heroes, the Tyndarids, having been enrolled in the crew of the Argos: the Minyae were then introduced as citizens into the tribes, received lots of land, and began to intermarry with the pre-existing families. It was not long, however, before they became insolent: they demanded a share in the kingdom (which was the venerated privilege of the Herakleids), and so grossly misconducted themselves in other ways, that the Lacedaemonians resolved to put them to death, and began by casting them into prison. While the Minyae were thus confined, their
wives, Spartans by birth and many of them daughters of the principal men, solicited permission to go in and see them: leave being granted, they made use of the interview to change clothes with their husbands, who thus escaped and fled again to Mount Taygetus. The greater number of them quitted Laconia, and marched to Triphylia in the western regions of Peloponnēsus, from whence they expelled the Paroreatæ and the Kaukones, and founded six towns of their own, of which Lepreum was the chief. A certain proportion, however, by permission of the Lacedaemonians, joined Theras and departed with him to the island of Kallisté, then possessed by Phoenician inhabitants who were descended from the kinsmen and companions of Cadmus, and who had been left there by that prince, when he came forth in search of Europa, eight generations preceding. Arriving thus among men of kindred lineage with himself, Theras met with a fraternal reception, and the island derived from him the name, under which it is historically known, of Thera¹.

Such is the foundation-legend of Thera, believed both by the Lacedaemonians and by the Theraeans, and interesting as it brings before us, characteristically as well as vividly, the persons and feelings of the mythical world—the Argonauts, with the Tyndarids as their companions and Minye as their children. In Lepreum, as in the other towns of

¹ Herodot. iv. 140-149; Valer. Maxim. iv. c. 6; Polyan. viii. 49, who however gives the narrative differently by mentioning "Tyrhenians from Lemnos aiding Sparta during the Helotic war"; another narrative in his collection (viii. 71), though imperfectly preserved, seems to approach more closely to Herodotus.
Triphylia, the descent from the Minyæ of old seems to have been believed in the historical times, and the mention of the river Minyeius in those regions by Homer tended to confirm it. But people were not unanimous as to the legend by which that descent should be made out, while some adopted the story just cited from Herodotus, others imagined that Chlöris, who had come from the Minyeian town of Orchomenus as the wife of Néleus to Pylos, had brought with her a body of her countrymen.

These Minyæ from Lemnos and Imbros appear again as portions of another narrative respecting the settlement of the colony of Mèlos. It has already been mentioned, that when the Herakleids and the Dorians invaded Lacônia, Philemonomus, an Achaen, treacherously betrayed to them the country, for which he received as his recompense the territory of Amykle. He is said to have peopled this territory by introducing detachments of Minyæ from Lemnos and Imbros, who in the third generation after the return of the Herakleids, became so discontented and mutinous, that the Lacedaemonians resolved to send them out of the country as emigrants, under their chiefs Polis and Delphus. Taking the direction of Krête, they stopped

1 Homer, Iliad, xi. 721.
2 Strabo, viii. p. 347. M. Raoul Rochette, who treats the legends for the most part as if they were so much authentic history, is much displeased with Strabo for admitting this diversity of stories (Histoire des Colonies Grecques, t. iii. ch. 7, p. 54)—“Après des détails si clairs et si positifs, comment est-il possible que ce même Strabon, bouleversement toute la chronologie, fasse arriver les Minyens dans la Triphylie sous la conduite de Chlöris, mère de Néctor?”

The story which M. Raoul Rochette thus puts aside is quite equal in point of credibility to that which he accepts; in fact no measure of credibility can be applied.
in their way to land a portion of their colonists on the island of Mêlos, which remained throughout the historical times a faithful and attached colony of Lacedaemon. On arriving in Krête, they are said to have settled at the town of Gortyn. We find, moreover, that other Dorian establishments, either from Lacedaemon or Argos, were formed in Krête, and Lyktos in particular is noticed, not only as a colony of Sparta, but as distinguished for the analogy of its laws and customs. It is even said that Krête, immediately after the Trojan war, had been visited by the wrath of the gods, and depopulated by famine and pestilence, and that in the third generation afterwards, so great was the influx of immigrants, that the entire population of the island was renewed, with the exception of the Eteokrêtes at Polichna and Præsus.

There were Dorians in Krête in the time of the Odyssey: Homer mentions different languages and different races of men, Eteokrêtes, Kydônes, Dorians, Achaæans, and Pelasgians, as all coexisting in the island, which he describes to be populous, and to contain ninety cities. A legend given by Andrôn, based seemingly upon the statement of Herodotus, that Dôrus the son of Hellen had settled in Histiaeotis, ascribed the first introduction of the three

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1 Conon, Narrat. 36. Compare Plutarch, Question. Græc. c. 21, where Tyrrenians from Lemnos are mentioned, as in the passage of Polyænus referred to in a preceding note.
2 Strabo, x. p. 481; Aristot. Polit. ii. 10.
3 Herodot. vii. 171 (see above, Ch. xii. vol. i. p. 309). Bîodôrus (v. 89), as well as Herodotus, mentions generally large immigrations into Krête from Lacedaemon and Argos; but even the laborious research of M. Baud. Rochette (Histoire des Colonies Grecques, t. iii. c. 9, p. 69-68) fails in collecting any distinct particulars of them.
last races to Tektaphus son of Dōrus,—who had led forth from that country a colony of Doriains, Achaæans, and Pelasgians, and had landed in Krēte during the reign of the indigenous king Krēs. This story of Andrōn so exactly fits on to the Homeric Catalogue of Kretan inhabitants, that we may reasonably presume it to have been designedly arranged with reference to that Catalogue, so as to afford some plausible account, consistently with the received legendary chronology, how there came to be Doriains in Krēte before the Trojan war—the Dorian colonies after the return of the Herakleids being of course long posterior in supposed order of time. To find a leader sufficiently early for his hypothesis, Andrōn ascends to the primitive Eponymus Dōrus, to whose son Tektaphus he ascribes the introduction of a mixed colony of Doriains, Achaæans, and Pelasgians into Krēte: these are the exact three races enumerated in the Odyssey, and the king Krēs, whom Andrōn affirms to have been then reigning in the island, represents the Eteokrētes and Kydōnes in the list of Homer. The story seems to have found favour among native Kretan histo-

1 Steph. Byz. v. Dōrias.—Περὶ δὲ ἱστορίας Ἀδρόν, Κρήτης ἐκ τῇ ἑνετίας βασιλείας τὸν Δὸρον τῷ Ἐλληνικῷ, ὑμηροῦντα ἐν τῷ ἐν Θεταλίῳ τῶν μὲν Δωρὶδῶν, καὶ τῶν Ἰστιανοῦσι καλομένων, οὕτως ἔστι Κρήτη μετὰ Δωρὶδῶν τε καὶ Ἀχαῖων καὶ Πελασγῶν, τῶν δὲ ἐπαράπτων ὧν Τεῦρες. Compare Strabo, τ. p. 475–476, from which it is plain that the story was adduced by Andrōn with a special explanatory reference to the passage in the Odyssey (κτ. 175).

The age of Andrōn, one of the authors of Attidēs, is not precisely ascertainable, but he can hardly be put earlier than 300 n.c.; see the preliminary Dissertation of G. Müller to the Fragmenta Scriptorum Graecorum, ed. Didot, p. lxxvii; and the Prologo de Atthidum Scriptoribus, prefixed to Lens's edition of the Fragments of Phanodēmus and Démōn, p. xxviii. Lips. 1812.
rians, as it doubtless serves to obviate what would otherwise be a contradiction in the legendary chronology. 

Another Dorian emigration from Peloponnesus to Krête, which extended also to Rhodes and Kôs, is farther said to have been conducted by Althæmenès, who had been one of the chiefs in the expedition against Attica in which Kodrus perished. This prince, a Herakleid and third in descent from Têmenus, was induced to expatriate by a family quarrel, and conducted a body of Dorian colonists from Argos first to Krête, where some of them remained; but the greater number accompanied him to Rhodes, in which island, after expelling the Karian possessors, he founded the three cities of Lindus, Ialysus, and Kameirus.

It is proper here to add, that the legend of the Rhodian archæologists respecting their òekest Althæmenes, who was worshiped in the island with heroic honours, was something totally different from the preceding. Althæmenès was a Kretan, son of the king Katreus, and grandson of Minos. An oracle predicted to him that he would one day kill his father; eager to escape so terrible a destiny, he quitted Krête, and conducted a colony to Rhodes, where the famous temple of the Atabyrian Zeus, on the lofty summit of Mount Atabyrum, was ascribed

1 See Diodor. iv. 60; v. 80. From Strabo (I. c.) however we see that others rejected the story of Andrôn.

O. Müller (History of the Doriáns, b. i. c. 1. § 9) accepts the story as substantially true, putting aside the name Dôrns, and even regards it as certain that Minos of Knosos was a Dorian; but the evidence with which he supports this conclusion appears to me loose and fanciful.

2 Conón, Narrat. 47; Ephorus, Fragm. 63, ed. Marx.
to his foundation, built so as to command a view of Krête. He had been settled on the island for some time, when his father Katreus, anxious again to embrace his only son, followed him from Krête: he landed in Rhodes during the night without being known, and a casual collision took place between his attendants and the islanders. Althæmenês hastened to the shore to assist in repelling the supposed enemies, and in the fray had the misfortune to kill his aged father.

Either the emigrants who accompanied Althæmenês, or some other Dorian colonists afterwards, are reported to have settled at Kós, Knidus, Karpathus, and Halikarnassus. To the last-mentioned city, however, Anthês of Troezen is assigned as the oekist: the emigrants who accompanied him were said to have belonged to the Dymanian tribe, one of the three tribes always found in a Doric state: and the city seems to have been characterised as a colony sometimes of Troezen, sometimes of Argos.

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1 Diodór. v. 59; Apollodór. iii. 2. 2. In the chapter next but one preceding this, Diodorus had made express reference to native Rhodian mythologists,—to one in particular, named Zeno (c. 57).

2 Weasching supposes two different settlers in Rhodes, both named Althæmenês: this is certainly necessary, if we are to treat the two narratives as historical.
3 Strabo, xiv. p. 683; Pausan. ii. 39, 3; Kallimachus apud Stephan. Byz. v. Αλπαννασσουν.

Herodotus (vii. 99) calls Halikarnassus a colony of Troezen; Pomponius Mela (i. 16), of Argos. Vitruvius names both Argos and Troezen (ii. 8, 12); but the two oekists whom he mentions, Melas and Arephanus, were not so well known as Anthês: the inhabitants of Halikarnassus being called Anthoide (see Stephan. Byz. v. Αλπαννασσουν) and a curious inscription in Bouck's Corpus Inscriptionum, No. 2635).
We thus have the Æolic, the Ionic, and the Doric colonial establishments in Asia, all springing out of the legendary age, and all set forth as consequences, direct or indirect, of what is called the Return of the Herakleids, or the Dorian conquest of Peloponnēsus. According to the received chronology, they are succeeded by a period, supposed to comprise nearly three centuries, which is almost an entire blank, before we reach authentic chronology and the first recorded Olympiads—and they thus form the concluding events of the mythical world, out of which we now pass into historical Greece, such as it stands at the last-mentioned epoch. It is by these migrations that the parts of the Hellenic aggregate are distributed into the places which they occupy at the dawn of historical daylight—Dorians, Arcadians, Ætolio-Eleians, and Achaæans, sharing Peloponnēsus unequally among them—Æolians, Ionians, and Dorians, settled both in the islands of the Ægean and the coast of Asia Minor. The Return of the Herakleids, as well as the three emigrations, Æolic, Ionic, and Doric, present the legendary explanation, suitable to the feelings and belief of the people, showing how Greece passed from the heroic races who besieged Troy and Thēbes, piloted the adventurous Argô, and slew the monstrous boar of Kalydôn—to the historical races, differently named and classified, who furnished victors to the Olympic and Pythian games.

A patient and learned French writer, M. Raoul Rochette,—who construes all the events of the heroic age, generally speaking, as so much real history, only making allowance for the mistakes and exag-
generations of poets,—is greatly perplexed by the blank and interruption which this supposed continuous series of history presents, from the Return of the Herakleids down to the beginning of the Olympiads. He cannot explain to himself so long a period of absolute quiescence, after the important incidents and striking adventures of the heroic age; and if there happened nothing worthy of record during this long period—as he presumes from the fact that nothing has been transmitted—he concludes that this must have arisen from the state of suffering and exhaustion in which previous wars and revolution had left the Greeks; a long interval of complete inaction being required to heal such wounds.  

1 "La période qui me semble la plus obscure et la plus remplie de difficultés, n’est pas celle que je vins de parcourir; c’est celle qui sépare l’époque des Héraclides de l’institution des Olympiades. La perte des ouvrages d’Ephore et de Théopompe est sans doute la cause en grande partie du vide immense que nous offre dans cet intervalle l’histoire de la Grèce. Mais si l’on en excepte l’établissement des colonies Éoliennes, Dorienes et Ionienes, de l’Asie Mineure, et quelques événements, très rapprochés de la première de ces époques, l’espace de plus de quatre siècles qui les sépare est couvert d’une obscurité presque impénétrable, et l’on aura toujours lieu de s’étonner que les ouvrages des anciens n’aient aucun secours pour remplir une lacune aussi considérable. Une pareille absence doit aussi nous faire soupçonner qu’il se passa dans la Grèce peu de ces grands événements qui se gravent fortement dans la mémoire des hommes; puisque, si les traces ne s’en étaient point conservées dans les écrits des contemporains, au moins le souvenir s’en serait-il perpétré par des monuments; or les monuments et l’histoire se taient également. Il faut donc croire que la Grèce, agitée depuis si long temps par des révolutions de toute espèce, épuisée par ses dernières émigrations, se tourna toute entière vers des occupations possibles, et ne chercha, pendant ce long intervalle, qu’à guérir, au sein du repos et de l’abondance qui en est la suite, les plaies profondes que sa population avait souffertes." (Raoul Rochette, Histoire des Colonies Grecques, t. ii. c. 16. p. 455.)

To the same purpose Gillies (History of Greece, ch. iii. p. 67, quarto)
Assuming M. Rochette's view of the heroic ages to be correct, and reasoning upon the supposition that the adventures ascribed to the Grecian heroes are matters of historical reality, transmitted by tradition from a period of time four centuries before the recorded Olympiads, and only embellished by describing poets—the blank which he here dwells upon is, to say the least of it, embarrassing and unaccountable. It is strange that the stream of tradition, if it had once begun to flow, should (like several of the rivers in Greece) be submerged for two or three centuries and then re-appear. But when we make what appears to me the proper distinction between legend and history, it will be seen that a period of blank time between the two is perfectly conformable to the conditions under which the former is generated. It is not the immediate past, but a supposed remote past, which forms the suitable atmosphere of mythical narrative,—a past originally quite undetermined in respect to distance from the present, as we see in the Iliad and Odyssey. And even when we come down to the genealogical poets, who affect to give a certain measure of bygone time, and a succession of persons as well as of events, still the names whom they most delight to honour and upon whose exploits they chiefly expatiate, are those of the ancestral gods and heroes of the tribe and their supposed contemporaries; ancestors separated by a long lineage from the present hearer. The gods and

"The obscure transactions of Greece, during the four following centuries, ill correspond with the splendour of the Trojan, or even of the Argonautic expedition," &c.
heroes were conceived as removed from him by several generations, and the legendary matter which was grouped around them appeared only the more imposing when exhibited at a respectful distance, beyond the days of father and grandfather and of all known predecessors. The Odes of Pindar strikingly illustrate this tendency. We thus see how it happened that between the times assigned to heroic adventure and those of historical record, there existed an intermediate blank, filled with inglorious names; and how amongst the same society, which cared not to remember proceedings of fathers and grandfathers, there circulated much popular and accredited narrative respecting real or supposed ancestors long past and gone. The obscure and barren centuries which immediately precede the first recorded Olympiad, form the natural separation between the legendary return of the Herakleids and the historical wars of Sparta against Messene,—between the province of legend, wherein matter of fact (if any there be) is so intimately combined with its accompaniments of fiction, as to be undistinguishable without the aid of extrinsic evidence—and that of history, where some matters of fact can be ascertained, and where a sagacious criticism may be usefully employed in trying to add to their number.
CHAPTER XIX.

APPLICATION OF CHRONOLOGY TO GRECIAN LEGEND.

I need not repeat, what has already been sufficiently set forth in the preceding pages, that the mass of Grecian incident anterior to 776 B.C. appears to me not reducible either to history or to chronology, and that any chronological system which may be applied to it must be essentially uncertified and illusory. It was however chronologised in ancient times, and has continued to be so in modern; and the various schemes employed for this purpose may be found stated and compared in the first volume (the last published) of Mr. Fynes Clinton’s Fasti Hellenici. There were among the Greeks, and there still are among modern scholars, important differences as to the dates of the principal events: Eratosthenes dissented both from Herodotus and from Phanius and Kallimachus, while Larcher and Raoul Rochette (who follow Herodotus) stand opposed to O. Muller and to Mr. Clinton¹. That the reader may have a general

¹ Larcher and Raoul Rochette, adopting the chronological date of Herodotus, fix the taking of Troy at 1270 B.C., and the Return of the Herakleids at 1190 B.C. According to the scheme of Eratosthenes, these two events stand at 1184 and 1104 B.C.

O. Muller, in his Chronological Tables (Appendix vi. to History of Darius, vol. ii. p. 441, Engl. transl.), gives no dates or computation of years anterior to the Capture of Troy and the Return of the Herakleids, which he places with Eratosthenes in 1184 and 1104 B.C.

C. Muller thinks (in his Annotatio ad Marner Parium, appended to the Fragmenta Historicorum Graecorum, ed. Didot, pp. 556, 568, 572; compare his Prefatory notice of the Fragments of Hellenikos, p. xxvii. of
conception of the order in which these legendary events were disposed, I transcribe from the Fasti Hellenici a double chronological table, contained in p. 139, in which the dates are placed in series, from Phorôneus to the Olympiad of Corôbus in B.C. 776—in the first column according to the system of Eratosthenês, in the second according to that of Kallimachus.

"The following table (says Mr. Clinton) offers a summary view of the leading periods from Phorôneus to the Olympiad of Corôbus, and exhibits a double series of dates; the one proceeding from the date of Eratosthenês, the other from a date founded on the reduced calculations of Phanias and Kallimachus, which strike out fifty-six years from the amount of Eratosthenês. Phanias, as we have seen, omitted fifty-five years between the Return and the registered Olympiads; for so we may understand the account; Kallimachus, fifty-six years between the Olympiad of Iphitus and the Olympiad in which Corôbus won.

the same volume) that the ancient chronologists in their arrangement of the mythical events as antecedent and consequent, were guided by certain numerical attachments, especially by a reverence for the cycle of 63 years, product of the sacred numbers $7 \times 9 = 63$. I cannot think that he makes out his hypothesis satisfactorily, as to the particular cycle followed, though it is not improbable that some preconceived numerical theories did guide these early calculators. He calls attention to the fact that the Alexandrine computation of dates was only one among a number of others discrepant, and that modern inquirers are too apt to treat it as if it stood alone, or carried some superior authority (p. 568-572; compare Clemens Alex. Stromat. i. p. 145, Sylh.). For example, O. Müller observes (Appendix to Hist. of Dorians, p. 442) that "Larcher's criticism and rejection of the Alexandrine chronologists may perhaps be found as groundless as they are presumptuous,"—an observation, which, to say the least of it, ascribes to Eratosthenês a far higher authority than he is entitled to.

The date of Kallimachus for Iphitus is approved by Clavier (Prem. Temps, tom. ii. p. 203), who considers it as not far from the truth.
The first column of this table exhibits the current years before and after the fall of Troy: in the second column of dates the complete intervals are expressed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years before the Fall of Troy</th>
<th>Years in between the different events</th>
<th>R.C.</th>
<th>R.C.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(570) 1</td>
<td>Phenomena, p. 19</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>(1533)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(285)</td>
<td>Danaus, p. 73</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>(1665)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(250)</td>
<td>Pelasgus, p. 13, 88</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>(1435)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(200)</td>
<td>Deylithun, p. 47</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>(1383)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(160)</td>
<td>Danaus, p. 88</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>(1335)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(130)</td>
<td>Andromas, p. 83</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>(1215)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>Pelops</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>(1203)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>Birth of Hercules</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>(1201)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(42)</td>
<td>Argonauts</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>(1225)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>First Thessalian war, p. 51, &amp;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>(1213)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Death of Hercules</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(1209)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Death of Eurytheus, p. 166, &amp;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>(1207)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Death of Illyria</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Accession of Agamemnon</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(1200)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Second Thessalian war, p. 87, &amp;</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>(1108)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Trojan expedition (9th 10th)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>(1102)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years after the Fall of Troy</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Troy taken</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Oresteia reigns at Argos in the 8th year</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>The Thessali occupy Thessaly</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>The Boeotia return to Boeotia in the 80th year</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109</td>
<td>Return of the Herakleides in the 100th year</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>Death of Orestes, p. 130, &amp;</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>131</td>
<td>Leitus occupied 130 years after the sea</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139</td>
<td>Death of Orestes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>Ionic migration 60 years after the Return</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151</td>
<td>Cydon founded 150 years after the sea</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>169</td>
<td>Smyrna, 160 years after the sea, p. 105, &amp;</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>1015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 300   | Olympiad of Ephesus               | 108  | 884  |
| 400   | Olympiad of Coraxia               | 52   | 826  |
| 500   | Olympiad of Coraxia               |      | 776  |

1 These dates distinguished from the rest by brackets, are proposed as mere conjectures, founded upon the probable length of generations.

VOL. II.
Wherever chronology is possible, researches such as those of Mr. Clinton, which have conduced so much to the better understanding of the later times of Greece, deserve respectful attention. But the ablest chronologist can accomplish nothing, unless he is supplied with a certain basis of matters of fact, pure and distinguishable from fiction, and authenticated by witnesses both knowing the truth and willing to declare it. Possessing this preliminary stock, he may reason from it to refute distinct falsehoods and to correct partial mistakes; but if all the original statements submitted to him contain truth (at least wherever there is truth), in a sort of chemical combination with fiction, which he has no means of decomposing,—he is in the condition of one who tries to solve a problem without data: he is first obliged to construct his own data, and from them to extract his conclusions. The statements of the epic poets, our only original witnesses in this case, correspond to the description here given. Whether the proportion of truth contained in them be smaller or greater, it is at all events unassignable,—and the constant and intimate admixture of fiction is both indisputable in itself, and indeed essential to the purpose and profession of those from whom the tales proceed. Of such a character are all the deposing witnesses, even where their tales agree; and it is out of a heap of such tales, not agreeing, but discrepant in a thousand ways, and without a morsel of pure authenticated truth,—that the critic is called upon to draw out a methodical series of historical events adorned with chronological dates.

If we could imagine a modern critical scholar,
transported into Greece at the time of the Persian war—endued with his present habits of appreciating historical evidence, without sharing in the religious or patriotic feelings of the country—and invited to prepare, out of the great body of Grecian epic which then existed, a History and Chronology of Greece anterior to 776 B.C., assigning reasons as well for what he admitted as for what he rejected—I feel persuaded that he would have judged the undertaking to be little better than a process of guess-work. But the modern critic finds that not only Phererkylēs and Hellanikus, but also Herodotus and Thucydides, have either attempted the task or sanctioned the belief that it was practicable,—a matter not at all surprising, when we consider both their narrow experience of historical evidence and the powerful ascendency of religion and patriotism in predisposing them to antiquarian belief,—and he therefore accepts the problem as they have bequeathed it, adding his own efforts to bring it to a satisfactory solution. Nevertheless he not only follows them with some degree of reserve and uneasiness, but even admits important distinctions quite foreign to their habits of thought. Thucydides talks of the deeds of Hellēn and his sons with as much confidence as we now speak of William the Conqueror: Mr. Clinton recognises Hellēn with his sons Dōrus, Ἑκλως and Xuthus, as fictitious persons. Herodotus recites the great heroic genealogies down from Kadmus and Danaus with a belief not less complete in the higher members of the series than in the lower: but Mr. Clinton admits a radical distinction in the evidence of events before and after the first
recorded Olympiad, or 776 B.C.—"the first date in Grecian chronology (he remarks, p. 123) which can be fixed upon authentic evidence"—the highest point to which Grecian chronology, reckoning upward, can be carried. Of this important epoch in Grecian development,—the commencement of authentic chronological life,—Herodotus and Thucydides had no knowledge or took no account: the later chronologists, from Timaeus downwards, noted it, and made it serve as the basis of their chronological comparisons, so far as it went: but neither Eratosthenes nor Apollodorus seem to have recognised (though Varro and Africanus did recognise) a marked difference in respect of certainty or authenticity between the period before and the period after1.

In further illustration of Mr. Clinton's opinion that the first recorded Olympiad is the earliest date which can be fixed upon authentic evidence, we have in p. 138 the following just remarks in reference to the dissentient views of Eratosthenes, Phaenius and Kallimachus, about the date of the Trojan war:—"The chronology of Eratosthenes (he says), founded on a careful comparison of circumstances, and approved by those to whom the same stores of information were open, is entitled to our respect. But we must remember that a conjectural date can never rise to the authority of evidence; that what is accepted as a substitute for testimony is not an equivalent: witnesses only can prove a date, and

1 Colonel Mure has not adverted upon this reasoning, in Appendix I, to the third volume of his History of Greek Literature. For some remarks in reply to his observations, I refer the reader to Appendix No. 1, at the end of this volume.
in the want of these, the knowledge of it is plainly beyond our reach. If in the absence of a better light we seek for what is probable, we are not to forget the distinction between conjecture and proof; between what is probable and what is certain. The computation then of Eratosthenes for the war of Troy is open to inquiry; and if we find it adverse to the opinions of many preceding writers, who fixed a lower date, and adverse to the acknowledged length of generation in the most authentic dynasties, we are allowed to follow other guides, who give us a lower epoch.

Here Mr. Clinton again plainly acknowledges the want of evidence and the irremediable uncertainty of Grecian chronology before the Olympiads; and the reasonable conclusion from his argument is, not simply that "the computation of Eratosthenes was open to inquiry," (which few would be found to deny,) but that both Eratosthenes and Phanias had delivered positive opinions upon a point on which no sufficient evidence was accessible, and therefore that neither the one nor the other was a guide to be followed. Mr. Clinton does indeed speak of authentic dynasties prior to the first recorded Olympiad, but if there be any such, reaching up from that period to a supposed point coeval with or anterior to the war of Troy—I see no good reason for the marked distinction which he draws between chronology before and chronology after the Olympiad.

1 Karl Müller observes (in the Dissertation above referred to, appended to the Fragmenta Historicorum Graecorum, p. 698)—"Quod attinet annum Trojanum, tot obscurum et tam diversa veterum scriptorum computationibus, ut singulas numerasse negotium sit medi plenum esse vel probare vel improbarre res vana tue vacua ab aerogustis: Nemo nemo hodie nescit quantam fides his habenda sit omnibus."
piad of Koræbus, or for the necessity which he feels of suspending his upward reckoning at the last-mentioned epoch, and beginning a different process, called "a downward reckoning," from the higher epoch (supposed to be somehow ascertained without any upward reckoning) of the first patriarch from whom such authentic dynasty emanates. Herodotus and Thucydides might well, upon this supposition, ask of Mr. Clinton, why he called upon them to alter their method of proceeding at the year 776 B.C., and why they might not be allowed to pursue their "upward chronological reckoning" without interruption from Leonidas up to Danaus, or from Peisistratus up to Hellén and Deukalion, without any alteration in the point of view. Authentic dynasties from the Olympiads, up to an epoch above the Trojan war, would enable us to obtain chronological proof for the latter date, in-

The distinction which Mr. Clinton draws between an upward and a downward chronology is one that I am unable to comprehend. His doctrine is, that upward chronology is trustworthy and practicable up to the first recorded Olympiad; downward chronology is trustworthy and practicable from Phorbas down to the Ionian migration; what is uncertain is the length of the intermediate line which joins the Ionian migration to the first recorded Olympiad,—the downward and the upward terminus. (See Festi Hellenici, vol. i. Introduct. p. ix. second edit. and p. 123, ed. vi.)

All chronology must begin by reckoning upwards; when by this process we have arrived at a certain determined era in earlier time, we may, if we please, we must be able to reckon downwards from the present time to the Christian era, before we can regard that event as a fixed point for chronological determinations generally. But if Eratosthenes could perform correctly the upward reckoning from his own time to the fall of Troy, so he could also perform the upward reckoning up to the nearer point of the Ionian migration. It is true that Eratosthenes gives all his statements of time from an older point to a newer, so far at least as we can judge from Clemens Alex. Strom. i. p. 336); he says, "From the capture of Troy to the return of the Herakleids is 80 years; from thence to the Ionian migration, 60 years;
stead of being reduced (as Mr. Clinton affirms that we are) to "conjecture" instead of proof.

The whole question, as to the value of the reckoning from the Olympiads up to Phoroneus, does in truth turn upon this one point:—Are those genealogies, which profess to cover the space between the two, authentic and trustworthy or not? Mr. Clinton appears to feel that they are not so, when he admits the essential difference in the character of the evidence and the necessity of altering the method of computation, before and after the first recorded Olympiad; yet in his Preface he labours to prove that they possess historical worth and are in the main correctly set forth; moreover, that the fictitious persons, wherever any such are intermingled, may be detected and eliminated. The evidences upon which he relies, are—1. Inscriptions; 2. The early poets.

then further on, to the guardianship of Lycurgus, 150 years; then to the first year of the first Olympiad, 186 years; from which Olympiad to the invasion of Xerxes, 297 years; from whence to the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, 40 years," &c. But here is no difference between upward reckoning as high as the first Olympiad, and then downward reckoning for the intervals of time above it. Eratosthenes first found or made some upward reckoning to the Trojan capture, either from his own time or from some time at a known distance from his own; he then assumes the capture of Troy as an era, and gives statements of intervals going downwards to the Peloponnesian war: amongst other statements, he assigns clearly that interval which Mr. Clinton pronounces to be undiscoverable, viz., the space of time between the Ionian emigration and the first Olympiad, interposing one epoch between them. I reject the computation of Eratosthenes, or any other computation, to determine the supposed date of the Trojan war; but if I submitted it, I could have no hesitation in admitting also the space which he defines between the Ionian migration and the first Olympiad. Eusebius (Prep. Etr. x. 9. p. 485) reckons upwards from the birth of Christ, making various halts but never breaking off, to the initial phenomenon of Grecian antiquity—the deluge of Deukalion and the consecration of Phaethon.
1. An inscription, being nothing but a piece of writing on marble, carries evidentiary value under the same conditions as a published writing on paper. If the inscriber reports a contemporary fact which he had the means of knowing, and if there be no reason to suspect misrepresentation, we believe his assertion: if on the other hand he records facts belonging to a long period before his own time, his authority counts for little, except in so far as we can verify and appreciate his means of knowledge.

In estimating therefore the probative force of any inscription, the first and most indispensable point is to assure ourselves of its date. Amongst all the public registers and inscriptions alluded to by Mr. Clinton, there is not one which can be positively referred to a date anterior to 776 B.C. The quoit of Iphitus—the public registers at Sparta, Corinth, and Elis—the list of the priestesses of Juno at Argos—are all of a date completely uncertified. O. Müller does indeed agree with Mr. Clinton (though in my opinion without any sufficient proof) in assigning the quoit of Iphitus to the age ascribed to that prince; and if we even grant thus much, we shall have an inscription as old (adopting Mr. Clinton's determination of the age of Iphitus) as 828 B.C. But when Mr. Clinton quotes O. Müller as admitting the registers of Sparta, Corinth, and Elis, it is right to add that the latter does not profess to guarantee the authenticity of these documents, or the age at which such registers began to be kept. It is not to be doubted that there were registers of the kings of Sparta carrying them up to Héraklés, and of the kings of Elis from Oxylus
to Iphitus; but the question is, at what time did these lists begin to be kept continuously? This is a point which we have no means of deciding, nor can we accept Mr. Clinton’s unsupported conjecture when he tells us—"Perhaps these were begun to be written as early as B.C. 1048, the probable time of the Dorian conquest." Again he tells us—"At Argos a register was preserved of the priestesses of Juno which might be more ancient than the catalogues of the kings of Sparta or Corinth. That register, from which Hellanikus composed his work, contained the priestesses from the earliest times down to the age of Hellanikus himself. But this catalogue might have been commenced as early as the Trojan war itself, and even at a still earlier date." (pp. x, xi.) Again respecting the inscriptions quoted by Herodotus from the temple of the Ismenian Apollo at Thébes, in which Amphitryo and Laodamas are named, Mr. Clinton says—"They were ancient in the time of Herodotus, which may perhaps carry them back 400 years before his time; and in that case they might approach within 300 years of Laodamas and within 400 years of the probable time of Kadmus himself."—"It is granted (he adds in a note) that these inscriptions were not genuine, that is, not of the date to which they were assigned by Herodotus himself. But that they were ancient cannot be doubted," &c.

The time when Herodotus saw the temple of the Ismenian Apollo at Thébes can hardly have been earlier than 450 B.C.: reckoning upwards from hence to 776 B.C., we have an interval of 326 years: the inscriptions which Herodotus saw may well there-
fore have been ancient, without being earlier than the first recorded Olympiad. Mr. Clinton does indeed tell us that ancient "may perhaps" be construed as 400 years earlier than Herodotus. But no careful reader can permit himself to convert such bare possibility into a ground of inference, and to make it available, in conjunction with other similar possibilities before enumerated, for the purpose of showing that there really existed inscriptions in Greece of a date anterior to 776 B.C. Unless Mr. Clinton can make out this, he can derive no benefit from inscriptions, in his attempt to substantiate the reality of the mythical persons or of the mythical events.

The truth is that the Herakleid pedigree of the Spartan kings (as has been observed in a former chapter) is only one out of the numerous divine and heroic genealogies with which the Hellenic world abounded, — a class of documents which

1 See the string of fabulous names placed at the head of the Halicarnassian Inscription, professing to enumerate the series of priests of Poseidon from the foundation of the city (Inscript. No. 2555, Boeckh), with the commentary of the learned editor: compare also what he pronounces to be an inscription of a genealogy partially fabulous at Hierapytn in Krëte (No. 2563). The memorable Parian marble is itself an inscription, in which legend and history, — gods, heroes, and men — are blended together in the various successive epochs without any consciousness of transition in the mind of the inscriber.

That the Catalogue of priestesses of Hērē at Argōs went back to the extreme of fabulous times, we may discern by the Fragments of Helminthus (Frag. 45-53). So also did the registers at Sikyōn: they professed to record Amphion, son of Zeus and Artegê, as the inventor of harp-music (Plinntrch, De Musica, c. 3, p. 1132).

I remarked in the preceding page that Mr. Clinton erroneously cites K. O. Müller as a believer in the chronological authenticity of the list of the early Spartan kings; he says (vol. iii. App. vi. p. 336), "Mr. Müller is of opinion that an authentic account of the years of each
become historical evidence only so high in the ascending series as the names composing them are authenticated by contemporary, or nearly contemporary, enrolment. At what period this practice of enrolment began, we have no information. Two remarks however may be made, in reference to any approximative guess as to the time when actual registration commenced:—First, that the number of names in the pedigree, or the length of past time which it professes to embrace, affords no presumption of any superior antiquity in the time of

Lacedaemonian reign from the return of the Hermelida to the Olympiad of Koronis had been preserved to the time of Eratosthenes and Apollodorus." But this is a mistake: for Müller expressly disavows any belief in the authenticity of the lists (Oranius, i. p. 146): he says, "I do not contend that the chronological accounts in the Spartan lists form an authentic document; more than those in the catalogue of the priestesses of Hèle and in the list of Halicarnassian priests. The chronological statements in the Spartan lists may have been formed from imperfect memorials: but the Alexandrine chroniclers must have found such tables in existence," &c.

The discrepancies noticed in Herodotus (vi. 32) are alone sufficient to prove that continuous registers of the names of the Lacedaemonian kings did not begin to be kept until very long after the date here assigned by Mr. Clinton.

Xenophon (Agesilus, viii. 7) agrees with what Herodotus mentions to have been the native Lacedaemonian story—that Aristodemus (and not his son) was the king who conducted the Doric invaders to Sparta. What is farther remarkable is that Xenophon calls him "Ἀριστοδέμων ὁ Ἡρακλείως. The reasonable inference here is, that Xenophon believed Aristodemus to be the son of Héracléus, and that this was one of the various genealogical stories current. But here the critics interpose: "ὁ Ἡρακλείως (observes Schneider), non οὐκ, sed ἄριστος, ut in ex Herodoto viii. 131 admonuit Weishe." Surely, if Xenophon had meant this, he would have said ὁ ἄριστος Ἡρακλείως.

Perhaps particular exceptional cases might be quoted, wherein the very common phrase of ὁ followed by a genitive means descendant, and not sea. But if any doubt be allowed upon this point, chronological computations, founded on genealogies, will be exposed to a serious additional suspicion. Why are we to assume that Xenophon must give the same story as Herodotus, unless his words naturally tell us so?
registration:—Secondly, that looking to the acknowledged paucity and rudeness of Grecian writing even down to the 60th Olympiad (540 a.c.), and to the absence of the habit of writing, as well as the low estimate of its value, which such a state of things argues, the presumption is, that written enrolment of family genealogies did not commence until a long time after 776 a.c., and the obligation of proof falls upon him who maintains that it commenced earlier. And this second remark is further borne out when we observe, that there is no registered list, except that of the Olympic victors, which goes up even so high as 776 a.c. The next list which O. Müller and Mr. Clinton produce, is that of the Kameonice or victors at the Kameanian festival, which reaches only up to 676 a.c.

If Mr. Clinton then makes little out of inscriptions to sustain his view of Grecian history and chronology anterior to the recorded Olympiads, let us examine the inferences which he draws from his other source of evidence—the early poets. And here it will be found, First, that in order to maintain the credibility of these witnesses, he lays down positions respecting historical evidence both indefensible in themselves, and especially inapplicable to the early times of Greece: Secondly, that his reasoning is at the same time inconsistent—inasmuch as it includes admissions, which if properly understood and followed out, exhibit these very witnesses as habitually, indiscriminately, and unconsciously mingling truth and fiction, and therefore little-fitting to be believed upon their solitary and unsupported testimony;
To take the second point first, he says, *Introduction,* p. ii–iii—'The authority even of the genealogies has been called in question by many able and learned persons, who reject Danaus, Kadmus, Hercules, Théseus, and many others, as fictitious persons. It is evident that any fact would come from the hands of the poets embellished with many fabulous additions; and fictitious genealogies were undoubtedly composed. Because, however, some genealogies were fictitious, we are not justified in concluding that all were fabulous. ... In estimating then the historical value of the genealogies transmitted by the early poets, we may take a middle course; not rejecting them as wholly false, nor yet implicitly receiving all as true. The genealogies contain many real persons, but these are incorporated with many fictitious names. The fictions however will have a basis of truth: the genealogical expression may be false, but the connexion which it describes is real. Even to those who reject the whole as fabulous, the exhibition of the early times which is presented in this volume may still be not unacceptable: because it is necessary to the right understanding of antiquity that the opinions of the Greeks concerning their own origin should be set before us, even if these are erroneous opinions, and that their story should be told as they have told it themselves. The names preserved by the ancient genealogies may be considered of three kinds; either they were the name of a race or clan converted into the name of an individual, or they were altogether fictitious, or lastly, they were real historical names. An attempt is made in the four
genealogical tables inserted below to distinguish these three classes of names. . . . Of those who are left in the third class (i.e. the real) all are not entitled to remain there. But I have only placed in the third class those names concerning which there seemed to be little doubt. The rest are left to the judgement of the reader."

Pursuant to this principle of division, Mr. Clinton furnishes four genealogical tables, in which the names of persons representing races are printed in capital letters; and those of purely fictitious persons in italics. And these tables exhibit a curious sample of the intimate commixture of fiction with that which he calls truth: real son and mythical father, real husband and mythical wife, or vice versa.

Upon Mr. Clinton's tables we may remark—

1. The names singled out as fictitious are distinguished by no common character, nor any mark either assignable or defensible, from those which are left as real. To take an example (p. 40), why is Itônus the 1st pointed out as a fiction, while Itônus the 2nd, together with Physcus, Cynus, Salmôneus, Ormenus, &c. in the same page are preserved as real, all of them being eponyms of towns just as much as Itônus?

2. If we are to discard Hellen, Dôrus, Æolus, Iôn, &c. as not being real individual persons, but expressions for personified races, why are we to retain Cadmus, Danaus, Hyllus, and several others, who are just as much eponyms of races and tribes as the four above mentioned? Hyllus, Pamphylus

1 See Mr. Clinton's work, pp. 32, 40, 100.
and Dymas are the eponyms of the three Dorian tribes¹, just as Hoplès and the other three sons of Iôn were of the four Attic tribes: Kadmus and Danaus stand in the same relation to the Kadmeians and Danaans, as Argus and Achaæus to the Argeians and Achaæans. Besides, there are many other names really eponymous, which we cannot now recognise to be so, in consequence of our imperfect acquaintance with the subdivisions of the Hellenic population, each of which, speaking generally, had its god or hero, to whom the original of the name was referred. If then eponymous names are to be excluded from the category of reality, we shall find that the ranks of the real men will be thinned to a far greater extent than is indicated by Mr. Clinton's tables.

3. Though Mr. Clinton does not carry out consistently either of his disfranchising qualifications among the names and persons of the old mythes, he nevertheless presses them far enough to strike out a sensible proportion of the whole. By conceding thus much to modern scepticism, he has departed from the point of view of Hellanikus and Herodotus and the ancient historians generally; and it is singular that the names, which he has been the most forward to sacrifice, are exactly those to which they were most attached and which it would have been most painful to their faith to part with—I mean the eponymous heroes. Neither Herodotus, nor Hellanikus, nor Eratosthenês, nor any one of

¹ "From these three" (Hyllus, Pamphylus and Dymas), says Mr. Clinton, vol. i. ch. 5. p. 109, "the three Dorian tribes derived their names."
the chronological reckoners of antiquity, would have admitted the distinction which Mr. Clinton draws between persons real and persons fictitious in the old mythical world, though they might perhaps occasionally, on special grounds, call in question the existence of some individual characters amongst the mythical ancestry of Greece; but they never dreamt of that general severance into real and fictitious persons which forms the principle of Mr. Clinton's "middle course." Their chronological computations for Grecian antiquity assumed that the mythical characters in their full and entire sequence were all real persons. Setting up the entire list as real, they calculated so many generations to a century, and thus determined the number of centuries which separated themselves from the gods, the heroes, or the autochthonous men, who formed in their view the historical starting-point. But as soon as it is admitted that the personages in the mythical world are divisible into two classes, partly real and partly fictitious, the integrity of the series is broken up, and it can be no longer employed as a basis for chronological calculation. In the estimate of the ancient chronologers, three succeeding persons of the same lineage—grandfather, father and son—counted for a century; and this may pass in a rough way, so long as you are thoroughly satisfied that they are all real persons: but if in the succession of persons A, B, C, you strike out B as a fiction, the continuity of data necessary for chronological computation disappears. Now Mr. Clinton is inconsistent with himself in this—that while he abandons the unsuspecting historical faith of the Grecian chronologers,
he nevertheless continues his chronological computations upon the data of that ancient faith,—upon the assumed reality of all the persons constituting his ante-historical generations. What becomes, for example, of the Herakleid genealogy of the Spartan kings, when it is admitted that eponymous persons are to be cancelled as fictions; seeing that Hyllus, through whom those kings traced their origin to Héraklès, comes in the most distinct manner under that category, as much so as Hoplès the son of Iôn? It will be found that when we once cease to believe in the mythical world as an uninterrupted and unalloyed succession of real individuals, it becomes unfit to serve as a basis for chronological computations, and that Mr. Clinton, when he mutilated the data of the ancient chronologists, ought at the same time to have abandoned their problems as insoluble. Genealogies of real persons, such as Herodotus and Eratosthenès believed in, afford a tolerable basis for calculations of time, within certain limits of error: “genealogies containing many real persons, but incorporated with many fictitious names,” (to use the language just cited from Mr. Clinton,) are essentially unavailable for such a purpose.

It is right here to add, that I agree in Mr. Clinton’s view of these eponymous persons: I admit with him that “the genealogical expression may often be false, when the connexion which it describes is real.” Thus, for example, the adoption of Hyllus by AEGIMINUS, the father of Pamphylus and Dymas, to the privileges of a son and to a third fraction of his territories, may reasonably be con-
strued as a mythical expression of the fraternal union of the three Dorian tribes, Hyllëus, Pamphyli, and Dymanes: so about the relationship of Iôn and Achaeus, of Dôrus and Æolus. But if we put this construction on the name of Hyllus, or Iôn, or Achaeus, we cannot at the same time employ either of these persons as units in chronological reckoning: nor is it consistent to recognize them in the lump as members of a distinct class, and yet to enlist them as real individuals in measuring the duration of past time.

4. Mr. Clinton, while professing a wish to tell the story of the Greeks as they have told it themselves, seems unconscious how capital his point of view differs from theirs. The distinction which he draws between real and fictitious persons would have appeared unreasonable, not to say offensive, to Herodotus or Eratosthenès. It is undoubtedly right that the early history (if so it is to be called) of the Greeks should be told as they have told it themselves; and with that view I have endeavoured in the previous narrative, as far as I could, to present the primitive legends in their original colour and character—pointing out at the same time the manner in which they were transformed and distilled into history by passing through the retort of later annalists. It is the legend as thus transformed which Mr. Clinton seems to understand as the story told by the Greeks themselves—which cannot be admitted to be true, unless the meaning of the expression be specially explained. In his general distinction however, between the real and fictitious persons of the mythical world,
he departs essentially from the point of view even of the later Greeks. And if he had consistently followed out that distinction in his particular criticisms, he would have found the ground slipping under his feet in his upward march even to Troy—not to mention the series of eighteen generations farther up to Phoroneas; but he does not consistently follow it out, and therefore in practice he deviates little from the footsteps of the ancients.

Enough has been said to show that the witnesses upon whom Mr. Clinton relies blend truth and fiction habitually, indiscriminately, and unconsciously, even upon his own admission. Let us now consider the positions which he lays down respecting historical evidence. He says (Introduct. p. vi–vii):

"We may acknowledge as real persons all those whom there is no reason for rejecting. The presumption is in favour of the early tradition, if no argument can be brought to overthrow it. The persons may be considered real, when the description of them is consonant with the state of the country at that time; when no national prejudice or vanity could be concerned in inventing them; when the tradition is consistent and general; when rival or hostile tribes concur in the leading facts; when the acts ascribed to the person (divested of their poetical ornament) enter into the political system of the age, or form the basis of other transactions which fall within known historical times. Kadmus and Danaus appear to be real persons: for it is conformable to the state of mankind, and perfectly credible, that Phœnician and Egyptian ad-
venturers, in the ages to which these persons are ascribed, should have found their way to the coasts of Greece: and the Greeks (as already observed) had no motive from any national vanity to feign these settlements. Hercules was a real person. His acts were recorded by those who were not friendly to the Dorians; by Achmans and Rhodians and Ionians, who had no vanity to gratify in celebrating the hero of a hostile and rival people. His descendants in many branches remained in many states down to the historical times. His son Telephus and his grandson and great-grandson Cleodrus and Aristomachus are acknowledged (i. e. by O. Müller) to be real persons; and there is no reason that can be assigned for receiving these, which will not be equally valid for establishing the reality both of Hercules and Hyllus. Above all, Hercules is authenticated by the testimonies both of the Iliad and Odyssey."

These positions appear to me inconsistent with any sound views of the conditions of historical testimony. According to what is here laid down, we are bound to accept as real all the persons mentioned by Homer, Arktinus, Leschés, the Hesiodic poets, Eumelus, Asius, &c., unless we can adduce some positive ground in each particular case to prove the contrary. If this position be a true one, the greater part of the history of England, from Brute the Trojan down to Julius Caesar, ought at once to be admitted as valid and worthy of credence. What Mr. Clinton here calls the early tradition, is in point of fact the narrative of these early poets. The word tradition is an equivocal word, and begs
the whole question; for while in its obvious and literal meaning it implies only something handed down, whether truth or fiction—it is tacitly understood to imply a tale descriptive of some real matter of fact, taking its rise at the time when that fact happened, and originally accurate, but corrupted by subsequent oral transmission. Understanding therefore by Mr. Clinton's words *early tradition*, the tales of the old poets, we shall find his position totally inadmissible—that we are bound to admit the persons or statements of Homer and Hesiod as real, unless where we can produce reasons to the contrary. To allow this, would be to put them upon a par with good contemporary witnesses; for no greater privilege can be claimed in favour even of Thucydides, than the title of his testimony to be believed unless where it can be contradicted on special grounds. The presumption in favour of an asserting witness is either strong, or weak, or positively nothing, according to the compound ratio of his means of knowledge, his moral and intellectual habits, and his motive to speak the truth. Thus for instance when Hesiod tells us that his father quitted the Æolic Kymê and came to Askra in Boeotia, we may fully believe him; but when he describes to us the battles between the Olympic gods and the Titans, or between Héraklês and Cycmus—or when Homer depicts the efforts of Hécôr, aided by Apollo, for the defence of Troy, and the struggles of Achilles and Odysseus, with the assistance of Hérê and Poseidon, for the destruction of that city, events professedly long past and gone—we cannot presume either of
them to be in any way worthy of belief. It cannot be shown that they possessed any means of knowledge, while it is certain that they could have no motive to consider historical truth; their object was to satisfy an uncritical appetite for narrative, and to interest the emotions of their hearers. Mr. Clinton says, that "the persons may be considered real when the description of them is consistent with the state of the country at that time." But he has forgotten, first, that we know nothing of the state of the country except what these very poets tell us; next, that fictitious persons may be just as consonant to the state of the country as real persons:—while therefore on the one hand we have no independent evidence either to affirm or to deny that Achilles or Agamemnon are consistent with the state of Greece or Asia Minor at a certain supposed date 1183 B.C., so on the other hand, even assuming such consistency to be made out, this of itself would not prove them to be real persons.

Mr. Clinton’s reasoning altogether overlooks the existence of plausible fiction—fictitious stories which harmonise perfectly well with the general course of facts, and which are distinguished from matters of fact not by any internal character, but by the circumstance that matter of fact has some competent and well-informed witness to authenticate it, either directly or through legitimate inference. Fiction may be, and often is, extravagant and incredible; but it may also be plausible and specious, and in that case there is nothing but the want of an attesting certificate to distinguish it from truth. Now all the tests, which Mr. Clinton proposes as gua-
rantees of the reality of the Homeric persons, will be just as well satisfied by plausible fiction as by actual matter of fact: the plausibility of the fiction consists in its satisfying those and other similar conditions. In most cases, the tales of the poets did fall in with the existing current of feelings in their audience: "prejudice and vanity" are not the only feelings, but doubtless prejudice and vanity were often appealed to, and it was from such harmony of sentiment that they acquired their hold on men's belief. Without any doubt the Iliad appealed most powerfully to the reverence for ancestral gods and heroes among the Asiatic colonists who first heard it: the temptation of putting forth an interesting tale is quite a sufficient stimulus to the invention of the poet, and the plausibility of the tale a sufficient passport to the belief of the hearers. Mr. Clinton talks of "consistent and general tradition." But that the tale of a poet, when once told with effect and beauty, acquired general belief—is no proof that it was founded on fact: otherwise, what are we to say to the divine legends, and to the large portion of the Homeric narrative which Mr. Clinton himself sets aside as untrue under the designation of "poetical ornament"? When a mythical incident is recorded as "forming the basis" of some known historical fact or institution—as for instance the successful stratagem by which Melanthus killed Xanthus in the battle on the boundary, as recounted in my last chapter,—we may adopt one of two views: we may either treat the incident as real, and as having actually given occasion to what is described as its effect—
or we may treat the incident as a legend imagined in order to assign some plausible origin of the reality,—"Aut ex re nomen, aut ex vocabulo fabula." In cases where the legendary incident is referred to a time long anterior to any records—as it commonly is—the second mode of proceeding appears to me far more consonant to reason and probability than the first. It is to be recollected that all the persons and facts, here defended as matter of real history by Mr. Clinton, are referred to an age long preceding the first beginning of records.

I have already remarked that Mr. Clinton shrinks from his own rule in treating Kadmus and Danaus as real persons, since they are as much eponyms of tribes or races as Dòrus and Hellèn. And if he can admit Héraklès to be a real man, I cannot see upon what reason he can consistently disallow any one of the mythical personages, for there is not one whose exploits are more strikingly at variance with the standard of historical probability. Mr. Clinton reasons upon the supposition that "Hercules was a Dorian hero"; but he was Achaeán and Kadmeian as well as Dorian, though the legends respecting him are different in all the three characters. Whether his son Tlepolemus and his grandson Cleódeus belong to the category of historical men, I will not take upon me to say, though O. Müller (in my opinion without any warrant) appears to admit it; but Hyllus certainly is not a real man, if the canon of Mr. Clinton himself respecting the eponyms is to be trusted. "The

Pomponius Mela, iv. 7.
descendants of Herculès (observes Mr. Clinton) remained in many states down to the historical times." So did those of Zeus and Apollo, and of that god whom the historian Hekataeus recognised as his progenitor in the sixteenth generation: the titular kings of Ephesus, in the historical times, as well as Peisistratus, the despot of Athens, traced their origin up to Αἰολος and Ηλένη, yet Mr. Clinton does not hesitate to reject Αἰολος and Ηλένη as fictitious persons. I dispute the propriety of quoting the Iliad and Odyssey (as Mr. Clinton does) in evidence of the historic personality of Herculès. For even with regard to the ordinary men who figure in those poems, we have no means of discriminating the real from the fictitious; while the Homeric Ηρακλῆς is unquestionably more than an ordinary man,—he is the favourite son of Zeus, from his birth predestined to a life of labour and servitude, as preparation for a glorious immortality. Without doubt the poet himself believed in the reality of Herculès, but it was a reality clothed with superhuman attributes.

Mr. Clinton observes (Introd. p. ii.), that "because some genealogies were fictitious, we are not justified in concluding that all were fabulous." It is no way necessary that we should maintain so extensive a position: it is sufficient that all are fabulous so far as concerns gods and heroes,—some fabulous throughout—and none ascertainably true, for the period anterior to the recorded Olympiads. How much, or what particular portions, may be true, no one can pronounce. The gods and heroes are, from our point of view, essentially fictitious; but from
the Grecian point of view they were the most real (if the expression may be permitted, i. e. clung to with the strongest faith) of all the members of the series. They not only formed parts of the genealogy as originally conceived, but were in themselves the grand reason why it was conceived,—as a golden chain to connect the living man with a divine ancestor. The genealogy therefore taken as a whole (and its value consists in its being taken as a whole) was from the beginning a fiction; but the names of the father and grandfather of the living man, in whose day it first came forth, were doubtless those of real men. Wherever therefore we can verify the date of a genealogy, as applied to some living person, we may reasonably presume the two lowest members of it to be also those of real persons; but this has no application to the time anterior to the Olympiads—still less to the pretended times of the Trojan war, the Kalydonian boar-hunt, or the deluge of Deukalion. To reason (as Mr. Clinton does, Introd. p. vi.),—"Because Aristomachus was a real man, therefore his father Cleodæus, his grandfather Hyllus, and so farther upwards, &c. must have been real men,"—is an inadmissible conclusion. The historian Hekataeus was a real man, and doubtless his father Hegesander also—but it would be unsafe to march up his genealogical ladder fifteen steps to the presence of the ancestral god of whom he boasted; the upper steps of the ladder will be found broken and unreal. Not to mention that the inference, from real son to real father, is inconsistent with the admissions in Mr. Clinton's own genealogical tables; for he there inserts the names of
several mythical fathers as having begotten real historical sons.

The general authority of Mr. Clinton's book, and the sincere respect which I entertain for his elucidations of the later chronology, have imposed upon me the duty of assigning those grounds on which I dissent from his conclusions prior to the first recorded Olympiad. The reader who desires to see the numerous and contradictory guesses (they deserve no better name) of the Greeks themselves in the attempt to chronologise their mythical narratives, will find them in the copious notes annexed to the first half of his first volume. As I consider all such researches not merely as fruitless in regard to any trustworthy result, but as serving to divert attention from the genuine form and really illustrative character of Grecian legend, I have not thought it right to go over the same ground in the present work. Differing as I do, however, from Mr. Clinton's views on this subject, I concur with him in deprecating the application of etymology (Introd. p. xi.-xii.) as a general scheme of explanation to the characters and events of Greek legend. Amongst the many causes which operated as suggestives and stimulants to Greek fancy in the creation of these interesting tales, doubtless etymology has had its share; but it cannot be applied (as Hermann, above all others, has sought to apply it) for the purpose of imparting supposed sense and system to the general body of mythical narrative. I have already remarked on this topic in a former chapter.

It would be curious to ascertain at what time, or by whom, the earliest continuous genealogies, con-
necting existing persons with the supposed antecedent age of legend, were formed and preserved. Neither Homer nor Hesiod mentioned any verifiable present persons or circumstances: had they done so, the age of one or other of them could have been determined upon good evidence, which we may fairly presume to have been impossible, from the endless controversies upon this topic among ancient writers. In the Hesiodic Works and Days, the heroes of Troy and Thèbes are even presented as an extinct race\(^1\), radically different from the poet's own contemporaries, who are a new race, far too depraved to be conceived as sprung from the loins of the heroes; so that we can hardly suppose Hesiod (though his father was a native of the Æolic Kyné) to have admitted the pedigree of the Æolic chiefs, as reputed descendants of Agamemnôn. Certain it is that the earliest poets did not attempt to measure or bridge over the supposed interval, between their own age and the war of Troy, by any definite series of fathers and sons: whether Eumæus or Asius made any such attempt, we cannot tell, but the earliest continuous backward genealogies which we find mentioned are those of Pherekydès, Hellanikus, and Herodotus. It is well known that Herodotus, in his manner of computing the upward genealogy of the Spartan kings, assigns the date of the Trojan war to a period 800 years earlier than himself, equivalent about to B.C. 1270–1250; while the subsequent Alexandrine chronologists, Eratothenês and Apollodôrus, place that event in 1184 and 1183 B.C.; and the Parian marble refers it to an

\(^1\) See the preceding volume of this History, Chap. ii. p. 90.
intermediate date, different from either—1209 B.C. Ephorus, Phanias, Timæus, Kleitarchus, and Duris, had each his own conjectural date; but the computation of the Alexandrine chronologists was the most generally followed by those who succeeded them, and seems to have passed to modern times as the received date of this great legendary event—though some distinguished inquirers have adopted the epoch of Herodotus, which Larcher has attempted to vindicate in an elaborate, but feeble, dissertation. 1 It is unnecessary to state that in my view the inquiry has no other value except to illus-

From the capture of Troy down to the passage of Alexander with his invading army into Asia, the latter a known date of 334 B.C., the following different reckonings were made:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phanias</td>
<td>715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ephorus</td>
<td>735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eratosthenes</td>
<td>774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timæus</td>
<td>820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kleitarchus</td>
<td>1000</td>
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</tbody>
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(Clemens Alexand, Strom. i. p. 357.)

Democritus estimated a space of 730 years between his composition of the Idaeos Æneis and the capture of Troy (Diogen. Laërt. i. 41). Isocrates believed the Lacedaemonians to have been established in Peloponnesus 700 years, and he repeats this in three different passages (Archidam. p. 118; Panathen. p. 275; De Pace, p. 178). The dates of these three sentences themselves differ by twenty-four years, the Archidamian being older than the Panathenian by that interval; yet he employs the same number of years for each in calculating backwards to the Trojan war (see Clinton, vol. i. Introd. p. 5). In round numbers, his calculation comes as pretty nearly with the 800 years given by Herodotus in the preceding century.

The remarks of Bekaeh on the Parian marble generally, in his Corpus Inscriptionum Grecar. t. ii. p. 322-336, are extremely valuable, but especially his criticism on the epoch of the Trojan war, which stands the twenty-fourth in the Marble. The ancient chronologists, from Damaestes and Hellanicus downwards, professed to fix not only the exact year, but the exact month, day and hour in which this celebrated capture took place. [Mr. Clinton pretends to no more than the possibility of deter-
trate the ideas which guided the Greek mind, and
to exhibit its progress from the days of Homer to
those of Herodotus. For it argues a considerable
mental progress when men begin to methodise the
past, even though they do so on fictitious prin-
ciples, being as yet unprovided with those records
which alone could put them on a better course.
The Homeric man was satisfied with feeling, imag-
ing, and believing, particular incidents of a sup-
posed past, without any attempt to graduate the
line of connexion between them and himself; to
introduce fictitious hypotheses and media of con-
exion is the business of a succeeding age, when
the stimulus of rational curiosity is first felt, with-
out any authentic materials to supply it. We have
then the form of history operating upon the matter
of legend—the transition-state between legend and
history; less interesting indeed than either sepa-
ately, yet necessary as a step between the two.

ming the event within fifty years, Introduct. p. vi.] Bocckh illustrates
the manner of their argumentation.

Q. Müllar observes (History of the Dorians, t. ii. p. 442, Eng. Tr.),
"In reckoning from the migration of the Heraclidse downward, we
follow the Alexandrine chronology, of which it should be observed, that
our materials only enable us to restore it to its original state, not to
examine its correctness."

But I do not see upon what evidence even so much as this can be
done. Mr. Clinton, admitting that Eratosthenes fixed his date by con-
jecture, supposes him to have chosen "a middle point between the
bigger and shorter computations of his predecessors." Bocckh thinks
this explanation unsatisfactory (I. c. p. 328).
CHAPTER XX.

STATE OF SOCIETY AND MANNERS AS EXHIBITED IN GREGIAN LEGEND.

Though the particular persons and events chronicled in the legendary poems of Greece, are not to be regarded as belonging to the province of real history, those poems are nevertheless full of instruction as pictures of life and manners; and the very same circumstances, which divest their composers of all credibility as historians, render them so much the more valuable as unconscious expositors of their own contemporary society. While professedly describing an uncertified past, their combinations are involuntarily borrowed from the surrounding present: for among communities, such as those of the primitive Greeks, without books, without means of extended travel, without acquaintance with foreign languages and habits, the imagination even of highly gifted men was naturally enslaved by the circumstances around them to a far greater degree than in the later days of Solon or Herodotus; insomuch that the characters which they conceived and the scenes which they described would for that reason bear a stronger generic resemblance to the realities of their own time and locality. Nor was the poetry of that age addressed to lettered and critical authors, watchful to detect plagiarism, sated with simple imagery,
and requiring something of novelty or peculiarity in every fresh production. To captivate their emotions, it was sufficient to depict with genius and fervour the more obvious manifestations of human adventure or suffering, and to idealise that type of society, both private and public, with which the hearers around were familiar. Even in describing the gods, where a great degree of latitude and deviation might have been expected, we see that Homer introduces into Olympus the passions, the caprices, the love of power and patronage, the alternation of dignity and weakness, which animated the bosom of an ordinary Grecian chief; and this tendency, to reproduce in substance the social relations to which he had been accustomed, would operate still more powerfully when he had to describe simply human characters—the chief and his people, the warrior and his comrades, the husband, wife, father, and son—or the imperfect rudiments of judicial and administrative proceeding. That his narrative on all these points, even with fictitious characters and events, presents a close approximation to general reality, there can be no reason to doubt. The necessity under which he lay of drawing from a store, then happily unexhausted, of personal experience and observation, is one of the causes of that freshness and vivacity of

1 Kai tov theon de dei roto eun tovno, tovny, dux exoletosin, oti, kai oinoi, al mev eis toi kai, oi de to ephones, exoletosin. "If ever de kai ti iodon eun tovno, dux exoletosin, oti, kai tovny, Bouc tou theon (Aristotle, Politic. i. 1. 7).

2 In the pictures of the Homeric Heroes, there is no material difference of character recognised between one race of Greeks and another—or even between Greeks and Trojans. See Helbig, Die Sittlichen Zustände des Griechischen Heldenvaters, part ii. p. 38.
description for which he stands unrivalled, and which constituted the imperishable charm of the Iliad and Odyssey from the beginning to the end of Grecian literature.

While therefore we renounce the idea of chronologising or historicising the events of Grecian legend, we may turn them to profit as valuable memorials of that state of society, feeling, and intelligence, which must be to us the starting-point of the history of the people. Of course the legendary age, like all those which succeeded it, had its antecedent causes and determining conditions; but of these we know nothing, and we are compelled to assume it as a primary fact for the purpose of following out its subsequent changes. To conceive absolute beginning or origin (as Niebuhr has justly remarked) is beyond the reach of our faculties: we can neither apprehend nor verify anything beyond progress, or development, or decay—change from

Niebuhr, Römische Geschichte, vol. i. p. 55, 2nd edit. "Erkennt man aber dass alles Ursprung jenseits unserer zur Entwickelung und Fortgang fassenden Begriffe liegt; und beschränkt sich von Stufe auf Stufe im Umfange der Geschichte zurückzugreifen, so wird man Völker eines Stammes (das heisst, durch eigenthümliche Art und Sprache identisch) vielfach aber an sich entgegenliegenden Küstenländern antreffen..........ohe dass irgend etwas die Voraussetzung erleichtere, eine von diesen getrennten Ländern sei die ursprüngliche Heimat gewesen von wo ein Thel nach der andern gewandert wäre.........Dies ist der Geographie der Thiergeschlechter und der Vegetation analog: deren grossen Bezirke durch Gebirge geschieden werden, und beschränkte Meere einschiessen."

"When we once recognise, however, that all absolute beginning lies out of the reach of our mental conceptions, which comprehend nothing beyond development and progress, and when we attempt nothing more than to go back from the later to the earlier stages in the compass of history, we shall often find, on opposite coasts of the same sea, people of one stock (that is, of the same peculiar customs and language), without being warranted in supposing that either of these separate.
one set of circumstances to another, operated by some definite combination of physical or moral laws. In the case of the Greeks, the legendary age, as the earliest in any way known to us, must be taken as the initial state from which this series of changes commences. We must depict its prominent characteristics as well as we can, and show—partly how it serves to prepare, partly how it forms a contrast to set off—the subsequent ages of Solon, of Perikles, and of Demosthenes.

1. The political condition, which Grecian legend everywhere presents to us, is in its principal features strikingly different from that which had become universally prevalent among the Greeks in the time of the Peloponnesian war. Historical oligarchy, as well as democracy, agreed in requiring a certain established system of government, comprising the three elements of specialised functions, temporary functionaries, and ultimate responsibility (under some forms or other) to the mass of qualified citizens—either a Senate or an Ecclesia, or both. There were of course many and capital distinctions between one government and another, in respect to the qualification of the citizen, the attributes and efficiency of the general assembly, the admissibility to power, &c. ; and men might often be dissatisfied with the way in which these questions were determined in their own city. But in the mind of every man, some determining rule or

coasts was the primitive home from whence emigrants crossed over to the other. This is analogous to the geography of animals and plants, whose wide districts are severed by mountains and enclose internal areas.
system—something like what in modern times is called a constitution—was indispensable to any government entitled to be called legitimate, or capable of creating in the mind of a Greek a feeling of moral obligation to obey it. The functionaries who exercised authority under it might be more or less competent or popular; but his personal feelings towards them were commonly lost in his attachment or aversion to the general system. If any energetic man could by audacity or craft break down the constitution and render himself permanent ruler according to his own will and pleasure—even though he might govern well, he could never inspire the people with any sentiment of duty towards him. His sceptre was illegitimate from the beginning, and even the taking of his life, far from being interdicted by that moral feeling which condemned the shedding of blood in other cases, was considered meritorious. Nor could he be mentioned in the language except by a name¹ (τιτανωρος, despot) which branded him as an object of mingled fear and dislike.

If we carry our eyes back from historical to legendary Greece, we find a picture the reverse of what has been here sketched. We discern a government in which there is little or no scheme or

¹ The Greek name τιτανωρος cannot be properly rendered tyrant; for many of the τιτανωροες by no means deserved to be so called, nor is it consistent with the use of language to speak of a mild and well-intentioned tyrant. The word despot is the nearest approach which we can make to it, since it is understood to imply that a man has got more power than he ought to have, while it does not exclude a beneficent use of such power by some individuals. It is however very inadequate to express the full strength of Grecian feeling which the original word called forth.
system,—still less any idea of responsibility to the governed,—but in which the main-spring of obedience on the part of the people consists in their personal feeling and reverence towards the chief. We remark, first and foremost, the King; next, a limited number of subordinate kings or chiefs; afterwards, the mass of armed freemen, husbandmen, artisans, freebooters, &c.; lowest of all, the free labourers for hire and the bought slaves. The King is not distinguished by any broad or impassable boundary from the other chiefs, to each of whom the title Basileus is applicable as well as to himself: his supremacy has been inherited from his ancestors, and passes by descent, as a general rule, to his eldest son, having been conferred upon the family as a privilege by the favour of Zeus. In war, he is the leader, foremost in personal prowess, and directing all military move-

3 The Phoenician king Alkinous (Odys. vi. 55-65): there are twelve other Phoenician Basilees, he is himself the thirteenth (viii. 391).

The chief men in the Iliad, and the suitors of Penelope in the Odyssey, are called usually and indiscriminately both Basilees and Ασσωροι; the latter word however designates them as men of property and masters of slaves (analogous to the subsequent word άσσωρις, which word does not occur in Homer, though άσσωρις is found in the Odyssey), while the former word marks them as persons of conspicuous station in the tribe (see Odys. i. 393-401; xiv. 63). A chief could only be Basilees of freemen; but he might be Ασσωρ of freemen or of slaves.

Agamemnon and Menelaus belong to the most kingly race (γίνεται Βασιλεισσωροι, compare Tyrt. Ins. vi. 8 p. 9, ed. Schneiderin) of the Pelopids, to whom the sceptre originally made for Zeus has been given by Hermes (Iliad, ii. 101; ix. 160; x. 229); compare Odyssey, xv. 539. The race of Dardanos are the favourite offspring of Zeus, Βασιλεισσωροι among the Trojans (Iliad, xx. 304). These races are the parallels of the kingly proxapies called Amali, Assingi, Gunungu, and Lithungi, among the Goths, Vandals, and Lombards (Jouanandes, De Rebus Geticis, c. 14-22; Paul Warnefried, Gest. Langob. c. 14-21); and the ἱππικαι γίνεται among the Chaonian Epicteta (Thucyd. i. 80).
ments; in peace, he is the general protector of the injured and oppressed; he further offers up those public prayers and sacrifices which are intended to obtain for the whole people the favour of the gods. An ample domain is assigned to him as an appurtenance of his lofty position, while the produce of his fields and his cattle is consecrated in part to an abundant, though rude, hospitality. Moreover he receives frequent presents, to avert his enmity, to conciliate his favour¹, or to buy off his exactions;

¹ Odyssey. i. 392; xi. 184; xiii. 14; xix. 109.—

Όδ. μεν γαρ τι πολλον βασιλέως αληθεια τι ειδον
"Αθηναοι πολεμοι, και νησιωταιροι μνής.

Iliad. ix. 154-297. (when Agamemnon is promising seven townships to Achilles, as a means of appeasing his wrath): —

Έξ δ' άνθρωπων πολλον πολυβίστην, πολυπηννον,
Οι κε σε διοίκησαν, διων δε, ημύσουσιν.
Και ουκ ονομα τετραμε νησιωταιροι βληθωσιν.

See Iliad, xii. 312; and the reproaches of Thersites (ii. 226)—βασιλέως βασιλευόντος (Hesiod, Opp. Di. 38-264).

The Roman kings had a large répesos assigned to them,—"agri. arva, et arbustae et pascenti hosti atque uberos" (Cicero, De Republic. v. 2): the German kings received presents: "Mox est civitasibus (observes Tacitus respecting the Germans whom he describes, M. G. 15) alter se virorum conferre principibus, vel armentorum vel frugum, quod pro honore acceptum etiam necessitatibus sursum."

The revenue of the Persian kings before Darius consisted only of what were called δάκα or presents (Herod. iii. 89): Darius first introduced both the name of tribute and the determinate assessment. King Polyeuktès in Servius invites his friends to a festival, the condition of which is that each guest shall contribute to an ἔρατος for his benefit (Phercydès, Fragm. 26, ed. Didot); a case to which the Thracian banquet prepared by Suthès affords an exact parallel (Xenophon, Anab. vii. 3, 16-32: compare Thucyd. ii. 97, and Weleker, Eschyl. Trilogie, p. 381). Such Aides or Benevolences, even if originally voluntary, became in the end compulsory. In the European monarchies of the middle ages, what were called free gifts were more amnest than public taxes: "The feudal Aides (observes Mr. Hallam) are the beginning of taxation, of which they for a long time answered the purpose." (Middle Ages, ch. ii. part i. p. 189). So about the Aides in the old French
and when plunder is taken from the enemy, a large previous share, comprising probably the most alluring female captive, is reserved for him apart from the general distribution.

Such is the position of the King in the heroic times of Greece,—the only person (if we except the heralds and priests, each both special and subordinate) who is then presented to us as clothed with any individual authority,—the person by whom all the executive functions, then few in number, which the society requires, are either performed or directed. His personal ascendency—derived from divine countenance bestowed both upon himself individually and upon his race, and probably from accredited divine descent—is the salient feature in the picture. The people hearken to his voice, embrace his propositions, and obey his orders: not merely resistance, but even criticism upon his acts.

Monarchy, "La Cour des Aides avoir été instituée, et sa jurisdiction s’était formée, lorsque le domaine des Rois suffisait à toutes les dépenses de l’État, les droits d’Aides étoient alors des suppléments peu considérables et toujours temporaires. Depuis, le domaine des Rois avoir été amenué: les Aides, au contraire, étoient devenues permanentes et forment presque la totalité des ressources du trésor." (Histoire de la Fronde, par M. de St. Aulaire, ch. iii., p. 124.)

1 Ἐνι ἀρχής γέμαις παρακάτω βασιλείας, is the description which Thucydides gives of these heroic governments (i. 13).

The language of Aristotle (Polit. iii. 10, 1) is much the same: 'Ἡ βασιλεία—ἡ περὶ τῶν ἐν ταῖς χρέωσις—αἰτητὴν ὑπὲρ ἑκάστης μιᾶς ἀτού τῶν ἀρμάτων ἐπιστροφής ὡς καὶ δικαστήριον ἡ βασιλεία, καὶ τῶν πρὸς τῶν θεῶν κήρυκος.

It can hardly be said correctly, however, that the king's authority was defined: nothing can well be more indefinite.

Agnanumamna enjoyed or assumed the power of putting to death a disobedient soldier (Aristot. Polit. iii. 9, 2). The words which Aristotle read in the speech of Aganumamna in the Iliad—ἵνα γὰρ ἐπὶ δίκαιον δίκαιον—are not in our present copies: the Alexandrine critics effaced many traces of the old manners.
is generally exhibited in an odious point of view, and is indeed never heard of except from some one or more of the subordinate princes. To keep alive and justify such feelings in the public mind, however, the king must himself possess various accomplishments, bodily and mental, and that too in a superior degree. He must be brave in the field, wise in the council, and eloquent in the agora; he must be endowed with bodily strength and activity above other men, and must be an adept, not only in the use of his arms, but also in those athletic exercises which the crowd delight to witness. Even the more homely varieties of manual acquirements are an addition to his character,—such as the craft of the carpenter or shipwright, the straight furrowing of the ploughman, or the indefatigable persistence of the mower without repose or refreshment throughout the longest day. The conditions of voluntary obedience, during the Grecian heroic times, are family descent with personal force and superiority, mental as well as bodily, in the chief, coupled with the favour of the gods; an old chief, such as Pēleus and Laërtes, cannot retain his position. But, on the other hand, where these

1 Striking phrases on this head are put into the mouth of Sarpēdōn (Iliad, xii. 310-322).

Kings are named and commissioned by Zeus,—'Εκ δὲ Διός Βοσκητηρ (Hesiod, Theogon. 96; Callimach. Hymn. ad Jov. 79; σπείρως ἄπωστε Διός is a sort of paraphrase for the kingly dignity in the case of Pēlas and Nēlēs (Odys. xx. 255; compare Iliad, ii. 204).

2 Odysseus builds his own bœl and bodelhtemur and his own raft (Odys. xxiii. 188; v. 246-255); he boasts of being an excellent mower and ploughman (viii. 365-375); for his astonishing proficiency in the athletic contests, see vi. 180-230. Paris took a share in building his own house (Iliad, vi. 314).

3 Odys. xi. 496; xxiv. 136-248.
elements of force are present, a good deal of violence, caprice and rapacity is tolerated: the ethical judgement is not exact in scrutinising the conduct of individuals so pre-eminently endowed. As in the case of the gods, the general epithets of *good*, *just*, &c. are applied to them as euphemisms arising from submission and fear, being not only not suggested, but often pointedly belied, by their particular acts. These words signify the man of birth, wealth, influence and daring, whose arm is strong to destroy or to protect, whatever may be the turn of his moral sentiments; while the opposite epithet, *bad*, designates the poor, lowly and weak, from whose dispositions, be they ever so virtuous, society has little either to hope or to fear.

Aristotle, in his general theory of government,

1 See this prominent meaning of the words ἁγιός, ἱερός, κακός, &c., copiously illustrated in Weleck's excellent Prolegomena to Theogonia, sect. 9-16. Camerarius, in his notes on that poet (v. 19), had already conceived clearly the sense in which these words are used. Iliad, xvi. 323. *Οὐ τε τοῖς ἁγιοῖς ἡμάρισιν χρίσεις*. Compare Heßel, Opp. Di. 216, and the line in Athenaeus, v. p. 178, *Ἀκρόμαρα δὲ ἁγιοῖς διῆλθεν τις διάρκειας ἀνθρώποις.*

2 Moraës Ilarum vocum vis, ex, et civilis—quarum hae a lexicographis et commentatoribus plurimis fere neglecta est—probo discernendo cruin. Quod quo facilius feret, necio an ulni posterior intellectus valet, magnae scribendum fuisset 'Ἀγαθὸν καὶ Κακῶν.'

If this advice of Weleck could have been followed, much misconception would have been obviated. The reference of these words to power and not to worth, is their primitive import in the Greek language, descending from the Iliad downward, and determining the habitual designation of parties during the period of active political dispute. The ethical meaning of the word hardly appears until the discussions raised by Socrates, and prosecuted by his disciples; but the primitive import still continued to maintain concurrent footing.

I shall have occasion to touch more largely on this subject, when I come to expound the Grecian political parties. At present it is enough to remark that the epithets of *good* men, *bad* men, habitually applied afterwards to the aristocratical parties, descend from the rudest period of Grecian society.
lays down the position\(^1\), that the earliest sources of obedience and authority among mankind are personal, exhibiting themselves most perfectly in the type of paternal supremacy; and that therefore the kingly government, as most conformable to this stage of social sentiment, became probably the first established everywhere. And in fact it still continued in his time to be generally prevalent among the non-Hellenic nations, immediately around; though the Phoenician cities and Carthage, the most civilised of all non-Hellenic states, were republics. Nevertheless, so completely were the feelings about kingship reversed among his contemporary Greeks, that he finds it difficult to enter into the voluntary obedience paid by his ancestors to their early heroic chiefs. He cannot explain to his own satisfaction how any one man should have been so much superior to the companions around him as to maintain such immense personal ascendency; he suspects that in such small communities great merit was very rare, so that the chief had few competitors\(^2\).

\(^1\) Aristotle, Polit. i. 1, 7.

\(^2\) Καὶ τούτον ἰδοὺ ἐκεῖνον πρῶτον, ἃς πάντως ἡ εἰρήνη ἢ ἐνέργεια ἢ ἐν οἷον ἀκαθάρτως καὶ ἄρσεν, οὐκ ὅτι τότε μακρὸν ἐκείνον εὐλογεῖν (Polit. iii. 10, 7); also the same treatise, v. 8, 5, and v. 8, 22; ὅπως ἔστωμεν ἡ θεατήσει νέος, ἢ την ἱερατίαν ἐνέργειαν (Polit. iv. 6).

Aristotle handles monarchy far less copiously than either oligarchy or democracy; the tenth and eleventh chapters of his third book, in which he discusses it, are nevertheless very interesting to peruse.

In the conception of Plato also, the kingly government, if it is to work well, implies a breed superior to humanity to hold the sceptre (Legg. iv. 6, p. 713).

The Athenian dramatic poets (especially Euripides) often put into the mouths of their heroic characters popular sentiments adapted to the democratical atmosphere of Athens—very different from what we find in Homer.
Such remarks illustrate strongly the revolution which the Greek mind had undergone during the preceding centuries, in regard to the internal grounds of political submission. But the connecting link, between the Homeric and the republican schemes of government, is to be found in two adjuncts of the Homeric royalty, which are now to be mentioned—the Boulé, or council of chiefs, and the Agora, or general assembly of freemen.

These two meetings, more or less frequently convoked, and interwoven with the earliest habits of the primitive Grecian communities, are exhibited in the monuments of the legendary age as opportunities for advising the king, and media for promulgating his intentions to the people, rather than as restraints upon his authority. Unquestionably they must have conducted in practice to the latter result as well as to the former; but this is not the light in which the Homeric poems describe them. The chiefs, kings, princes, or Gerontes—for the same word in Greek designates both an old man and a man of conspicuous rank and position—compose the Council, in which, according to the representations in the Iliad, the resolutions of Agamemnon on the one side and of Hector on the other appear uniformly to prevail. The harshness and even contempt with which Hector treats respectful opposition from his ancient companion Polydamas—the desponding tone and conscious inferiority of the latter, and the unanimous assent which the former obtains, even when quite in the wrong—all

1 Βουλὴ ἐκ πρῶτον μεγαλύτερον ἔς γερόντας (Iliad, ii. 53) : ἐπιτάκτη x. 195-415. Όλον, παλαιὸν ἄμνιστος (xi. 371).
this is clearly set forth in the poem:\footnote{Iliad, xviii. 313.} while in the Grecian camp we see Nestor tendering his advice in the most submissive and delicate manner to Agamemnon, to be adopted or rejected as "the king of men" might determine.\footnote{Iliad, xii. 213, where Polydamas says to HectoR,—

\begin{quote}
καὶ οὖν εἰς \\
τόδε πάλιν τά χρήσιμα,
οὖν δὲ βασιλῆς

\end{quote}

\footnote{Odyssey, ix. 96-101.}

\footnote{Polydamas.} The Council is a purely consultative body, assembled not with any power of peremptorily arresting mischievous resolves of the king, but solely for his information and guidance. He himself is the presiding (Boulephoros or) member of council; the rest, collectively as well as individually, are his subordinates.

We proceed from the Council to the Agora: according to what seems the received custom, the king, after having talked over his intentions with the former, proceeds to announce them to the people. The heralds make the crowd sit down in order, and enforce silence: any one of the chiefs or councillors—but as it seems, no one else—is

\footnote{Considerable stress seems to be laid on the necessity that the people in the agora should sit down (Iliad, ii. 96): a standing agora is a symptom of tumult or terror (Iliad, xviii. 246); an evening agora, to which men come elevated by wine, is also the forerunner of mischief (Odyssey, iii. 138).}

\footnote{Such evidences of regular formalities observed in the agora are not without interest.}

\footnote{Iliad, ii. 100.—

\begin{quote}
ἐπει δὲ \\
οὖν \αὐτῷ

\end{quote}

Nitzsch (ad Odyssey, ii. 14) counters this restriction of individual
allowed to address them: the king first promulgates his intentions, which are then open to be commented upon by others. But in the Homeric agora no division of affirmative or negative voices ever takes place, nor is any formal resolution ever adopted. The nullity of positive function strikes us even more in the Agora than in the Council. It is an assembly for talk, communication and discussion to a certain extent by the chiefs, in presence of the people as listeners and sympathisers—often for eloquence, and sometimes for quarrel—but here its ostensible purposes end.

The Agora in Ithaka, in the second book of the Odyssey, is convened by the youthful Telemachus, at the instigation of Athénés, not for the purpose of submitting any proposition, but in order to give formal and public notice to the suitors to desist from their iniquitous intrusion and pillage of his substance, and to absolve himself further, before gods and men, from all obligations towards them, if they refuse to comply. For the slaughter of the suitors, in all the security of the festive hall and banquet (which forms the catastrophe of the Odyssey), was a proceeding involving much that was shocking to Grecian feeling, and therefore required to be preceded by such ample formalities, as would leave both the delinquents themselves without the shadow of excuse, and their surviving relatives with-

manifestation to the chiefs: the view of O. Müller (Hist. Dorians, b. iii. c. 3) appears to me more correct: such was also the opinion of Aristotle—ἐποίησεν Ἀριστοτέλης ὅτι δὲ μὲν δόμημα μόνον τοι ἀκούειν κεῖτο ἢ, ὅτι δὲ ἐγγέμειρεν καὶ τοῖς πράγμα (Schul. Iliad. ix. 17): compare the same statement in his Nikomachean Ethics, iii. 5.

1 See Iliad, ix. 635; Odyssey, xi. 419.
out any claim to the customary satisfaction. For this special purpose Telemachus directs the heralds to summon an agora: but what seems most of all surprising is, that none had ever been summoned or held since the departure of Odysseus himself—an interval of twenty years. "No agora or session has taken place amongst us (says the grey-headed Ægyptius who opens the proceedings) since Odysseus went on shipboard: and now, who is he that has called us together? what man, young or old, has felt such a strong necessity? Has he received intelligence from our absent warriors, or has he other public news to communicate? He is our good friend for doing this: whatever his projects may be, I pray Zeus to grant him success!" Telemachus, answering the appeal forthwith, proceeds to tell the assembled Ithakans that he has no public news to communicate, but that he has convoked them upon his own private necessities. Next he sets forth pathetically the wickedness of the suitors, calls upon them personally to desist and upon the people to restrain them, and concludes by solemnly warning them, that, being henceforward free from all obligation towards them, he will invoke the avenging aid of Zeus, so "that they may be slain in the interior of his own house, without bringing upon him any subsequent penalty."

We are not of course to construe the Homeric description as anything more than an ideal, approximating to actual reality. But allowing all that

1 Odys. ii. 25-40.
2 Odys. ii. 49, 77, 145.
can be required for such a limitation, it exhibits the Agora more as a special medium of publicity and intercommunication⁴, from the king to the body of the people, than as including any idea of responsibility on the part of the former or restraining force on the part of the latter, however such consequences may indirectly grow out of it. The primitive Grecian government is essentially monarchical, reposing on personal feeling and divine right: the memorable dictum in the Iliad is borne out by all that we hear of the actual practice,—"The rule of many is not a good thing; let us have one ruler only—one king,—him to whom Zeus has given the sceptre and the tutelary sanctions."⁵

⁴ A similar character is given of the public assemblies of the early Franks and Lombards (Pféffel, Histoire du Droit Public en Allemagne, t. i, p. 18; Sismondi, Histoire des Républiques Italiennes, t. i, v. 2, p. 71).

Dionysius of Halicarnassus (v. 12) pays rather too high a compliment to the moderation of the Grecian heroic kings.

The kings at Rome, like the Grecian heroic kings, began with an empty & uncourted: the words of Pomponius (De Origine Juris, i. 2) would be perhaps more exactly applicable to the latter than to the former: "Initio civitatis nostrae Populus sine certâ lege, sine jure certo, primum agere instituit: omniaque mans a Regibus gubernantur." Tacitus says (Ann. iii. 26), "Nohis Rummhis, ut libitum, imperitaverat: dein Numa religiòbus et divino jure populum devinit, repertaque quaedam a Tullo et Anco: sed praecipium Servius Tullius sancto legum fuit, quis etiam Reges obtemperarent." The appointment of a Dictator under the Republic was a reproduction, for a short and definite interval, of this old unbounded authority (Cicero, De Repub. ii. 32; Zonara, Ann. vii. 13; Dionys. Hal. v. 75).

See Rubino, Untersuchungen über Römische Verfassung und Geschichte, Cassel, 1839, buch i. abschnitt 2, p. 112-132; und Wachsmuth, Hellenische Alterthumskunde, i. sect. 18, p. 81-91.

⁵ Iliad, ii. 204. Agamemnon promises to make over to Achilles seven well-peopled cities, with a body of wealthy inhabitants (Iliad, ix. 158); and Menelaus, if he could have induced Odysseus to quit Ithaka and settle near him in Argos, would have depopulated one of his neighbouring towns in order to make room for him (Olyss. iv. 176).
The second book of the Iliad, full as it is of beauty and vivacity, not only confirms our idea of the passive, recipient, and listening character of the Agora, but even presents a repulsive picture of the degradation of the mass of the people before the chiefs. Agamemnön convokes the Agora for the purpose of immediately arming the Grecian host, under a full impression that the gods have at last determined forthwith to crown his arms with complete victory. Such impression has been created by a special visit of Oneirus (the Dream-god), sent by Zeus during his sleep—being indeed an intentional fraud on the part of Zeus, though Agamemnön does not suspect its deceitful character. At this precise moment, when he may be conceived to be more than usually anxious to get his army into the field and snatch the prize; an unaccountable fancy seizes him, that instead of inviting the troops to do what he really wishes, and encouraging their spirits for this one last effort, he will adopt a course directly contrary; he will try their courage by professing to believe that the siege had become desperate, and that there was no choice except to go on shipboard and flee. Announcing to Nestor and Odysseus in preliminary council, his intention to hold this strange language, he at the same time tells them that he relies upon them to oppose it and counterwork its effect upon the multitude. The agora is presently assembled, and the king of men

Mannos (Sparta, i. l. p. 34) and Nitzech (ad Odys. ii. 171) are inclined to exclude these passages as spurious,—a proceeding, in my opinion, unadmissible, without more direct grounds than they are able to produce.

1 Iliad, ii. 74: ἢ ἐνε ἐνε ἑνε ἱππο]|
pours forth a speech full of dismay and despair, concluding by a distinct exhortation to all present to go aboard and return home at once. Immediately the whole army, chiefs as well as people, break up and proceed to execute his orders: every one rushes off to get his ship afloat, except Odysseus, who looks on in mournful silence and astonishment. The army would have been quickly on its voyage home, had not the goddesses Hérè and Athènè stimulated Odysseus to an instantaneous interference. He hastens among the dispersing crowd and diverts them from their purpose of retreat: to the chiefs he addresses flattering words, trying to shame them by gentle expostulation; but the people he visits with harsh reprimand and blows from his sceptre, thus driving them back to their seats in the agora.

Amidst the dissatisfied crowd thus unwillingly brought back, the voice of Thersitès is heard the longest and the loudest,—a man ugly, deformed, and unwarlike, but fluent in speech, and especially severe and unsparing in his censure of the chiefs, Agamemnòn, Achilles, and Odysseus. Upon this occasion, he addresses to the people a speech denouncing Agamemnòn for selfish and greedy excitation generally, but particularly for his recent ill-treatment of Achilles—and he endeavours moreover to induce them to persist in their scheme of departure. In reply, Odysseus not only rebukes Thersi-
tès sharply for his impudence in abusing the commander-in-chief, but threatens that if ever such behaviour is repeated, he will strip him naked, and thrash him out of the assembly with disgraceful blows; as an earnest of which he administers to him at once a smart stroke with the studded sceptre, imprinting its painful mark in a bloody weal across his back. Thersítes, terrified and subdued, sits down weeping, while the surrounding crowd deride him, and express the warmest approbation of Odysseus for having thus by force put the reviler to silence.

Both Odysseus and Nestór then address the agora, sympathising with Agamemnón for the shame which the retreat of the Greeks is about to inflict upon him, and urging emphatically upon every one present the obligation of persevering until the siege shall be successfully consummated. Neither of them animadverts at all upon Agamemnón, either for his conduct towards Achilles, or for his childish freak of trying the temper of the army.

There cannot be a clearer indication than this description—so graphic in the original poem—of the true character of the Homeric agora. The multitude who compose it are listening and acquiescent, not often hesitating, and never refractory

1 Iliad, ii. 213-277.
2 Iliad, ii. 284-340. Nor does Thersítes, in his excommuniatory speech against Agamemnón, touch in any way upon this anomalous point, though in the circumstances under which his speech is made, it would seem to be of all others the most natural—and the sharpest threat against the commander-in-chief.

Dequò δὲ χρύσικα καὶ πόλεις πόλει τινες.
DEBOS δ' επει διδακος ἀλλὰ τω λόγῳ.
Προσδόρεται τιμωρα ἐν δόμω εἰκονομίαν.
to the chief. The fate which awaits a presumptuous critic, even where his virulent reproaches are substantially well-founded, is plainly set forth in the treatment of Thersitēs; while the unpopularity of such a character is attested even more by the excessive pains which Homer takes to heap upon him repulsive personal deformities, than by the chastisement of Odysseus—he is lame, bald, crookbacked, of mis-shapen head and squinting vision.

But we cease to wonder at the submissive character of the Agora, when we read the proceedings of Odysseus towards the people themselves,—his fine words and flattery addressed to the chiefs, and his contemptuous reproof and manual violence towards the common men, at a moment when both were doing exactly the same thing,—fulfilling the express bidding of Agamemnōn, upon whom Odysseus does not offer a single comment. This scene, which excited a sentiment of strong displeasure among the democrats of historical Athens¹, affords a proof that the feeling of personal dignity, of which philosophic observers in Greece—Herodotus, Xenophōn, Hippocratēs, and Aristotle—boasted, as distinguishing the free Greek citizen from the slavish Asiatic, was yet undeveloped in the time of Homer². The ancient epic is commonly so filled with the personal adventures of the chiefs, and the people are so constantly depicted as simple appendages attached to them, that we rarely obtain a glimpse of the treatment of the one apart

¹ Xenophōn, Memorab. i. 2, 9.
² Aristot. Poli. vi. 6, 1; Hippocr. De Aere, Loc. et Aqu. v. 85–86; Herodot. vii. 134.
from the other, such as this memorable Homeric agora affords.

There remains one other point of view in which we are to regard the Agora of primitive Greece—as the scene in which justice was administered. The king is spoken of as constituted by Zeus the great judge of society: he has received from Zeus the sceptre and along with it the powers of command and sanction: the people obey these commands and enforce these sanctions, under him, enriching him at the same time with lucrative presents and payments. Sometimes the king separately, sometimes the kings or chiefs or Gerontes in the plural number, are named as deciding disputes and awarding satisfaction to complainants; always however in public, in the midst of the assembled agora. In one of the compartments of Justice administered in the Agora by the king or chief.

1 The ἐναγιατις, ἐναγερης or ἐναρ, and ἀγορα go together, under the presiding superintendence of the gods. The goddess Themis both convokes and discusses the aγορα (see Iliad, xi. 806; Odyssey, i. 67; Iliad, xx. 4).

2 The ἐναγερης, commandments and sanctions, belong properly to Zeus (Odyssey, xvi. 403); from him they are given in charge to earthly kings along with the sceptre (Iliad, i. 258; n. 206).

3 The commentators on Homer recognised ἀγορα, rather too strictly, as ἀγορα τω θεον θεος (see Eustath. ad Odyssey, xvi. 403).

4 The presents and the λαυραι ἐναγερης (Iliad, ix. 166).

5 Heindl, Theogon. 85; the single person judging seems to be mentioned (Odyssey, xii. 439).

It deserves to be noticed that in Sparta the senate decided accusations of homicide (Aristot. Politi. ii. 1, 7); in historical Athens the senate of Areopagus originally did the same, and retained, even when its powers were much abridged, the trial of accusations of intentional homicide and wounding.

Respecting the judicial functions of the early Roman kings, Dions. Hal. A. R. x. 1. Το μεν ὄργανον το βούλευτος το τέκτων την ἐκπρατην το τεθαλασσαν το θεόν, και το λεγαμεν επ' ἐννοια, τον ορθον και (compare iv, 25); and Cicero, Republic. v. 2; Rubino, Untersuchungen, i. 2. p. 122.
the shield of Achilles, the details of a judicial scene are described. While the agora is full of an eager and excited crowd, two men are disputing about the fine of satisfaction for the death of a murdered man—one averring, the other denying, that the fine had already been paid, and both demanding an inquest. The Gerontes are ranged on stone seats¹, in the holy circle, with two talents of gold lying before them, to be awarded to such of the litigants as shall make out his case to their satisfaction. The heralds with their sceptres, repressing the warm sympathies of the crowd in favour of one or other of the parties, secure an alternate hearing to both⁶. This interesting picture completely harmonises with the brief allusion of Hesiod to the judicial trial—doubtless a real trial—between himself and his brother Persês. The two brothers disputed about their paternal inheritance, and the cause was carried to be tried by the chiefs in agora; but Persês bribed them, and obtained an unjust verdict for the whole⁷. So at least Hesiod affirms, in the bitterness of his heart; earnestly exhorting his brother not to waste a precious time, required for necessary labours, in the unprofitable occupation of witnessing and abetting litigants in the agora—for which (he adds) no man has proper leisure, unless his subsistence for the year beforehand be

¹ Iliad, xvi. 504.—
² Od òi τεῖναι.
³ Εἰς ἄν γενεσιν λίθους, Ἰχθὺς ἐν οἴνῳ.
Several of the old northern Sagas represent the old men assembled for the purpose of judging as sitting on great stones in a circle called the Urtheilring or Gerichterring (Leitfaden der Nördischen Alterthümer, p. 31, Copenhagen 1857).
⁴ Homer, Iliad, xvi. 497–510.
⁵ Hesiod, Opp. 18. 37.
safely treasured up in his garners. He repeats more than once his complaints of the crooked and corrupt judgments of which the kings were habitually guilty; dwelling upon abuse of justice as the crying evil of his day, and predicting as well as invoking the vengeance of Zeus to repress it. And Homer ascribes the tremendous violence of the autumnal storms to the wrath of Zeus against those judges who disgrace the agora with their wicked verdicts.

Though it is certain that in every state of society, the feelings of men when assembled in multitude will command a certain measure of attention, yet we thus find the Agora, in judicial matters still more than in political, serving merely the purpose of publicity. It is the King who is the grand personal mover of Grecian heroic society. He is on earth the equivalent of Zeus in the agora of the gods: the supreme god of Olympus is in the habit of carrying on his government with frequent publicity, of hearing some dissentient opinions, and of allowing himself occasionally to be wheedled by Aphroditè or worried into compliance by Hèrè; but his determination is at last conclusive, subject only to the overruling interference of the Mèrè or Fates. Both the society of gods, and the various societies of men, are, according to the conceptions

1 Hesiod, Opp. Di. 27-33.
2 Hesiod, Opp. Di. 250-263; Homer, liad, xvi. 387.
3 Tittmann (Darstellung der Griechischen Staatsverfasungen, book ii. p. 63) gives too lofty an idea, in my judgment, of the functions of the Homeric agora.
4 liad, i. 529-527; iv. 14-56; especially the agora of the gods (xx. 16).
of Grecian legend, carried on by the personal rule of a legitimate sovereign, who does not derive his title from the special appointment of his subjects, though he governs with their full consent. In fact, Grecian legend presents to us hardly anything else, except these great individual personalities. The race, or nation, is as it were absorbed into the prince: eponymous persons, especially, are not merely princes, but fathers and representative unities, each the equivalent of that greater or less aggregate to which he gives name.

But though in the primitive Grecian government, the king is the legitimate as well as the real sovereign, he is always conceived as acting through the council and agora. Both the one and the other are established and essential media through which his ascendancy is brought to bear upon the society; the absence of such assemblies is the test and mark of savage men, as in the case of the Cyclops'. Accordingly he must possess qualities fit to act with effect upon these two assemblies: wise reason for the council, unctuous eloquence for the agora. Such is the ideal of the heroic government: a king not merely full of valour and resource as a soldier, but also sufficiently superior to those around him.

1 Odys. ix. 114.—

εἰτε δ' (the Cyclopes) δι' ἄγαμοι ἵκουσιν ὀλοκλήρον, κατὰ δήμαρχον.

'Αλλ' ἄγον ἱκώσει τοις τε κίνοις
Τίνας τοὺς ἀδειφθοίκις δημαρχίας ἐν ἱκώσις
Παρδέον Ἰταλώσει ἀπ' ἀλλήλων ἱκώσις.

These lines illustrate the meaning of δήμαρχον.

2 See this point set forth in the prolix discourse of Aristides, Peri "Rhetorique" (Or. xiv. vol. ii. p. 39). Ἡρακλῆς .......τοῖς μετακόμισι Ὀμήροις λέγω .......ὅτα τε ἡ μεγαλικεχ ὕπονομος τεί. Πανταδῆς, &c.
to ensure both the deliberate concurrence of the chiefs, and the hearty adhesion of the masses. That this picture is not, in all individual cases, realised, is unquestionable; but the endowments so often predicated of good kings show it to have been the type present to the mind of the describer. Xenophon, in his Cyropaedia, depicts Cyrus as an improved edition of the Homeric Agamemnon—"a good king and a powerful soldier," thus idealising the perfection of personal government.

It is important to point out these fundamental conceptions of government, discernible even before the dawn of Grecian history, and identified with the social life of the people. It shows us that the Greeks, in their subsequent revolutions and in the political experiments which their countless autonomous communities presented, worked upon pre-existing materials—developing and exalting elements which had been at first subordinate, and suppressing, or remodelling on a totally new prin-

\[\text{1 Pitsa, king of the Myrmidons, is called (Iliad, vii. 126), }\] 
\[\text{Kothe de }\] 
\[\text{MERMIDEOS BAKLIOEPAI DE }\] 
\[\text{PAPOMEN-QE- }\] 
\[\text{EISEMEN, APOR EN PAPTIS }\] 
\[\text{(I. 400)—Nestor, logos }\] 
\[\text{Kalos AEOLIS APOROMEN-QE SAGRELOS, AKON SAKLIOEPAI (I. 633); and IDEOMEN, KAPTOS ZALIKOEP (I. 219).}\]

Hesiod (Theogon. 80-96) illustrates still more aptly the ideal of the king governing by permission and inspired by the Muses.

\[\text{See the striking picture in Thucydides (ii. 65). Xenophon, in the }\] 
\[\text{Cyropaedia, puts into the mouth of his hero the Homeric comparison between the good king and the good shepherd, implying as it does immense superiority of organisation, morality, and intelligence (Cyropaedia, viii. p. 450, Hutchinson).}\]

\[\text{Volney observes respecting the emirs of the Druses in Syria,—"Everything depends on circumstances: if the governor be a man of ability, he is absolute; if weak, he is a cipher. This proceeds from the want of fixed laws; a want common to all Asia." (Travels in Egypt and Syria, vol. ii. p. 66.) Such was pretty much the condition of the king in primitive Greece.}\]
The Council and Assembly, originally media through which the King acted, became in historical Greece the paramount depositories of power.

Spartan kings, an exception to the general rule—their limited powers.

...
of its preservation. Though the Spartan kings had the hereditary command of the military forces, yet even in all foreign expeditions they habitually acted in obedience to orders from home; while in affairs of the interior, the superior power of the Ephors sensibly overshadowed them. So that unless possessed of more than ordinary force of character, they seem to have exercised their chief influence as presiding members of the senate.

There is yet another point of view in which it behoves us to take notice of the Council and the Agora as integral portions of the legendary government of the Grecian communities. We are thus enabled to trace the employment of public speaking, as the standing engine of government and the proximate cause of obedience, to the social infancy of the nation. The power of speech in the direction of public affairs becomes more and more obvious, developed and irresistible, as we advance towards the culminating period of Grecian history, the century preceding the battle of Chaeroneia. That its development was greatest among the most enlightened sections of the Grecian name, and smallest among the more obtuse and stationary, is matter of notorious fact; nor is it less true, that the prevalence of this habit was one of the chief causes of the intellectual eminence of the nation generally.

O. Müller (Hist. Dorians, book iii. p. 3) affirms that the fundamental features of the heroic royalty were maintained in the Dorian states, and obliterated only in the Ionian and democratic. In this point he has been followed by various other authors (see Helbig, Die Sittlich. Zustände des Heldenalters, p. 73), but his position appears to me substantially incorrect, even as regards Sparta, and strikingly incorrect, in regard to the other Dorian states.
At a time when all the countries around were plunged comparatively in mental torpor, there was no motive sufficiently present and powerful to multiply so wonderfully the productive minds of Greece, except such as arose from the rewards of public speaking. The susceptibility of the multitude to this sort of guidance, their habit of requiring and enjoying the stimulus which it supplied, and the open discussion, combining regular forms with free opposition, of practical matters political as well as judicial—are the creative causes which formed such conspicuous adepts in the art of persuasion. Nor was it only professed orators who were thus produced; didactic aptitude was formed in the background, and the speculative tendencies were supplied with interesting phenomena for observation and combination, at a time when the truths of physical science were almost inaccessible. If the primary effect was to quicken the powers of expression, the secondary, but not less certain result, was to develop the habits of scientific thought. Not only the oratory of Demosthenès and Periklès, and the colloquial magic of Socratès, but also the philosophical speculations of Plato, and the systematic politics, rhetoric and logic of Aristotle, are traceable to the same general tendencies in the minds of the Grecian people: and we find the germ of these expansive forces in the senate and agora of their legendary government. The poets, first epic and then lyric, were the precursors of the orators in their power of moving the feelings of an assembled crowd; whilst the Homeric poems—the general training-book of educated Greeks—constituted
a treasury of direct and animated expression, full of concrete forms and rare in the use of abstractions, and thence better suited to the workings of oratory. The subsequent critics had no difficulty in selecting from the Iliad and Odyssey samples of eloquence in all its phases and varieties.

On the whole, then, the society depicted in the old Greek poems is loose and unsettled, presenting very little of legal restraint, and still less of legal protection—but concentrating such political power as does exist in the hands of a legitimate hereditary king, whose ascendancy over the other chiefs is more or less complete according to his personal force and character. Whether that ascendancy be greater or less however, the mass of the people is in either case politically passive and of little account. Though the Grecian freeman of the heroic age is above the degraded level of the Gallic plebs as described by Caesar, he is far from rivaling the fierce independence and sense of dignity combined with individual force, which characterise the Germanic tribes before their establishment in the Roman Empire. Still less does his condition, or the society in which he moves, correspond to those pleasing dreams of spontaneous rectitude and innocence, in which Tacitus and Seneca indulge with regard to primitive man. 3

1 Caesar, Bell. Gallie. vi. 12.
2 Seneca, Epist. xc.; Tacitus, Annal. iii. 26. "Vetustissimi mortalium (says the latter), nullâ adhuc male libidine, sine probro, seclure, coque sine para aut æque timentium, agitan; necque praemio opus erat, cum honesta solum ingenio peterentur; et ali nihil contra morem suum permiserant, nihil per metum verahantur. At postquam ex eo equalitas, et pro modestia et pudore ambitio et via medebatur, perseverat dissimul-
2. The state of moral and social feeling, prevalent in legendary Greece, exhibits a scene in harmony with the rudimentary political fabrics just described. Throughout the long stream of legendary narrative on which the Greeks looked back as their past history, the larger social motives hardly ever come into play: either individual valour and cruelty, or the personal attachments and quarrels of relatives and war-companions, or the feuds of private enemies, are ever before us. There is no sense of obligation then existing, between man and man as such—and very little between each man and the entire community of which he is a member; such sentiments are neither operative in the real world, nor present to the imaginations of the poets. Personal feelings, either towards the gods, the king, or some near and known individual, fill the whole of a man's bosom: out of them arise all the motives to beneficence, and all the internal restraints upon violence, antipathy or rapacity: and special communion, as well as special solemnities, are essential to their existence. The ceremony of an oath, so imposing, so paramount, and so indispensable in those days, illustrates strikingly this principle. And even in the case of the stranger supplicant—in which an apparently spontaneous sympathy manifests itself—the succour and kindness shown to him arise mainly from his having gone through the consecrated formalities of supplication, such as that of "oimes, multosque angul populis aeternam mansere;" &c. Compare Strabo, vi. p. 301.

These are the same fancies so eloquently set forth by Rousseau in the last century. A far more ingenious criticism pervades the Preface of Thucydides.
sitting down in the ashes by the sacred hearth, thus obtaining a sort of privilege of sanctuary. That

1 Senthés, in the Amasias of Xenophon (vii. 2, 33), describes how, when an orphan youth, he formally supplicated Médokos the Thracian king to grant him a troop of followers, in order that he might recover his lost dominions—ἐκαθαρίζων ἐκκαθάρισα ἅτε ἔσθε δοῦνα ὁ ἄνδρας. Thucydides gives an interesting description of the arrival of the exile Themistokles, then warmly pursued by the Greeks on suspicion of treason, at the house of Admetus, king of the Epeian Molossians. The wife of Admetus herself instructed the fugitive how to supplicate her husband in form: the child of Admetus was placed in his arms, and he was directed to sit down in this guise close by the consecrated hearth, which was of the nature of an altar. While so seated, he addressed his urgent entreaties to Admetus for protection: the latter raised him up from the ground and promised what was asked. "That (says the historian) was the most powerful form of supplication." Admetus—δεότως διηκρίνεται τα σέ νυν ὑπὲρ τοῦ σωτῆρος ἱερῶς καὶ ἐμπρος τοῦ ἐκκαθάρισα, καὶ μεγαλῶς ἐστερέως ὑπὲρ τοῦ (Thuc. i. 136). So Telephus, in the last drama of Eсхylus called Meroi, takes up the child Orastes. See Rothe's Fragm. 44 Schol. Aristoph. Ach. 385.

In the Odyssey, both Nausicaa and the goddess Athēnē instruct Odysseus in the proper form of supplicating Alkinous: he first throws himself down at the feet of queen Arētē, embracing her knees and addressing to her his prayer, and then without waiting for a reply, sits down among the ashes on the hearth—σωτῆρας, σωτῆρας τινα ἱερων ἐξενέποικος καὶ σωτῆρας ἄριν πρὸς τοὺς (Odys. vii. 319, 441, 165) Read σωτῆρας ὑπὲρ τοῦ, ἱερῶς, ὑπὲρ ὑπέρ ὑπὲρ ὑπὲρ ὑπὲρ. Alkinous is dining with a large company: for some time both he and the guests are silent: at length the ancient Eλumeus demonstrates with him on his tardiness in raising the stranger up from the ashes. At his exhortation, the Phaeacian king takes Odysseus by the hand, and raising him up, places him on a chair beside him: he then directs the heralds to mix a bowl of wine, and to serve it to every one round, in order that all may make libations to Zeus Hekateus. Thus ceremony clothes the stranger with the full rights and character of a suppliant (Odys. vii. 319, 441, 165): καὶ σωτῆρας ὑπὲρ τοῦ, ἱερῶς, Eschyl. Suppl. 242.

That the form counted for a great deal, we see evidently marked: but of course supplication is often addressed, and successfully addressed, in circumstances where this form cannot be gone through.

It is difficult to accept the doctrine of Kastalhous (ad Odys. xvi. 424), that ἴσως is a root word (like ἵσως), applied as well to the leavings as to the ἱερῶς properly so called: but the word ἄλαθες in the passage just cited, does seem to justify his observation; yet there is no direct authority for such use of the word in Homer.

The address of Theoclymenus on first preferring his supplication to
cerepany exalts him into something more than a mere suffering man—it places him in express fellowship with the master of the house, under the tutelary sanctions of Zeus Hiketésios. There is great difference between one form of supplication and another; the suppliant however in any form becomes more or less the object of a particular sympathy.

The sense of obligation towards the gods manifests itself separately in habitual acts of worship, sacrifice, and libations, or by votive presents, such as that of the hair of Achilles, which he has pledged to the river-god Spercheius¹, and such as the constant dedicated offerings which men who stand in urgent need of the divine aid first promise and afterwards fulfil. But the feeling towards the gods also appears, and that not less frequently, as mingling itself with and enforcing obligations towards some particular human person. The tie which binds a man to his father, his kinsman, his guest, or any special promisee towards whom he has taken the

Telemachus is characteristic of the practice (Odyss. xx. 260); compare also Iliad, xvi. 574, and Hecat. Sent. Hereul. 12-85.

The idea of the θρίασις and the βέβας run very much together. I can hardly persuade myself that the reading βέβας (Odyss. x. 320) is truly Homeric: implying as it does the idea of a pitiable sufferer, it is altogether out of place when predicated of the proud and impetuous Neoptolemus: we should rather have expected ἥρως. (See Odyss. x. 16.)

The restraining efficacy of special favours of supplication among the Scythians, is powerfully set forth in the Teutars of Lucian: the suppliant sits upon an ox-hide, with his hands confined behind his back (Lucian, Teutars, c. 48. vol. iii. p. 69, Tunciu.)—the petty temple among that people.

¹ Iliad, xiii. 142.
engagement of an oath, is conceived in conjunction with the idea of Zeus, as witness and guarantee; and the intimacy of the association is attested by some surname or special appellation of the god. Such personal feelings composed all the moral influences of which a Greek of that day was susceptible,—a state of mind which we can best appreciate by constraining it with that of the subsequent citizen of historical Athens. In the view of the latter, the great impersonal authority called "The Laws" stood out separately, both as guide and sanction, distinct from religious duty or private sympathies: but of this discriminated conception of positive law and positive morality, the germ only can be detected in the Homeric poems. The appropriate Greek word for human laws never occurs. Amidst a very wavering phraseology, we can


2. Nagelsch. (Hom., p. 28) gives a just and well-sustained view of the Homeric ethics: "Es ist der charakteristische Standpunkt der Homerischen Ethik, dass die Sphären des Rechts, der Sittlichkeit, und Religiosität, bey dem Dichter, durchaus noch nicht auseinander fallen, so dass der Mensch e. h. δίκες σημαν konnte ohne σεβαστί zu seyn—sondern in unentwickelter Einheit bey-ommen sind."  

3. ἄριστα, best, is not an Homeric word; ἄριστος, best, in the singular, occurs twice in the Iliadic Works and Days (276, 356).

4. The employment of the words δίκη, δίκες, δίκαιος, δίκαιος, in Homer, is curious as illustrating the early moral associations, but would require far more space than can be given to it in a note; we see that the sense of each of these words was essentially fluctuating. θέσις, in Homer, is sometimes decidedly a persona, who exercises the important function of opening and closing the agora, both of gods and men (Iliad, xx. 4; Odyssey, ii. 66); and who, besides that, acts and speaks (Iliad, xiv. 87-93); always the associate and companion of Zeus the highest god. In Hesiod (Theog. 901) she is the wife of Zeus; in Eschylus (Prometh. 209) she
detect a gradual transition from the primitive idea of a personal goddess Themis, attached to Zeus, first to his sentences or orders called Themistes, and next by a still farther remove to various established customs, which those sentences were believed to sanctify—the authority of religion and that of custom coalescing into one indivisible obligation.

The family relations, as we might expect, are set forth in our pictures of the legendary world as the grand sources of lasting union and devoted attachment. The paternal authority is highly reverenced; the son who lives to years of maturity, repays by affection to his parents the charge of his mainte-

is the same as Gaim; even in Plato (Legg. xi. p. 936) witnesses swear (to want of knowledge of matters under imquest) by Zeus, Apollo, and Themis. Themis as a person is probably the oldest sense of the word: then we have the plural δικόεσσα (connected with the verb δίκαιος, like θεοτόκος and ρηθήμα), which are (not persons, but) special appertainings or emanations of the Supreme God, or of a king sitting under him, analogous to and joined with the sceptre. The sceptre, and the δικόεσσα or the δικαία constantly go together (Iliai, ii. 209; ix. 309); Zeus or the king is a judge, not a law-maker; he issues decrees or special orders to settle particular disputes, or to restrain particular men; and agreeable to the concrete forms of ancient language, the decrees are treated as if they were a collection of ready-made substantive things, actually in his possession; like the sceptre, and prepared for being delivered out when the proper occasion arose:—δικάια πόλεις, οίκες δικόεσσαι Πρώτος Ἀδης καταγαίνει (II. i. 138), compared with the two passages last cited:—"Ἀργος ῥοῆσθαι δίκην, οἵ τε κρίνει οἵτινες δίκαιοι (II. i. 761),—"Ἀργος, οἴκες δίκας καὶ στήθασιν οίκες δίκαια (Odys. ix. 215). The plural number δικάς is more commonly used in Homer than the singular; δίκη is rarely used to denote Justice as an abstract conception; it more often denotes a special claim of right on the part of some given man (II. xvii. 508). It sometimes also denotes, simply, established custom or the known lot, δίκαιος δική, ἡ δίκη τῶν, δικάς ἄριστος, δικὰς (see Dumm’s Lexicon ad ver.): δίκη is used in the same manner.

See upon this matter, Plutarch, De Notione Juris ap. Homerum, p. 81; and O. Müller, Prolegg. Mythol., p. 121.
nance in infancy, which the language notes by a special word; whilst, on the other hand, the Erinnyes, whose avenging hand is put in motion by the curse of a father or mother, is an object of deep dread.¹

In regard to marriage, we find the wife occupying a station of great dignity and influence, though it was the practice for the husband to purchase her by valuable presents to her parents,—a practice extensively prevalent among early communities, and treated by Aristotle as an evidence of barbarism. She even seems to live less secluded and to enjoy a wider sphere of action than was allotted to her in historical Greece.² Concubines are frequent with


² Aristotle, Polit. ii. 5, 11. The ἱσμα, or present given by the suitor to the father as an inducement to grant his daughter in marriage, was spoken of as very valuable,—στιπερσίμπα ἱσμα (II. xi. 244; xvi. 178; xxii. 472), to grant a daughter without ἱσμα was a high compliment to the intended son-in-law (II. ix. 141; compare xiii. 366). Among the ancient Germans of Tacitus, the husband gave presents, not to his wife's father, but to herself (Tacit. Germ. c. 18): the customs of the early Jews were in this respect completely Homeric; see the case of Sheshem and Dinah (Genesis, xxxiv. 12) and others, &c.; also Mr. Cattlin's Letters on the North American Indians, vol. i. Lett. 26, p. 213.

The Greek ἱσμα correspond exactly to the munda of the Lombard and Alemannic laws, which is thus explained by Mr. Price (Notes on the Laws of King Eredbert, in the Ancient Laws and Institutes of England, translated and published by Mr. Thorpe, vol. i. p. 20): 'The Lombardic law is the most copious of all the barbaric codes in its provisions respecting marriage, and particularly as on the subject of the Mund. From that law it appears that the Mundium was a sum paid over to the family of the bride, for transferring the tutelage which they possessed over her to the family of the husband,—Si quis pro muliere libera aut paelia mundium deederit et ei tradidit suum ad usum," &c. (ed. Rotharis, c. 183.) In the same sense in which the term occurs in these dooms, it is also to be met with in the Alemannic law; it was also
the chiefs, and occasionally the jealousy of the wife breaks out in reckless excess against her husband, as may be seen in the tragical history of Phœnix. The continence of Laértes, from fear of displeasing his wife Antikelea, is especially noticed. A large portion of the romantic interest which Grecian legend inspires is derived from the women: Penelope, Andromachë, Helen, Klytæmnæstra, Eriphyle, Iokasta, Hekabë, &c. all stand in the foreground of the picture, either from their virtues, their beauty, their crimes, or their sufferings.

Not only brothers, but also cousins, and the more distant blood-relations and clansmen, appear connected together by a strong feeling of attachment, sharing among them universally the obligation of mutual self-defence and revenge, in the event of injury to any individual of the race. The legitimate brothers divide between them by lot the paternal inheritance,—a bastard brother receiving only a small share; he is however commonly very well treated, though the murder of Phokus by Telamon and Pèleus constitutes a flagrant exception. The sanguine pregnancy of young women, common in Denmark and in Sweden, where the bride was called a nunu-born or a nunu-given woman.

According to the 77th Law of King Ethelbert (p. 23), this sum was often paid in cattle; the Saxon daughters were μηδεμίη ἄδομικα (Iliad, xvii, 393).

1 Odys. i. 430; Iliad, ix. 450; see also Terpstra, Antiquitas Homerica, sc. 17 and 18.

Polygamy appears to be ascribed to Priam, but to no one else (Iliad, xxi. 98).

2 Odys. xiv. 203–215; compare Iliad, xi. 102. The primitive German law of succession divided the paternal inheritance among the sons of a deceased father, under the implied obligation to maintain and portion out their sisters (Riechhorn, Deutsche Privat-Recht, sect, 350).
often by a god, is one of the most frequently recurring incidents in the legendary narratives; and the severity with which such a fact, when discovered, is visited by the father, is generally extreme. As an extension of the family connection, we read of larger unions called the phratry and the tribe, which are respectfully, but not frequently, mentioned.  

The generous readiness with which hospitality is afforded to the stranger who asks for it, the facility with which he is allowed to contract the peculiar connection of guest with his host, and the permanence with which that connection, when created by partaking of the same food and exchanging presents, is maintained even through a long period of separation, and even transmitted from father to son—these are among the most captivating features of the heroic society. The Homeric chief welcomes the stranger who comes to ask shelter in his house, first gives him refreshment, and then inquires his 

1 Iliad, ii. 362.—

2 It must be mentioned, however, that when a chief received a stranger and made presents to him, he reimbursed to himself the value of the presents by collections among the people (Odys. xiii. 14, xiv. 197); ἀργυρίον γὰρ ἐν προσφοράς ἀνασκευάζειν, says Alkmaeon.
name and the purpose of his voyage. Though not inclined to invite strangers to his house, he cannot repel them when they spontaneously enter it craving a lodging. The suppliant is also commonly a stranger, but a stranger under peculiar circumstances; who proclaims his own calamitous and abject condition, and seeks to place himself in a relation to the chief whom he solicits, something like that in which men stand to the gods. Onerous as such special tie may become to him, the chief cannot decline it, if solicited in the proper form: the ceremony of supplication has a binding effect, and the Erinnyes punish the hardhearted person who disallows it. A conquered enemy may sometimes throw himself at the feet of his conqueror, and solicit mercy, but he cannot by doing so acquire the character and claims of a suppliant properly so called: the conqueror has free discretion either to kill him or to spare him and accept a ransom.

1 Odys. i. 123, in. 70, &c.
2 Odys. xvii. 383.

τίς γαρ δι' ἔκκλημα παλαί διάλαβει αἰτίας αὐτῆς
"Ἀλλοι γάρ πρὸς τῶν ἐν δυνάσεως θεοῖς, &c.,"
which breathes the plain-spoken shrivellness of the Homeric Works and Days, v. 355.

See the illustrative case of Lykos in vain craving mercy from Achilles (Iliad, xii. 64–97, Ἀρεί ταῖς εἰς ἱκέται, &c.).

Mecenas is about to spare the life of the Trojan Aenetus, who kneels and craves mercy, offering a large ransom—when Agamemnon repels the idea of quarter, and kills Aenetus with his own hand: his speech to Mecenas displays the extreme of violent enmity, yet the poet says—

"Ως εἰπερ, παράσυναι μελαθροι φρένες ἱππας;
Αἵματες παρετέθησαν, &c.,"

Aenetus is not called αἰείως, nor is the expression used in respect
There are in the legendary narratives abundant examples of individuals who transgress in particular acts even the holiest of these personal ties, but the savage Cyclops is the only person described as professedly indifferent to them, and careless of that sanction of the gods which in Grecian belief accompanied them all. In fact, the tragical horror which pervades the lineage of Athamas or Kadmus, and which attaches to many of the acts of Hēraklēs, of Pēlenus and Telamon, of Jasōn and Médea, of Atreus and Thyestēs, &c., is founded upon a deep feeling and sympathy with those special obligations, which conspicuous individuals, under the temporary stimulus of the maddening Atē, are driven to violate. In such conflict of sentiments, between the obligation generally reverenced and the exceptional deviation in an individual otherwise admired, consists the pathos of the story.

These feelings—of mutual devotion between kinsmen and companions in arms—of generous hospitality to the stranger, and of helping protection to the suppliant—constitute the bright spots in a dark age. We find them very generally prevalent amongst communities essentially rude and barbarous—amongst the ancient Germans as described by Tacitus, the Druses in Lebanon, the Arabian tribes to Delos (II. x. 456), nor in the equally striking case of Odysseus (Odys. xiv. 279) when begging for his life.

1 Odys. ix. 112-275.
2 Tacit. German. c. 21. "Quemquamque mortale occor recto, nefas habetur; pro fortunae quique appetitis cepit inarip: cum defevere, qui modo hospes fuerat, monstrator hospitii et ermes, precatum leonis non invitati seducunt; nec intereat—pari humanitate accipitur."
in the desert, and even the North American Indians.

Notum ignotumque, quantum ad jus hospitii, nemo discernit." Compare Cesar, B. G. vi. 22.


Pomponius Mela describes the ancient Germans in language not inapplicable to the Homeric Greeks: "Jus in viribus habent, ulce ut ne latrocinii quidem pudet: tantum hospitibus boni, mitaque supplicibus" (in. 3).

"The hospitality of the Indians is well-known. It extends even to strangers who take refuge among them. They count it a most sacred duty, from which no one is exempted. Whoever refuses relief to any one commits a grievous offence, and not only makes himself detested and abhorred by all, but liable to revenge from the offended person. In their conduct towards their enemies they are cruel and inexorable; and when enraged, bent upon nothing but murder and bloodshed. They are however remarkable for controlling their passions, and waiting for a convenient opportunity of gratifying them. But then their fury knows no bounds. If they cannot satisfy their resentment, they will even call upon their friends and posterity to do it. The longest space of time cannot cool their wrath, nor the most distant place of refuge afford security to their enemy." (Leskeel, History of the Mission of the United Brethren among the North American Indians, Part I. ch. 2. p. 15.)

"Charlevoix observes (says Dr. Ferguson, Essay on Civil Society, Part II. § 2. p. 145.) that the nations among whom he travelled in North America never mentioned acts of generosity or kindness under the notion of duty. They acted from affection, as they acted from appetite, without regard to its consequences. When they had done a kindness, they had gratified a desire: the business was finished and it passed from the memory. The spirit with which they give or receive presents is the same as that which Tacitus remarks among the ancient Germans:—'Gaudium numeribus, sed non datae imputant, nec aequitas obligatnr.' Such gifts are of little consequence, except when employed as the seal of a bargain or a treaty."

Respecting the Mariccihi (Blyrman Schavonians) the Abbé Fortis says (Travels in Dalmatia, p. 55-56):—

"The hospitality of the Mariccihi is equally copious among the poor as among the opulent. The rich prepares a roasted lamb or sheep, and the poor, with equal indulgence, gives its turkey, milk, honey—whatever he has. Nor is their generosity confined to strangers, but
They are the instinctive manifestations of human sociality, standing at first alone, and for that generally extends to all who are in want. Friendship is lasting among the Morlachii. They have even made it a kind of religious point, and tie the sacred bond at the foot of the altar. The Slavonian ritual contains a particular benediction, for the solemn union of two male or two female friends, in presence of the whole congregation. The male friends thus united are called Pobratimi, and the females Porestrama, which means half-brothers and half-sisters. The duties of the Pobratimi are, to assist each other in every case of need and danger, to revenge mutual wrongs, &c. ; their enthusiasm is often carried so far as to risk, and even lose their life. But as the friendships of the Morlachii are strong and sacred, so their quarrels are commonly extinguishable. They pass from father to son, and the mothers fail not to put their children in mind of their duty to revenge their father, if he has had the misfortune to be killed, and to show them often the bloody skirt of the deceased. A Morlach is impenetrable if injured or insulted. With him revenge and justice have exactly the same meaning, and truly it is the primitive idea, and I have been told that in Albania the effects of revenge are still more atrocious and more lasting. There, a man of the mildest character is capable of the most barbarous revenge, believing it to be his positive duty. A Morlach who has killed another of a powerful family is commonly obliged to save himself by flight, and keep out of the way for several years. If during that time he has been fortunate enough to escape the search of his pursuers, and has got a small sum of money, he endeavours to obtain pardon and peace. It is the custom in some places for the offended party to threaten the criminal, holding all sorts of arms to his throat, and at last to consent to accept his ransom.

Concerning the influence of these two distinct tendencies—devoted personal friendship and implacable animosities—among the Illyro-Slavonian population, see Cyprin Robert, Les Serbes de la Turquie, ch. vi. p. 42-46, and Dr. Joseph Müller, Albanien, Ermenen, und die Oesterreichisch-Monteneugreische Graflerie, Prag. 1844, p. 24-25.

It is for the virtue of hospitality (observe Goguet, Origins of Laws, &c., vol. i. book vi. ch. iv.), that the primitive times are chiefly famed. But, in my opinion, hospitality was then exercised not so much from generosity and greatness of soul, as from necessity. Common interest probably gave rise to that custom. In remote antiquity, there were few or no public inns; they entertained strangers, in order that they might render them the same service, if they happened to travel into their country. Hospitality was reciprocal. When they received strangers into their houses, they acquired a right of being received into theirs again. This right was regarded by the ancients as sacred and invio-
reason appearing to possess a greater tutelary force than really belongs to them—beneficent, indeed, in a high degree, with reference to their own appropriate period, but serving as a very imperfect compensation for the impotence of the magistrate, and for the absence of any all-pervading sympathy or sense of obligation between man and man. We best appreciate their importance when we compare the Homeric society with that of barbarians like the Thracians, who tattooed their bodies, as the mark of a generous lineage—sold their children for export as slaves—considered robbery, not merely as one admissible occupation among others, but as the only honourable mode of life; agriculture being held contemptible—and above all, delighted in the shedding of blood as a luxury. Such were the Thracians in the days of Herodotus and Thucydides: and the Homeric society forms a mean term between that which these two historians yet saw in Thrace, and that which they witnessed among their own civilised countrymen.¹

irable, and extended not only to those who had acquired it, but to their children and posterity. Besides, hospitality in these times could not be attended with much expense: men travelled but little. In a word, the modern Arabians prove that hospitality may consist with the greatest vice, and that this species of generosity is no decisive evidence of goodness of heart, or rectitude of manners."

The book of Genesis, amidst many other features of resemblance to the Homeric manners, presents that of ready and exuberant hospitality to the stranger.

¹ Respecting the Thracians, compare Herodot. v. 11; Thucydides, vii. 29-30. The expression of the latter historian is remarkable,—το ἐτερσὸν τῶν Θρακῶν, Ἰκέρω ταῖς μακρίσει τοῦ Θερσομένου, ἐν Νὴν Ἐκορθής, οἰκεῖοντας εἰς ἐνα. Compare Herodot. viii. 116; the cruelty of the Thracian king of the Rhodians towards his own sons.

The story of Odysseus to Telemachus in the Odyssey (xiv. 210-226) fur-
When however among the Homeric men we pass beyond the influence of the private ties above enumerated, we find scarcely any other moralising forces in operation. The acts and adventures commemorated imply a community wherein neither the protection nor the restraints of law are practically felt, and wherein ferocity, rapine, and the aggressive propensities generally, seem restrained by no internal counterbalancing scruples. Homicide, especially, is of frequent occurrence, sometimes by open violence, sometimes by fraud: expatriation for homicide is among the most constantly recurring acts of the Homeric poems: and savage brutalities are often ascribed, even to admired heroes, with apparent indifference. Achilles sacrifices twelve Trojan prisoners on the tomb of Patrokles, while his son Neoptolemus not only0 slaughters the aged Priam, but also seizes by the leg the child Astyanax (son of the slain Hector) and hurls him from one of the lofty towers of Troy†. Moreover, the celebrity

† Ilias Minor, Fraggm. 7, p. 18, ed. Dümter: Iliad, xxiii. 175. Odyssey is mentioned once as obtaining poison for his arrows (Odys. i. 160), but no poisoned arrows are ever employed in either of the two poems. The anecdotes recounted by the Seythian Taraxas in Lyncian's work so entitled (vol. ii. c. 36, p. 544 seqq. ed. Heurt.) afford a vivid picture of this combination of intense and devoted friendship between individuals, with the most revolting cruelty of manners. "You Greeks live in peace and tranquility," observes the Seythian—αυτοί ἦσαν τινὰς τοὺς ἐννεάδες, και ἐπηκλημένοι άλλωσ, ἐπαχομαίνειν οἴκεται, ἡ σπεραντες ἐν τῷ τρόπῳ τό λείπα ὀρφικόν. Τίδα μάλητα δει φίλως ἀγαθώς, δι'
of Autolykus, the maternal grandfather of Odysseus, in the career of wholesale robbery and perjury, and the wealth which it enabled him to acquire, are described with the same unaffected admiration as the wisdom of Nestor or the strength of Ajax. Achilles, Menelaus, Odysseus, pillage in person wherever they can find an opportunity, employing both force and stratagem to surmount resistance. The vocation of a pirate is recognised and honourable, so that a host, when he asks his guest what is the purpose of his voyage, enumerates enrichment by indiscriminate maritime plunder as among those projects which may naturally enter into his contemplation. Abduction of cattle, and expedi-

1 Odys. xxx. 357; Pherskydes, Fragm. 63, ed. Didot; Autolykus, 

² Iliad, ix. 624; xx. 189. Odys. iv. 81-90; ix. 40; xiv. 230; and 

³ Even in the century prior to Thucydides, undistinguished plunder 

⁴ In the treaty between the Romans and Cartilginians, made at some 

⁵ Plunder, commerce and colonisation, are here assumed as the three objects which the Roman ships would pursue, unless they were under special obligation to abstain, in reference to foreigners. This morality approaches nearer to that of the
tions for unprovoked ravage as well as for retaliation, between neighbouring tribes, appear ordinary phenomena; and the established inviolability of heralds seems the only evidence of any settled feeling of obligation between one community and another. While the house and property of Odysseus, during his long absence, enjoys no public protection, those unprincipled chiefs, who consume his substance, find sympathy rather than disapprobation among the people of Ithaca. As a general rule, he who cannot protect himself finds no protection from society: his own kinsmen and immediate companions are the only parties to whom he can look with confidence for support. And in this respect, the representation given by Hesiod makes the picture even worse. In his emphatic denunciation of the fifth age, that poet deplores not only the absence of all social justice and sense of obligation among his contemporaries, but also the relaxation of the ties of family and hospitality. There are marks of querulous exaggeration in the poem of the Works and Days; yet the author professes to de-

Homer's age than to the state of sentiment which Thucydides indicates as current in his day among the Greeks.

1 See the interesting beautiftness of Nestor, Iliad, xi. 670-700; also Odys. xxi. 18; Odys. iii. 71; Thucyd. i. 5.

2 Odys. iv. 165, among many other passages. Telemachus laments the misfortune of his race, in respect that himself, Odysseus, and Laertes were all only sons of their fathers; there were no brothers to serve as mutual auxiliaries (Odys. xvi. 118).

3 Opp. Di. 182-199—

Οδηγείς παράγεις ομιλίας, οδηγεί τι παιδών.
Οδηγείς ξένων ξενάγης, και έναίρων ξενοφόροι.
Οδηγείς θυσίας υπνός έρωτικός, κα τι παίρειν περι.
Αλλά τά γενέσιαν υπερήφανοι εκθέασαν, δεκ.
scribe the real state of things around him, and the features of his picture, soften them as we may, will still appear dark and calamitous. It is however to be remarked, that he contemplates a state of peace—thus forming a contrast with the Homeric poems. His copious catalogue of social evils scarcely mentions liability to plunder by a foreign enemy, nor does he compute the chances of predatory aggression as a source of profit.

There are two special veins of estimable sentiment, on which it may be interesting to contrast heroic and historical Greece, and which exhibit the latter as an improvement on the former not less in the affections than in the intellect.

The law of Athens was peculiarly watchful and provident with respect both to the persons and the property of orphan minors; but the description given in the Iliad of the utter and hopeless destitution of the orphan boy, despoiled of his paternal inheritance and abandoned by all the friends of his father, whom he urgently supplicates, and who all harshly cast him off, is one of the most pathetic morsels in the whole poem. In reference again to the treatment of the dead body of an enemy, we find all the Greek chiefs who come near (not to mention the conduct of Achilles himself) piercing with their spears the corpse of the slain Hectōr, while some of them even pass disgusting taunts upon it. We may add, from the lost epics, the mutilation of the dead bodies of Paris and Deiphobus

1 Iliad, xxiii. 487-500. Heant dwells upon injury to orphan children, however, as a heinous offence (Opp. Di. 330).
by the hand of Menelaus\(^1\). But at the time of the Persian invasion, it was regarded as unworthy of a right-minded Greek to maltreat in any way the dead body of an enemy, even where such a deed might seem to be justified on the plea of retaliation. After the battle of Platea, a proposition was made to the Spartan king Pausanias, to retaliate upon the dead body of Mardonius the indignities which Xerxes had heaped upon that of Leonidas at Thermopylae. He indignantly spurned the suggestion, not without a severe rebuke, or rather a half-suppressed menace, towards the proposer: and the feeling of Herodotus himself goes heartily along with him\(^6\).

The different manner of dealing with homicide presents a third test, perhaps more striking yet, of the change in Grecian feelings and manners during the three centuries preceding the Persian invasion. That which the murderer in the Homeric times had to dread, was, not public prosecution and punishment, but the personal vengeance of the kinsmen and friends of the deceased, who were stimulated by the keenest impulses of honour and obligation to

\(^1\) Iliad, xiii. 371. ोष द्वारा वा द्वारा अनुसरण ये नियमार्ती। Argument of Iliad Minor, 28. Bunte, Epp. Fragm. p. 17; Virgil, Æn. vi. 529.

Both Agamemnon and the Oiliad Ajax cut off the heads of slain warriors and sent them rolling like a ball or like a mortar among the crowd of warriors (Iliad, xi. 147; xii. 192).

The ethical maxim preached by Odysseus in the Odyssey, not to utter harmful shouts over a slain enemy (Οὐ δόξοι, σχόλια μου εἶναι διέφθερες εὐπροσδοκεῖσθαι, xii. 412), is abundantly violated in the Iliad.

\(^6\) Herodot. cr. 72, 73. Contrast this strong expression from Pausanias with the conduct of the Carthaginians towards the end of the Punic war, after their capture of Selinus in Sicily, where, after having put to death 16,000 persons, they mutilated the dead bodies—σαρκα τον πόλεμον ἔδωκαν (Diodor. xiii. 57-58).
avenge the deed, and were considered by the public as specially privileged to do so. To escape from this danger, he is obliged to flee the country, unless he can prevail upon the incensed kinsmen to accept of a valuable payment (we must not speak of coined money in the days of Homer) as satisfaction for their slain comrade. They may, if they please, decline the offer, and persist in their right of revenge; but if they accept, they are bound to leave the offender unmolested, and he accordingly remains at home without further consequences. The chiefs in agora do not seem to interfere, except to ensure payment of the stipulated sum.

Here we recognise once more the characteristic attribute of the Grecian heroic age—the omnipotence of private force tempered and guided by family sympathies, and the practical nullity of that collective sovereign afterwards called The City—who in historical Greece becomes the central and paramount source of obligation, but who appears yet only in the background, as a germ of promise for the future. And the manner in which, in the case of homicide, that germ was developed into a powerful reality, presents an interesting field of comparison with other nations.

For the practice, here designated, of leaving the party guilty of homicide to compromise by valua-

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1 The Mosaic law recognises this habit and duty on the part of the relatives of the murdered man, and provides cities of refuge for the purpose of sheltering the offender in certain cases (Deuteronom. xxxv. 13-14); Baur, Handbuch der Hebräischen Altershümer, sect. 51-52.

The relatives who inherited the property of a murdered man was specially obliged to avenge his death (H. Leo, Vorlesungen über die Geschichte des Jüdischen Staats.—Vorl. iii. p. 35).
ble payment with the relatives of the deceased, and also of allowing to the latter a free choice whether they would accept such compromise or enforce their right of personal revenge—has been remarked in many rude communities, but is particularly memorable among the early German tribes. Among the many separate Teutonic establishments which rose upon the ruins of the Western Empire of Rome, the right as well as duty of private revenge, for personal injury or insult offered to any member of a family—and the endeavour to avert its effects by means of a pecuniary composition levied upon the offender, chiefly as satisfaction to the party in-


"An Indian feast (says Leskie, Mission of the United Brethren in North America) is seldom concluded without bloodshed. For the murder of a man 100 yards of wampum, and for that of a woman 200 yards, must be paid by the murderer. If he is too poor, which is commonly the case, and his friends cannot or will not assist him, he must fly from the resentment of the relations."

Rogge (Gerichtswesen der Germanen, capp. 1, 2, 3), Grimm (Deutsche Rechtsalterthumer, book v. cap. 1-2), and Richhorm (Deutsches Privat-Recht, sect. 48) have expounded this idea and the consequences deduced from it among the ancient Germans.

Aristotle alludes, as an illustration of the extreme silliness of ancient Greek practices (καλαυο ραστας), to a custom which he states to have still continued at the Æolos Kynô, in cases of murder. If the accused produced in support of his charge a certain number of witnesses from his own kindred, the person was held peremptorily guilty—ἐν ου ἐστι Κύνω τα φᾶκες τὸν κυνό, ἐν τοις τῷ αὐτοῖς μαργραφεῖ ἀνθρώπα τῷ θεῷ τὸ τάρσα τοι φᾶκες τῷ στυγματος, ἐν τοῖς τῷ φᾶκες τῷ κύνω θεῷ. (Polit. ii. 5, 12). This presents a curious parallel with the old German institution of the Eides-hefeters or foedematers, who, though most frequently required and produced in support of the party accused, were yet also brought by the party accusing. See Rogge, sect. 36, p. 186; Grimm, p. 362.
jured, but partly also as perquisite to the king—was adopted as the basis of their legislation. This fundamental idea was worked out in elaborate detail as to the valuation of the injury inflicted, wherein one main circumstance was the rank, condition and power of the sufferer. The object of the legislator was to preserve the society from standing feuds, but at the same time to accord such full satisfaction as would induce the injured person to waive his acknowledged right of personal revenge—the full luxury of which, as it presented itself to the mind of an Homeric Greek, may be read in more than one passage of the Iliad. The German codes begin by trying to bring about the

1 The word σωρή indicates this satisfaction by valuable payment for wrong done, especially for homicide: that the Latin word pæna originally meant the same thing may be inferred from the old phrase dare pænas, precander pænas. The most illustrative passage in the Iliad is that in which Ajax, in the embassy undertaken to conciliate Achilles, remonstrates by comparison the inexpressible obstinacy of the latter in setting at naught the preferred presents of Agamemnon (II. ix. 627):—

Ναίει μαν το τον ανθρεντιάν τον κοινον.
Παινοε συν τον απελεκτινον τετράκοδον
Και ἂν μοι ἐν δόμοι μετα αύτοις, ἐκάλ μαζίς ἢ μεταίστησιν.
Τοι δέ τ' ἐπρεπον προθεν και δέμοι δρομος.
Παινοε δεκαμιξεσι ἐπιστα..

The σωρή, is in its primitive sense a genuine payment in valuable commodities serving as compensation (Iliad, iii. 290; v. 296; xiii. 659), but it comes by a natural metaphor to signify the death of one or more Trojans, as a satisfaction for that of a Greek warrior who had just fallen (see note on, Iliad, xiv. 483; xvi. 628), sometimes even the notion of compensation generally (xvii. 297). In the representation of the shield of Achilles, the genuine proceeding about σωρή clearly appears: the question there tried is, whether the payment stipulated as satisfaction for a person slain, has really been made or not—Σωρή ἐκείστε ἐκεῖνος μόνος ἀνθρώπος ἄρσου ἀνθρώπων, &c. (xviii. 498).

The danger of an act of homicide is proportioned to the number and power of the surviving relatives of the slain; but even a small number is sufficient to necessitate flight (Odysse. xxii. 129); on the other hand,
acceptance of a fixed pecuniary composition as a constant voluntary custom, and proceed ultimately to enforce it as a peremptory necessity: the idea of society is at first altogether subordinate, and its influence passes only by slow degrees from amicable arbitration into imperative control.

The Homeric society, in regard to this capital point in human progression, is on a level with that of the German tribes as described by Tacitus. But the subsequent course of Grecian legislation takes a direction completely different from that of the German codes: the primitive and acknowledged right of private revenge (unless where bought off by pecuniary payment), instead of being developed into practical working, is superseded by more comprehensive views of a public wrong requiring public intervention, or by religious fears respecting the posthumous wrath of the murdered person. In historical Athens, this right of private revenge was discomteamed and put out of sight, even so early as the Drakonian legislation, and at last restricted to a few extreme and special cases; while the

a large body of relatives was the grand source of encouragement to an insolent criminal (Odys. xvin. 141).

An old law of Tralles in Lydia, enjoining a nominal accomplish of a medium of beasts to the relatives of a murdered person belonging to a contemptible class of citizens, is noticed by Plutarch, Quast. Græc. c. 46. p. 302. Even in the century preceding Herodotus, too, the Delphians gave a small as satisfaction for the murder of the fabulist Esop, which was claimed and received by the grandson of Esop's master (Herodot. ii. 134. Plutarch, Scrip. Num. Vind. p. 556).

1 See Lysias, De Caso Elenosothen. Orat. i. p. 94; Plutarch, Solon, c. 29; Demosthen. cont. Aristokrat. p. 632-637.

Plato (De Legg. x. p. 571-574), in his copious penal suggestions to deal with homicide, both intentional and accidental, concurs in general with the old Attic law (see Matthiae, Miscellanea Philologica, vol. i.)

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murderer came to be considered, first as having sinned against the gods, next as having deeply injured the society, and thus at once as requiring absolution and deserving punishment. On the first of these two grounds, he is interdicted from the agora and from all holy places, as well as from public functions, even while yet untried and simply a suspected person; for if this were not done, the wrath of the gods would manifest itself in bad crops and other national calamities. On the second ground, he is tried before the council of Areiopagus, and if found guilty, is condemned to death, or perhaps to disfranchisement and banishment. The

p. 131); and as he states with sufficient distinctness the grounds of his propositions, we see how completely the idea of a right to private or family revenge is absent from his mind. In one particular case, he confers upon kinsmen the privilege of avenging their murdered relative (p. 871), but generally, he rather seeks to enforce upon them strictly the duty of bringing the suspected murderer to trial before the court. By the Attic law, it was only the kinsmen of the deceased who had the right of prosecuting for murder—or the master, if the deceased was an overseer (Demosthen. cont. Eupher. at Meleag. c. 18); they might by forgiveness shorten the term of banishment for the unintentional murderer (Demosth. cont. Mak. p. 1059). They seem to have been regarded, generally speaking, as religiously obliged, but not legally compulsory, to undertake this duty; compare Plato, Euthyphro, cap. 4 & 5.

Lysias, cont. Agost. Or. xii. p. 137; Antiphon. Tetralog. 1, p. 629. "Ἀντίμορφος δ' έκ των εκτυπών, μηδέν τοι διάγον ἄνω, ἢ τί τεμαί τινος δια ζημίαν μαθημεν τις τοιχειαν άλλων, οὐτα δι' αυτά προσέξατο ἀλλα συγκαταπηχόμενον τοις διαμαντος ἐκ γορ τοιιϊν απ' τι ἀφομοιούς γένεσιν, δινεγίκοε ἡ αποδίδομι συμβασιν των." The three Tetralogies of Antiphon are all very instructive respecting the legal procedure in cases of alleged homicide; also the Orat. De Circ. Herod. (see cap. 1 and 2)—τοιχέων άξιον, τοιχέων διαμαντος, ἵππων.

The case of the Spartan Drakonius, one of the Ten Thousand Greeks who served with Cyrus the younger, and permanently settled in his country in consequence of an involuntary murder committed during his boyhood, presents a pretty exact parallel to the fatal quarrel of Patroklos at dice, when a boy, with the son of Amphidamas, in consequence
idea of a propitiatory payment to the relatives of
the deceased has ceased altogether to be admitted:
it is the protection of society which dictates, and
the force of society which inflicts, a measure of
punishment calculated to deter for the future.

3. The society of legendary Greece includes, be-
sides the chiefs, the general mass of freemen (λοι),
among whom stand out by special names certain
professional men, such as the carpenter, the smith,
the leather-dresser, the leech, the prophet, the bard,
and the fisherman. We have no means of appreci-
ciating their condition. Though lots of arable land
were assigned in special property to individuals,
with boundaries both carefully marked and jealously
watched, yet the larger proportion of surface was
devoted to pasture. Cattle formed both the chief
term in the substance of a wealthy man, the chief
of which he was forced to seek shelter under the roof of 

Pilatus (compare Iliad, xxiii. 86, with Xenoph. Anab., iv. 9, 25).

4. Odyssey. xvi. 394; xix. 135. Iliad, iv. 187; vii. 221. I know nothing which better illustrates the idea of the Homeric ἐρατοτεμλτα—the herald, the prophet, the carpenter, the leech, the bard, &c.—than the following description of the structure of an East Indian village (Mill's History of British India, b. ii. c. 5, p. 261): "A village politically considered resembles a corporation or township. Its proper establishment of officers and servants consists of the following descriptions:—The potman, or head inhabitant, who settles disputes and collects the revenue, &c.; the herdsman, who keeps the accounts of cultivation, &c.; the tailor; the boundary-cast; the superintendent of tanks and water-courses; the Brahman, who performs the village worship; the schoolmaster; the calendar Brahman, or astrologer, who proclaims the lucky or unpropitious periods for sowing or threshing; the smith and carpenter; the potter; the washerman; the barber; the cookeeper; the doctor; the dancing-girl, who attends at rejoicings; the musician and the poet."

Each of these officers and servants (ἐρατοτεμλτα) is remunerated by a definite pecuniary—so much landed produce—out of the general crop of the village (p. 264).

5. Iliad, xi. 421; xx. 405.
means of making payments, and the common ground of quarrels—bread and meat, in large quantities, being the constant food of every one\(^1\). The estates of the owners were tilled, and their cattle tended, mostly by bought slaves, but to a certain degree also by poor freemen called Thêtes, working for hire and for stated periods. The principal slaves, who were entrusted with the care of large herds of oxen, swine, or goats, were of necessity men worthy of confidence, their duties placing them away from their master's immediate eye\(^2\). They had other slaves subordinate to them, and appear to have been well-treated: the deep and unshaken attachment of Eumæus the swineherd and Philoetius the herdsman to the family and affairs of the absent Odysseus, is among the most interesting points in the ancient epic. Slavery was a calamity, which in that period of insecurity might befall any one: the chief who conducted a freebooting expedition, if he succeeded, brought back with him a numerous troop of slaves, as many as he could seize\(^3\)—if he failed, became very likely a slave himself: so that the slave was often by birth of equal dignity with his master—Eumæus was himself the son of a chief, conveyed away when a child by his nurse, and

\(^1\) Iliad, i. 155; ix. 154; xiv. 122.

\(^2\) Odysseus and other chiefs of Ithaca had oxen, sheep, mules, &c., on the continent and in Peloponnesus, under the care of herdsman (Odys. ii. 636; xiv. 160).

\(^3\) Lankamar, king of Bosporus, asks the Scythian Arachates—"Πόνα σε Σευκαντίος, ἂ πόνα σήμερα ἔχεις, μάρτυς γῆς ἑαυτῆς ἀλογίστι;" (Lukan. Tacitus, c. 40.) The enumeration of the property of Odysseus would have placed the Socræum in the front line.
sold by Phoenician kidnappers to Laërtès. A slave of this character, if he conducted himself well, might often expect to be enfranchised by his master and placed in an independent holding.

On the whole, the slavery of legendary Greece does not present itself as existing under a peculiarly harsh form, especially if we consider that all the classes of society were then very much upon a level in point of taste, sentiment, and instruction. In the absence of legal security or an effective social sanction, it is probable that the condition of a slave under an average master may have been as good as that of the free Thête. The class of slaves whose lot appears to have been the most pitiable were the females — more numerous than the males, and performing the principal work in the interior of the house. Not only do they seem to have been more harshly treated than the males, but they were charged with the hardest and most exhausting labour which the establishment of a Greek chief required — they brought in water from the spring, and turned by hand the house-mills, which ground the large quantity of flour consumed in his family. This oppressive task was performed gene-

1 Odys. xiv. 61) xv. 419; see also xix. 78. Eurykles was also of dignified birth (i. 429). The questions put by Odysseus to Eumenes, to which the speech above referred to is an answer, indicate the proximate causes of slavery: "Was the city of your father sacked? or were you seized by pirates when alone with your sheep and oxen?" (Odys. xv. 385).

Eumenes had purchased a slave for himself (Odys. xiv. 448).


3 Odys. vii. 194; xx. 116. Ibid. vi. 457; compare the Book of Genesis, ch. xi. 5. The expression of Telemaclus, when he is proceed-
rally by female slaves, in historical as well as in legendary Greece. Spinning and weaving was the constant occupation of women, whether free or slave, of every rank and station: all the garments worn both by men and women were fashioned at home, and Helen as well as Penelope is expert and assiduous at the occupation. The daughters of Keleos at Eleusis go to the well with their basins for water, and Nausikan daughter of Alkinous joins her female slaves in the business of washing her garments in the river. If we are obliged to point out the fierceness and insecurity of an early society, we may at the same time note with pleasure its characteristic simplicity of manners: Rebecca, Rachel, and the daughters of Jethro in the

Mη μὴ ἔχω μήτε ἡμέραν ἡμέραν ἡμέραν Ὑμῆρον
Tēm, &c. (Odys. xii. 464.)

The humble establishment of Hesiod's farmer does not possess a mill; he has nothing better than a wooden pestle and mortar for grinding or bruising the corn; both are constructed, and the wood cut from the trees, by his own hand (Opp. Th. 423), though it seems that a professional carpenter ("the servant of Athene") is required to put together the plough (v. 430). The Virgilian poem Moretus (v. 24) assigns a hand-mill even to the humblest rural establishment. The instructive article "Corn Mills" in Beckmann's Hist. of Inventions (vol. 1, p. 227, Eng. transl.) collects all the information available about this subject.

1 See Lysias, Or. 1. p. 85 (De Cade Eratothetia). Plutarch (Nauropis anavites vici ascensum Epicurum, v. 21, p. 1101)—Παχυσάλας ἄλερπα προς μῷον αὐτήν—'and Kalimachus (Hymn ad Deum, 242)—νῦν ἂδικα διδυμα νευρόεις αὐτής—notice the overworked condition of these women.

The "grinding slaves" (Arripides) are expressly named in one of the Laws of Ethelbert king of Kent, and constitute the second class in point of value among the female slaves (Law xi. Thurne's Ancient Laws and Institutes of England, vol. 1, p. 7).

2 Odys. iv. 191; xix. 295.

3 Odys. vi. 96; Hymn. ad Demetr. 105.
early Mosaic narrative, as well as the wife of the native Macedonian chief [with whom the Temenid Perdicas, ancestor of Philip and Alexander, first took service on retiring from Argos] baking her own cakes on the hearth, exhibit a parallel in this respect to the Homeric pictures.

We obtain no particulars respecting either the Thetes, common freemen generally, or the particular class of them called Thetes. These latter, engaged for special jobs, or at the harvest and other busy seasons of field labour, seem to have given their labour in exchange for board and clothing; they are mentioned in the same line with the slaves, and were (as has been just observed) probably on the whole little better off. The condition of a poor freeman in those days, without a lot of land of his own, going about from one temporary job to another, and having no powerful family and no social authority to look up to for protection, must have been sufficiently miserable. When Eumæus indulged his expectation of being manumitted by his masters, he thought at the same time that they would give him a wife, a house, and a lot of land, near to themselves; without which collateral advantages, simple manumission might perhaps have been no improvement in his condition. To be Thete in the service of a very poor farmer is selected by Achilles as the maximum of human hardship: such a person could not give to his Thete the same ample food, and good shoes and clothing, as the wealthy chief Eurymachus, while he would

1. Herodot. viii. 137. 2. Odyssey, xiv. 643. 3. Odyssey, xiv. 64.
exact more severe labour. It was probably among such smaller occupants, who could not advance the price necessary to purchase slaves, and were glad to save the cost of keep when they did not need service, that the Thetes found employment: though we may conclude that the brave and strong amongst these poor freemen found it preferable to accompany some freebooting chief and to live by the plunder acquired. The exact Hesiod advises his farmer, whose work is chiefly performed by slaves, to employ and maintain the Thete during summertime, but to dismiss him as soon as the harvest is completely got in, and then to take into his house for the winter a woman "without any child," who would of course be more useful than the Thete for the indoor occupations of that season.

1 Compare Odyssey xi. 490, with viii. 358. Klytemnestra, in the Agamemnon of Eschylus, preaches a something similar doctrine to Cassandra,—how much hinder the προδεθέαυς δασαρεις were towards their slaves, than masters who had risen by unexpected prosperity (Agamemnon 1942).

2 Thucyd. i. 5. οὔτως γε προς ἀλήθειαν, ἤγομενοι δεδομένοι τοις ὀδοντωταῖς, τίθεμεν τοις κρατικῶς στήσας ἐνεκα, καὶ τοῖς ἀθηναίοις τροφῆς.

3 Hesiod, Opp. Di. 452—"οἴημενθένα ἡμῖν ἴκες τοι εἰμίτοι καὶ ἁμπδος—
and 903:—

The two words δωκες παιδεὸν seem here to be taken together in the sense of "dismiss the Thete," or "make him homeless"; for when put out of his employer’s house, he had no residence of his own. Götting (ad loc.), Nitschel (ad Odyssey ix. 643), and Lehre (Quast. Epic. p. 205) all construe δωκες with θυρα, and represent Hesiod as advising that the homeless Thete should be at that moment taken on, just at the time when the summer’s work was finished. Lehre (and seemingly Götting also), sensible that this can never have been the real meaning
In a state of society such as that which we have been describing, Grecian commerce was necessarily trifling and restricted. The Homeric poems mark either total ignorance or great vagueness of apprehension respecting all that lies beyond the coasts of Greece and Asia Minor and the islands between or adjoining them. Libya and Egypt are supposed so distant as to be known only by name and hearsay: indeed when the city of Kyrene was founded, a century and a half after the first Olympiad, it was difficult to find anywhere a Greek navigator who had ever visited the coast of Libya, or was fit to serve as guide to the colonists. The mention of the Sikels in the Odyssey leads us to conclude that Korkyra, Italy and Sicily were not wholly unknown to the poet; among seafaring Greeks, the knowledge of the latter implied the knowledge of the two former—since the habitual track, even of a well-equipped Athenian trireme during the Peloponnesian war, from Peloponnesus to Sicily, was by Korkyra and the Gulf of Tarentum.

I may remark further that the translation of the given by Goetling—nulius—is inappropriate: it includes the idea of superintendence over other labourers, which does not seem to have belonged to the Thers in any case.

There were a class of poor free-women who made their living by taking in wool to spin and perhaps to weave: the exactness of their dealing as well as the poor profit which they made, are attested by a touching Homeric simile (Iliad, xiii, 434). See Iliad, vi, 286; xxiii, 742. Odysseus, xv, 414.

1 Herodotus, iv, 151. Compare Uckert, Geographie der Griechen und Römer, part i, p. 16-19.

2 Odyssey, xx, 383—xxiv, 210. The identity of the Homeric Scheria with Korkyra, and that of the Homeric Thrinakia with Sicily, appear to me not at all made out. Both Weicker and Khunen treat the Phaeacians as purely mythical persons (see W. C. Müller, De Coreysmorum Republica, Götting, 1835, p. 9).
The Phokleans, long afterwards, were the first Greeks who explored either the Adriatic or Tyrrhenian sea. Of the Euxine sea no knowledge is manifested in Homer, who, as a general rule, presents to us the names of distant regions only in connection with romantic or monstrous accompaniments. The Kretans, and still more the Taphians (who are supposed to have occupied the western islands off the coast of Akarnania), are mentioned as skilful mariners, and the Taphian Mentés professes to be conveying iron to Temesa to be there exchanged for copper; but both Taphians and Kretans are more corsairs than traders. The strong sense of the dangers of the sea, expressed by the poet Hesiod, and the imperfect structure of the early Grecian ship, attested by Thucydides (who points out the more recent date of that improved ship-building which prevailed in his time), concur to demonstrate the then narrow range of nautical enterprise.

Such was the state of the Greeks as traders at a time when Babylon combined a crowded and industrious population with extensive commerce, and when the Phoenician merchant ships visited in one direction the southern coast of Arabia, perhaps even the island of Ceylon—in another direction, the British islands.

1. Herodot. i. 163.
2. Nitsche, ad Odyss. i. 181; Strabo, i. p. 6. The situation of Temesa, whether it is to be placed in Italy or in Cyprus, has been a disputed point among critics both ancient and modern.
The Phœnician, the kinsman of the ancient Jew, exhibits the type of character belonging to the latter—with greater enterprise and ingenuity, and less of religious exclusiveness, yet still different from, and even antipathetic to, the character of the Greeks. In the Homeric poems, he appears somewhat like the Jew of the middle ages, a crafty trader turning to profit the violence and rapacity of others—bringing them ornaments, decorations, the finest and brightest products of the loom, gold, silver, electrum, ivory, tin, &c., in exchange for which he received landed produce, skins, wool, and slaves, the only commodities which even a wealthy Greek chief of those early times had to offer—prepared at the same time for dishonest gain, in any manner which chance might throw in his way. He is however really a trader, not undertaking expeditions with the deliberate purpose of surprise and plunder, and standing distinguished in this respect from the Tyrrenian,


Φοινικής άληθες ἡμερ. ἡσυχίας εἶχεν.
Τρόμης, διὶ θυελλὰ καὶ διηθνῶνες τάραξε.

The interesting narrative given by Eumenes, of the manner in which he fell into slavery, is a vivid picture of Phœnician dealing (compare Herodot. i. 2-4. Iliad, vi. 290, xxiii. 743). Paris is reported to have visited Sidon, and brought from thence women eminent for skill at the loom. The Cypryan Verses (see the Argument ap. Diucret, p. 17) affirmed that Paris had landed at Sidon, and attacked and captured the city. Taphian corsairs kidnapped slaves at Sidon (Odys. xxv. 424).

The ornaments or trinkets (ἀθημωνα) which the Phœnician merchant carries with him, seem to be the same as the δικλινα παλλα, Πάρης τε γενειας & θεος, &c., which Πάρης τε θεος was employed in fabricating (Iliad, xxiii. 400) under the protection of These.

Kretan, or Taphian pirate. Tin, ivory and electrum, all of which are acknowledged in the Homeric poems, were the fruit of Phoenician trade with the West as well as with the East.

Thucydides tells us that the Phoenicians and Karians, in very early periods, occupied many of the islands of the Ægean, and we know, from the striking remnant of their mining works which Herodotus himself saw in Thasus, off the coast of

Ivory is frequently mentioned in Homer, who uses the word ἄγκος exclusively to mean that substance, not to signify the animal.

The art of dyeing, especially with the various shades of purple, was in after-ages one of the special excellences of the Phoenicians: yet Homer, where he alludes in a simile to dyeing or staining, introduces a Messian or Karian woman as the performer of the process, not a Phoenician (Hud, v. 141).

What the electrum named in the Homeric poems really is cannot be positively determined. The word in antiquity meant two different things: 1. amber; 2. an impure gold, containing as much as one-fifth or more of silver (Piny, H. N., xxiii. 4). The passages in which we read the word in the Odyssey do not positively exclude either of these meanings; but they present to us electrum so much in juxtaposition with gold and silver each separately, that perhaps the second meaning is more probable than the first. Herodotus understands it to mean amber (lit. 115): Sophokles, on the contrary, employs it to designate a metal akin to gold (Antigone, 1033).

See the dissertation of Bürmann, appended to his collection of essays called Methodes, vol. ii. p. 337; also Beckmann, History of Inventions, vol. iv. p. 12, Engl. Transl. "The ancients (observes the latter) used as a peculiar metal a mixture of gold and silver, because they were not acquainted with the art of separating them, and gave it the name of electrum." Dr. Thirlwall (Hist. of Greece, vol. i. p. 241) thinks that the Homeric electrum is amber; on the contrary, Bürmann thinks that it was a metallic substance (Hamcels, Geschichte der Griechen, p. 63-81).

Beckmann doubts whether the oldest saxo-cyprium of the Greeks was really tin: he rather thinks that it was "the smutum of the Romans, the weed of our smelting-houses,—that is, a mixture of lead, silver, and other accidental metals" (ibid. p. 20). The Greeks of Massalia procured tin from Britain, through Gaul, by the Seine, the Saone, and the Rhone (Diodor, v. 22).
Thrace, that they had once extracted gold from the mountains of that island—at a period indeed very far back, since their occupation must have been abandoned prior to the settlement of the poet Archilochus\(^1\). Yet few of the islands in the Ægean were rich in such valuable products, nor was it in the usual course of Phœnician proceeding to occupy islands, except where there was an adjoining mainland with which trade could be carried on. The traffic of these active mariners required no permanent settlement, but as occasional visitors they were convenient, in enabling a Greek chief to turn his captives to account,—to get rid of slaves or friendless Thêtes who were troublesome—and to supply himself with the metals, precious as well as useful\(^4\). The halls of Alkinous and Menelaus glitter with gold, copper and electrum; while large stocks of yet unemployed metal—gold, copper and iron—are stored up in the treasure-chamber of Odysseus and other chiefs\(^5\). Coined money is unknown to the Homeric age—the trade carried on being one of barter. In reference also to the metals, it deserves to be remarked that the Homeric descriptions universally suppose copper,
and not iron, to be employed for arms, both offensive and defensive. By what process the copper was tempered and hardened, so as to serve the purposes of the warrior, we do not know; but the use of iron for these objects belongs to a later age, though the Works and Days of Hesiod suppose this change to have been already introduced.

The mode of fighting among the Homeric heroes is not less different from the historical times, than the material of which their arms were composed.

1 See Millin, Minéralogie Hérmétique, p. 74. That there are, however, modes of tempering copper, so as to impart to it the hardness of steel, has been proved by the experiments of the Comte de Caylus.

The Masaques employed only copper—no iron—for their weapons (Herodot. i. 215).

Hesiod, Opp. l. 159—429. The examination of the various matters of antiquity discoverable throughout the north of Europe, as published by the Antiquarian Society of Copenhagen, recognises a distinction of three successive ages:—1. Implements and arms of stone, bone, wood, &c.; little or no use of metals at all; clothing made of skins. 2. Implements and arms of copper and gold, or rather bronze and gold; little or no silver or iron. Articles of gold and electrum are found belonging to this age, but none of silver, nor any evidences of writing. 3. The age which follows this has belonging to it arms of iron, articles of silver, and some Roman inscriptions; it is the last age of northern paganism, immediately preceding the introduction of Christianity (Lett. ius zur Nördischen Alterthumskunde, pp. 31, 57, 63, Copenhagen 1837).

The Homeric age coincides with the second of these two periods. Silver is comparatively little mentioned in Homer, while both bronze and gold are familiar metals. Iron also is rare, and seems employed only for agricultural purposes—ὅρμος τι, χαλάκει τι δακ., ὑφήγειν οἴνος (Iliad, vi. 48; Odyssey, iv. 538; xiii. 196). The χαλάκει and the χαλάτας are both mentioned in Homer, but works in silver and iron are not known by any special name (Odyssey, iv. 425—436).

"The hawks, trunche, plane, and level, are the tools mentioned by Homer, who appears to have been unacquainted with the saw, the square, and the compass." (Ullius, Hist. of Greece, chap. ii. p. 61.)

The Gauls, known to Polybius, seemingly the Cisalpine Gauls only, possessed all their property in cattle and gold—δραχμαὶ καὶ χρυσός—on account of the easy transportability of both (Polyb. ii. 17).
The Hoplites, or heavy-armed infantry of historical Greece, maintained a close order and well-dressed line, charging the enemy with their spears pretended at even distance, and coming thus to close conflict without breaking their rank: there were special troops, bowmen, slingers, &c. armed with missiles, but the hoplite had no weapon to employ in this manner. The heroes of the Iliad and Odyssey, on the contrary, habitually employ the spear as a missile, which they launch with tremendous force: each of them is mounted in his war-chariot drawn by two horses and calculated to contain the warrior and his charioteer; in which latter capacity a friend or comrade will sometimes consent to serve. Advancing in his chariot at full speed, in front of his own soldiers, he hurls his spear against the enemy: sometimes indeed he will fight on foot and hand to hand, but the chariot is usually near to receive him if he chooses, or to ensure his retreat. The mass of the Greeks and Trojans, coming forward to the charge, without any regular step or evenly-maintained line, make their attack in the same way by hurling their spears. Each chief wears habitually a long sword and a short dagger, besides his two spears to be launched forward—the spear being also used, if occasion serves, as a weapon for thrust. Every man is protected by shield, helmet, breastplate and greaves: but the armour of the chiefs is greatly superior to that of the common men, while they themselves are both stronger and more expert in the use of their weapons. There are a few bowmen, as rare exceptions, but the
general equipment and proceeding is as here described.

Such loose array, immortalised as it is in the Iliad, is familiar to every one; and the contrast which it presents, with those inflexible ranks and that irresistible simultaneous charge which bore down the Persian throng at Platæa and Kunaxa!, is such as to illustrate forcibly the general difference between heroic and historical Greece. While in the former, a few splendid figures stand forward, in prominent relief, the remainder being a mere unorganised and ineffective mass—in the latter, these units have been combined into a system, in which every man, officer and soldier, has his assigned place and duty, and the victory, when gained, is the joint work of all. Pre-eminent individual prowess is indeed materially abridged, if not wholly excluded—no man can do more than maintain his station in the line²: but on the other hand, the grand purposes, aggressive or defensive, for which alone arms are taken up, become more assured and

¹ Tyrtæus, in his military expressions, seems to conceive the Homeric mode of hurling the spear as still prevalent—ὅπερ δὲ εὐρίσκων ἑλλακτικος (Fragm. ix. Gaisford). Either he had his mind possessed with the Homeric array, or else the close order and compact spears of the hoplites had not yet been introduced during the second Messenian war.

Thiersch and Schmeidewin would substitute ἑλλακτικος in place of ἑλλακτικος. Euripides (Androm. 695) has a similar expression, yet it does not apply well to hoplites, for one of the virtues of the hoplite consisted in carrying his spear steadily: ἑξώπερ σκίτον betokens a disorderly march and the want of steady courage and self-possession. See the remarks of Brasidas upon the ranks of the Athenians under Kleisthenes at Amphiapolis (Thucyd. v. 6).

² Euripid. Andromach. 696.
easy, and long-sighted combinations of the general are rendered for the first time practicable, when he has a disciplined body of men to obey him. In tracing the picture of civil society, we have to remark a similar transition—we pass from Héraklès, Théseus, Jásôn, Achilles, to Solon, Pythagoras and Periklès—from "the shepherd of his people," (to use the phrase in which Homer depicts the good side of the Heroic king,) to the legislator who introduces, and the statesman who maintains, a preconcerted system by which willing citizens consent to bind themselves. If commanding individual talent is not always to be found, the whole community is so trained as to be able to maintain its course under inferior leaders; the rights as well as the duties of each citizen being predetermined in the social order, according to principles more or less wisely laid down. The contrast is similar, and the transition equally remarkable, in the civil as in the military picture. In fact, the military organization of the Grecian republics is an element of the greatest importance in respect to the conspicuous part which they have played in human affairs—their superiority over other contemporary nations in this respect being hardly less striking than it is in many others, as we shall have occasion to see in a subsequent stage of this history.

Even at the most advanced point of their tactics, the Greeks could effect little against a walled city, whilst the heroic weapons and array were still less available for such an undertaking as a siege. Fortifications are a feature of the age deserving considerable notice. There was a time, we are told,
in which the primitive Greek towns or villages derived a precarious security, not from their walls, but merely from sites lofty and difficult of access. They were not built immediately upon the shore, or close upon any convenient landing-place, but at some distance inland, on a rock or elevation which could not be approached without notice or scaled without difficulty. It was thought sufficient at that time to guard against piratical or marauding surprise; but as the state of society became assured—as the chance of sudden assault comparatively diminished and industry increased—these uninviting abodes were exchanged for more convenient sites on the plain or declivity beneath; or a portion of the latter was enclosed within larger boundaries and joined on to the original foundation, which thus became the Acropolis of the new town. Thébes, Athens, Argos, &c. belonged to the latter class of cities; but there were in many parts of Greece deserted sites on hill-tops, still retaining even in historical times the traces of former habitation, and some of them still bearing the name of the old towns. Among the mountainous parts of Krète, in Aégina and Rhodes, in portions of Mount Ida and Parnassus, similar remnants might be perceived.

1 "Ἡ παλαιὰ πόλις ἐν Αἰγίνα (Herodot. vi. 88) ἢ Αἰτνειάδας ἐν Σαιμίων (Polyb. l. 20. 2; Etym. Magm, v. Αἰτνειάδας) it became seemingly the acropolis of the subsequent city.

About the deserted sites in the lofty regions of Krète, see Theophrastus, De Ventis, i. 13, ed. Schmieder, p. 762.

The site of Πολύκερας in Mount Ida—Εὔανα Κάμιας ἐστιν ἐν πενεβραχίων τοῦ Πολύκερας (Strabo, xiii. p. 607); ἄριστα ὁ κοππύριον στεφάνων ἐξεντηθείς τοῦ τοῦ Σιδηρού μεταξεθεραμος. Paphos in Cyprus was the same distance below the ancient Pals-Paphos (Strabo, xiv. p. 680).

Near Mantinein in Arcadia was situated ἠρός ὁ τοῦ νεκροῦ τοῦ οἰκίσκου.
 Probably in such primitive hill villages, a continuous circle of wall would hardly be required as an additional means of defence, and would often be rendered very difficult by the rugged nature of the ground. But Thucydides represents the earliest Greeks—those whom he conceives anterior to the Trojan war—as living thus universally in unfortified villages chiefly on account of their poverty, rudeness, and thorough carelessness for the morrow. Oppressed and held apart from each other by perpetual fear, they had not yet contracted the sentiment of fixed abodes—they were unwilling even to plant fruit-trees because of the uncertainty of gathering the produce—and were always ready to dislodge, because there was nothing to gain by staying, and a bare subsistence might be had any where. He compares them to the mountaineers of Ætolia and of the Ozolian Lokris in his own time, who dwelt in their unfortified hill villages with little or no inter-communication, always armed and fighting, and subsisting on the produce of their cattle and their woods—clothed in undrest hides, and eating raw meat.

See Munnianus ἑαυτῷ τῆς θροάς καλέσας ὡς τῇ γάρδιν ὑπὸ ἑρύμων Πτολεμ (Pausan. viii. 12, 4). See a similar statement about the lofty sites of the ancient town of Orchomenus (in Arcadia) (Paus. viii. 13, 2), of Nauakris (viii. 17, 5), of Lusi (viii. 18, 3), Lykourgos in Parnassus (Paus. x. 6, 2; Strabo, ix. p. 418).

Compare also Plato, Legg. ii. 2, p. 678-679, who traces these lofty and craggy dwellings, general among the earliest Greek {p. 503} conurbations, to the commencement of human society after an extensive deluge, which had covered all the lower grounds and left only a few survivors.

1 Thucyd. 1. 2. οἰκεῖται τῷ τῆς Ἑλλάδος σιωπηρία, τῇ παῦλος βεβηλομένος εὐθὺς ἀφανισθῆναι, ἠλλὰ μετακινηθῆναι τε εἴσοδα τε ἐρήμων, καὶ μάλις ἐκκεντρικῷ τῆς οἰκίας ἀπολείποντες, θαυμάζομεν ὅτῳ ταῦτα ἐν ἐκλείψει τῆς ἐνὸς ἐπιστρώσας ὑπὸ ὦν ἐπεγένετο εἰς ἐπικύρων ἀλλότριος, εἰς ἑαυτῷ γὰρ εἴσο
The picture given by Thucydides, of these very early and unrecorded times, can only be taken as conjectural—the conjectures indeed of a statesman and a philosopher,—generalised too, in part, from the many particular instances of contention and expulsion of chiefs which he found in the old legendary poems. The Homeric poems, however, present to us a different picture. They recognise walled towns, fixed abodes, strong local attachments, hereditary individual property in land, vineyards planted and carefully cultivated, established temples of the gods, and splendid palaces of the chiefs. The description of Thucydides belongs to a lower form of society, and bears more analogy to that which the poet himself conceives as antiquated and barbarous—to the savage Cyclopes who dwell on the tops of mountains, in hollow caves, without the plough, without vine- or fruit-culture, without arts or instruments—or to the primitive settlement of Dorians and Lokrians, see Thucyd. iii. 94; Pausan. x. 38, 3; also of the Cisalpine Gauls, Polyb. ii. 17.

About the distant and unfortified villages and rude habits of the Etruscans and Lokrians, see Thucyd. iii. 94; Pausan. x. 38, 3: also of the Cisalpine Gauls, Polyb. ii. 17.

Both Thucydides and Aristotle seem to have conceived the Homeric period as mainly analogous to the βάρβαροι of their own day—Δόκεις δ’ Αριστοτέλεις λέγεις, οτι τοιαύτα ου λέγεις ὀμηροσ εἰς τότε ἕν τῷ τοσί τό πολεμίν ἀναταγε τοι τῷ τοις Σαρδάροις (Schol. Iliad. x. 151).

Odyss. vii. 10: respecting Nausithous, last king of the Phaeacians:

'Αρηίς δε τείχος ἔλατεν πολεί, καὶ δόμητοι οἰκεῖοι,
Καὶ νηρά ποιήσει θεῶν, καὶ ἔκκεντον ἄρομας.

The vineyard, olive-ground and garden of Laertes, is a model of careful cultivation (Odyss. xxiv. 245); see also the shield of Achilles (Iliad, xviii. 541–580), and the Kalydonian plain (Iliad, ix. 575).
danus, son of Zeus, on the higher ground of Ida, while it was reserved for his descendants and successors to found the holy Ilium on the plain. Ilium or Troy represents the perfection of Homeric society. It is a consecrated spot, containing temples of the gods as well as the palace of Priam, and surrounded by walls which are the fabric of the gods; while the antecedent form of ruder society, which the poet briefly glances at, is the parallel of that which the theory of Thucydides ascribes to his own early semi-barbarous ancestors.

Walled towns serve thus as one of the evidences, that a large part of the population of Greece had, even in the Homeric times, reached a level higher than that of the Ætolians and Lokrians of the days of Thucydides. The remains of Mykènae and Tiryns demonstrate the massy and Cyclopian style of architecture employed in those early days: but we may remark, that while modern observers seem inclined to treat the remains of the former as very imposing, and significant of a great princely family, Thucydides, on the contrary, speaks of it as a small place, and labours to elude the inference, which might be deduced from its insignificant size, in disproof of the grandeur of Agamemnon. Such fortifications supplied a means of defence incomparably superior to those of attack. Indeed even in historical Greece, and after the invention of battering-engines, no city could be taken except by surprise or blockade, or by ruining the country around, and thus depriving

1 Odyss. i. 108-115; Iliad, xx. 216.
2 Thucyd. i. 10. Καὶ ἔτι μὴ Μυκῆνας μεγάς ἦσα, ἢ ἐκ τῶν τῶν ψαλλόντων δεξαμενοῦ ἄρα τὸν παλαιόν δοξών, κτλ.
the inhabitants of their means of subsistence. And in the two great sieges of the legendary time, Troy and Thebes, the former is captured by the stratagem of the wooden horse, while the latter is evacuated by its citizens, under the warning of the gods, after their defeat in the field.

This decided superiority of the means of defence over those of attack, in rude ages, has been one of the grand promotive causes both of the growth of civic life, and of the general march of human improvement. It has enabled the progressive portions of mankind not only to maintain their acquisitions against the predatory instincts of the ruder and poorer, and to surmount the difficulties of incipient organisation,—but ultimately, when their organisation has been matured, both to acquire predominance, and to uphold it until their own disciplined habits have in part passed to their enemies. The important truth here stated is illustrated not less by the history of ancient Greece, than by that of modern Europe during the middle ages. The Homeric chief, combining superior rank with superior force, and ready to rob at every convenient opportunity, greatly resembles the feudal baron of the middle ages, but circumstances absorb him more easily into a city life, and convert the independent potentate into the member of a governing aristocracy¹. Traffic by sea continued to be beset with

¹ Nägelsbach, Homerische Thologie, Abschn. v. sect. 54. Hesiod strangely condemns robbery—Δῶς ὑπακόη, δῶμη τα κακά, διαμισθήσεσθαι (Opp. Di. 266; comp. 520), but the sentiment of the Greek heroic poetry, seems not to go against it—it is looked upon as a natural employment of superior force—Ἄξιον εἰς ὑπακοὴ διαμιθήσεσθαι ἔστε διστάτεσθαι ἄρεις (Athenae. v. p. 178; comp. Pindar, Fragm. 46, ed. Dassau), the
danger from pirates, long after it had become tolerably assured by land: the "wet ways" have always been the last resort of lawlessness and violence, and

long spear, sword, and breastplate, of the Kretan Hybræus, constitute his wealth (Skolion 27, p. 877; Poet. Lyric. ed. Bergk), wherewith he ploughs and reaps—while the unwarlike, who dare not or cannot wield these weapons, fall at his feet, and call him The Great King. The feeling is different in the later age of Demétrius Poliorcétês (about 310 B.C.); in the Ibyphallic Ode addressed to him at his entrance into Athens, robbery is treated as worthy only of Attianas:—

Αὐτὸλοιχὴ γὰρ ἄριστοι τοῦ τῶν πέλαγος,
Νομίζει δὲ, καὶ ταῖς διοργαῖ.—

(Poet. Lyric. xxv. p. 453, ed. Schneid.)

The robberies of powerful men, and even highway robbery generally, found considerable approval in the middle ages. "All Europe (observes Mr. Hallam, Hist. Mid. Age, ch. viii. part 3, p. 317) was a scene of intestine anarchy during the middle ages—and though England was far less exposed to the scourgé of private war than most nations on the continent, we should find, could we recover the local annals of every country, such an accumulation of petty outrage and tumult, as would almost alienate us from the liberty which served to engender it. . . . Highway robbery was from the earliest times a sort of national crime. . . . We know how long the outlaws of Sherwood lived in tradition; men who, like some of their better, have been permitted to redeem by a few acts of generosity the just ignominy of extensive crimes. These indeed were the heroes of vulgar applause; but when such a judge as Sir John Fortescue could exult, that more Englishmen were hanged for robbery in one year than French in seven—and that, if an Englishman be poor, and see another having riches, which may be taken from him by might, he will not spare to do so,—it may be perceived how thoroughly these sentiments had pervaded the public mind."

The robberies habitually committed by the noblesse of France and Germany during the middle ages, so much worse than any thing in England—and those of the Highland chiefs even in later times—are too well-known to need any references: as to France, an ample catalogue is set forth in Dulaure's Histoire de la Noblesse (Paris, 1792). The confederations of the German cities chiefly originated in the necessity of keeping the roads and rivers open for the transit of men and goods against the nobles who infested the high roads: Scaliger might have found a parallel to the aperél of the heroic ages in the noblesse de la Rouergue as it stood even in the 16th century, which he thus describes:—"In Comitatu Rodz peusani sunt; nobilitas hic lamentatur: nec possunt reprimi" (ap. Dulaure, c. 9).
the Ægean in particular has in all times suffered more than other waters under this calamity.

Aggressions of this sort here described were of course most numerous in those earliest times when the Ægean was not yet an Hellenic sea, and when many of the Cyclades were occupied, not by Greeks, but by Karians—perhaps by Phœnicians: the number of Karian sepulchres discovered in the sacred island of Delos seems to attest such occupation as an historical fact. According to the legendary account, espoused both by Herodotus and by Thucydides, it was the Kretan Minōs who subdued these islands and established his sons as rulers in them; either expelling the Karians, or reducing them to servitude and tribute. Thucydides presumes that he must of course have put down piracy, in order to enable his tribute to be remitted in safety, like the Athenians during the time of their hegemony. Upon the legendary thalassocracy of Minōs I have already remarked in another place: it is sufficient here to repeat, that in the Homeric poems (long subsequent to Minōs in the current chronology) we find piracy both frequent and held in honourable estimation, as Thucydides himself emphatically tells us— remarking moreover that the vessels of those early days were only half-decked, built and equipped

1 Thucyd. i. 4-8, τῇ τῶν Ἑλληνικῶν δυνάμει.
2 Herodot. i. 171. Thucyd. i. 4-8. Iakratos (Panathenics, p. 241) takes credit to Athens for having finally expelled the Karians out of these islands at the time of the Ionic emigration.
3 Thucyd. i. 4. τῇ δὲ ἀρχῆς ὡς εἰκὼνόμον ἡ τῆς δυνάμεις τῆς ἔστω ἀλάσκοντο, τού τῶν προσδέχοντα μᾶλλον ἕναν ἀνήρ.
4 See the preceding volume of this History, chap. xii. p. 310.
after the piratical fashion¹, in a manner upon which the nautical men of his time looked back with disdain. Improved and enlarged ship-building, and the trireme, or ship with three banks of oars, common for warlike purposes during the Persian invasion, began only with the growing skill, activity and importance of the Corinthians, three quarters of a century after the first Olympiad². Corinth, even in the Homeric poems, is distinguished by the epithet of wealthy, which it acquired principally from its remarkable situation on the Isthmus, and from its two harbours of Lechaem and Kenchreæ, the one on the Corinthian, the other on the Sarónic gulf. It thus supplied a convenient connection between Epirus and Italy on the one side, and the Ægean sea on the other, without imposing upon the unskillful and timid navigator of those days the necessity of circumnavigating Peloponnésus.

The extension of Grecian traffic and shipping is manifested by a comparison of the Homeric with the Hesiodic poems; in respect to knowledge of places and countries—the latter being probably referable to dates between n.c. 740 and n.c. 640. In Homer, acquaintance is shown (the accuracy of such acquaintance however being exaggerated by Strabo and other friendly critics) with continental Greece and its neighbouring islands, with Krête and the principal islands of the Ægean, and with Thrace, the Troad, the Hellespont, and Asia Minor between Paphlagonia northward and Lykia south-

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¹ Thucyd. i. 10. ἡ παλαιότερη ἄνθρωπος νηματικοποίησαν.
² Thucyd. i. 13.
ward. The Sikels are mentioned in the Odyssey, and Sikania in the last book of that poem, but nothing is said to evince a knowledge of Italy or the realities of the western world. Libya, Egypt, and Phœnike, are known by name and by vague hearsay, but the Nile is only mentioned as "the river Egypt," while the Euxine sea is not mentioned at all. In the Hesiodic poems, on the other hand, the Nile, the Ister, the Phasis and the Eridanus, are all specified by name; Mount Ætna, and the island of Ortygia near to Syracuse, the Tyrrhenians and Ligurians in the west, and the Scythians in the north, were also noticed. Indeed within forty years after the first Olympic, the cities of Korkyra and Syracuse were founded from Corinth—the first of a numerous and powerful series of colonies, destined to impart a new character both to the south of Italy and to Sicily.

In reference to the astronomy and physics of the Homeric Greek, it has already been remarked that he connected together the sensible phenomena which form the subject matter of these sciences by threads of religious and personifying fancy, to which the real analogies among them were made subordi-

1 See Vosdekar, Homcrichc Geographie, ch. iii. sect. 55-63. He has brought to bear much learning and ingenuity to identify the places visited by Odysseus with real lands, but the attempt is not successful. Compare also Ucker, Hom. Geog. vol. i. p. 14, and the valuable treatises of J. H. Voss, Alte Weltkunde, appended to the second volume of his Kritisclh Blatter (Stuttgart, 1828), pp. 245-413. Voss is the father of just views respecting Homeric geography.

nate; and that these analogies did not begin to be studied by themselves, apart from the religious element by which they had been at first overlaid, until the age of Thales,—coinciding as that period did with the increased opportunities for visiting Egypt and the interior of Asia. The Greeks obtained access in both of these countries to an enlarged stock of astronomical observations, to the use of the gnomon or sun-dial, and to a more exact determination of the length of the solar year than

1 The Greeks learnt from the Babylonians νόλος καὶ γραμός καὶ τα
δωδεκάμενον μέρος τῆς ἡμέρας (Herodot. ii. 109). In my first edition I
had interpreted the word νόλος in Herodorus erroneously. I now be-
lieve it to mean the same as horologium, the circular plate upon which
the vertical gnomon projected its shadow, marked so as to indicate the
hour of the day—twelve hours between sunrise and sunset: see Idehr,
Handbuch der Chronologie, vol. i. p. 233. Respecting the opinions of
Thales, see the same work, part ii. p. 18-57; Plutarchi de Placit. Philo-
sophor. ii. c. 12; Aristote. de Coelo, n. 13. Costard, Rise and Pro-
gress of Astronomy among the Ancients, p. 99.

2 We have very little information respecting the early Grecian mode
of computing time, and we know that though all the different states
computed by lunar periods, yet most, if not all, of them had different
names of months as well as different days of beginning and ending
their months. All their immediate computations however were made
by months: the lunar period was their immediate standard of reference
for determining their festivals and for other purposes, the solar period
being resorted to only as a corrective, to bring the same months con-
stantly into the same seasons of the year. Their original month had
thirty days, and was divided into three decades, as it continued to be
during the times of historical Athens (Hesiod. Opp. Dil. 766). In order
to bring this lunar period more nearly into harmony with the sun, they
intercalated every year an additional month: so that their years included
alternately twelve months and thirteen months, each month of thirty days.
This period was called a Dieteris—sometimes a Tristeris. Solon is said
to have first introduced the usage of months differing in length, varying
alternately from thirty to twenty-nine days. It appears however that
Herodotus had present to his mind the Dieteric cycle, or years alternat-
ing between thirteen months and twelve months (each month of thirty
days), and no other (Herodot. i. 32; compare ii. 104). As astrono-
metrical knowledge improved, longer and more elaborate periods were
that which served as the basis of their various lunar periods. It is pretended that Thales was the first who predicted an eclipse of the sun—not indeed accurately, but with large limits of error as to the time of its occurrence—and that he also possessed so profound an acquaintance with meteorological phenomena and probabilities, as to be able to foretell an abundant crop of olives for the coming year, and to realise a large sum of money by an olive speculation. From Thales downward we trace a succession of astronomical and physical theories, more or less successful, into which I do not intend here to enter: it is sufficient at present to contrast the father of the Ionic philosophy with the times preceding him, and to mark the first commencement of scientific prediction among the Greeks, however imperfect at the outset, as distinguished from the inspired dicta of prophets or oracles, and from those special signs of the purposes of the gods, which formed the habitual reliance of the Homeric man. We shall see these two modes of anticipating the future—one based upon the philosophical, the other calculated, exhibiting a nearer correspondence between an integral number of lunations and an integral number of solar years. First, we find a period of four years; next, the Octaeteris, or period of eight years, or seventy-nine lunar months; lastly, the Metonic period of nineteen years, or 235 lunar months. How far any of these larger periods were ever legally authorised or brought into civil usage even at Athens, is matter of much doubt. See Ideler, Uber die Astronomischen Bemerkungen der Alten, p. 175-195; Macrobius, Saturnal. i. 13.

1 Herodot. i. 74; Aristot. Polit. i. 4, 5.
2 Odysseus, iii. 173.

*μή τίποτα δή δεινον φαινει τίποτα αυτήρ εγγ' ημῶν
Δείξη, καὶ τίποτος πελάγος μένον εἰς Εσπάδων
Τύμπων, &c.*

Compare Odysseus, xx. 100; Iliad, i. 62; Eurip. Suppl. 215-230.
upon the religious appreciation of nature—running simultaneously on throughout Grecian history, and sharing between them in unequal portions the empire of the Greek mind; the former acquiring both greater predominance and wider application among the intellectual men, and partially restricting, but never abolishing, the spontaneous employment of the latter among the vulgar.

Neither coined money, nor the art of writing, nor painting, nor sculpture, nor imaginative architecture, belong to the Homeric and Hesiodic times. Such rudiments of arts, destined ultimately to acquire so great a development in Greece, as may have existed in these early days, served only as a sort of nucleus to the fancy of the poet, to shape out for himself the fabulous creations ascribed to Hephaestus or Daedalus. No statues of the gods, not even of wood, are mentioned in the Homeric poems. All the many varieties, in Grecian music, poetry and dancing—the former chiefly borrowed from Lydia and Phrygia—date from a period considerably later than the first Olympiad: Terpander, the earliest musician whose date is assigned, and the inventor of the harp with seven strings instead of that with four strings, does not come until the 26th Olympiad, or 676 B.C.; the poet Archilochus is nearly of the same date. The iambic and elegiac metres—the first deviations from the primitive epic strain and subject—do not reach up to the year 700 B.C.

1 The σύμφωνα λυρικ mentioned in Iliad, vi. 168, if they prove anything, are rather an evidence against, than for, the existence of alphabetical writing at the times when the Iliad was composed.
It is this epic poetry which forms at once both the undisputed prerogative and the solitary jewel of the earliest era of Greece. Of the many epic poems which existed in Greece during the eighth century before the Christian era, none have been preserved except the Iliad and Odyssey; the Æthiopias of Arktinus, the Ilias Minor of Lesches, the Cyprian Verses, the Capture of Æchalia, the Returns of the Heroes from Troy, the Thébaïs and the Epigoni—several of them passing in antiquity under the name of Homer—have all been lost. But the two which remain are quite sufficient to demonstrate in the primitive Greeks, a mental organisation unparalleled in any other people, and powers of invention and expression which prepared, as well as foreboded, the future eminence of the nation in all the various departments to which thought and language can be applied. Great as the power of thought afterwards became among the Greeks, their power of expression was still greater: in the former, other nations have built upon their foundations and surpassed them—in the latter they still remain unrivalled. It is not too much to say that this flexible, emphatic and transparent character of the language as an instrument of communication—its perfect aptitude for narrative and discussion, as well as for stirring all the veins of human emotion without ever forfeiting that character of simplicity which adapts it to all men and all times—may be traced mainly to the existence and the wide-spread influence of the Iliad and Odyssey. To us these compositions are interesting as beautiful poems, depicting life and manners, and
unfolding certain types of character, with the utmost vivacity and artlessness; to their original hearer, they possessed all those sources of attraction, together with others more powerful still, to which we are now strangers. Upon him they bore with the full weight and solemnity of history and religion combined, while the charm of the poetry was only secondary and instrumental. The poet was then the teacher and preacher of the community, not simply the amuser of their leisure hours: they looked to him for revelations of the unknown past and for expositions of the attributes and dispensations of the gods, just as they consulted the prophet for his privileged insight into the future. The ancient epic comprised many different poets and poetical compositions which fulfilled this purpose with more or less completeness: but it is the exclusive prerogative of the Iliad and Odyssey, that after the minds of men had ceased to be in full harmony with their original design, they yet retained their empire by the mere force of secondary excellences; while the remaining epics—though serving as food for the curious, and as storehouses for logographers, tragedians and artists—never seem to have acquired very wide popularity even among intellectual Greeks.

I shall, in the succeeding chapter, give some account of the epic cycle, of its relation to the Homeric poems, and of the general evidences respecting the latter, both as to antiquity and authorship.
CHAPTER XXI.

GREECEAN EPIC.—HOMERIC POEMS.

At the head of the once abundant epical compositions of Greece, most of them unfortunately lost, stand the Iliad and Odyssey, with the immortal name of Homer attached to each of them, embracing separate portions of the comprehensive legend of Troy. They form the type of what may be called the heroic epic of the Greeks, as distinguished from the genealogical, in which latter species some of the Hesiodic poems—the Catalogue of Women, the Eoiai, and the Naupaktia—stood conspicuous. Poems of the Homeric character (if so it may be called, though the expression is very indefinite)—being confined to one of the great events or great personages of Grecian legendary antiquity, and comprising a limited number of characters all contemporaneous—made some approach, more or less successful, to a certain poetical unity; while the Hesiodic poems, tamer in their spirit and unconfined both as to time and as to persons, strung together distinct events without any obvious view to concentration of interest—without legitimate beginning or end. Between these two extremes

1 Aristot. Poet. v. 17-37. He points out and explains the superior structure of the Iliad and Odyssey, as compared with the semi-Homeric and biographical poems; but he takes no notice of the Hesiodic or genealogical.
there were many gradations: biographical poems, such as the Herakleia or Theseis, recounting all the principal exploits performed by one single hero, present a character intermediate between the two, but bordering more closely on the Hesiodic. Even the hymns to the gods, which pass under the name of Homer, are epical fragments, narrating particular exploits or adventures of the god commemo-
rated.

Both the didactic and the mystico-religious poetry of Greece began in Hexameter verse—the characteristic and consecrated measure of the epic; but they belong to a different species, and burst out from a different vein in the Grecian mind. It seems to have been the more common belief among the historical Greeks that such mystic effusions were more ancient than their narrative poems, and that Orpheus, Musæus, Linus, Olên, Pamphius, and even Hesiod, &c. &c., the reputed composers of the former, were of earlier date than Homer. But there is no evidence to sustain this opinion, and the presumptions are all against it. Those compositions, which in the sixth century before the Christian era passed under the name of Orpheus and Musæus, seem to have been unquestionably post-Homeric; nor can we even admit the modified conclusion of Hermann, Ulrici, and others, that the mystic poetry as a genus (putting aside the particular compositions falsely ascribed to Orpheus and others) preceded in order of time the narrative.

1 Aristot. Poet. c. 41. He considers the Hexameter to be the natural measure of narrative poetry; any other would be unnatural.

2 Ulrici, Geschichte des Griechischen Epos, 5te Vorlesung, pp. 96-108.
Besides the Iliad and Odyssey, we make out the titles of about thirty lost epic poems, sometimes with a brief hint of their contents.

Concerning the legend of Troy there were five—the Cyprian Verses, the Æthiopis and the Capture of Troy, both ascribed to Arktinus; the lesser Iliad, ascribed to Leschés; the Returns (of the Heroes from Troy), to which the name of Hagias of Troezén is attached; and the Telegonia, by Eugammôn, a continuation of the Odyssey. Two poems—the Thebais and the Epigoni (perhaps two parts of one and the same poem) were devoted to the legend of Thèbes—the two sieges of that city by the Argeians. Another poem, called Ædipodia, had for its subject the tragical destiny of Ædipus and his family; and perhaps that which is cited as Eurôpia, or verses on Eurôpa, may have comprehended the tale of her brother Kadmus, the mythical founder of Thèbes.

The exploits of Héraklès were celebrated in two compositions, each called Hérakleia, by Kinæthôn and Pisander—probably also in many others of which the memory has not been preserved. The capture of Æchalia by Héraklès formed the subject of a separate epic. Two other poems, the Ægimius and the Minyas, are supposed to have been founded

G. Hermann, Ueber Homer und Sappho, in his Opuscula, tom. vi. p. 89.

The superior antiquity of Orpheus as compared with Homer passed as a received position to the classical Romans (Horat. Art. Poet. 392).

1 Respecting these last epics, see Düntzer, Collection of the Fragments Ephèr. Graecorum: Wallner, De Cyclo Epicó, p. 43-66; and Mr. Fynes Clinton's Chronology, vol. iii. p. 349-359.
on other achievements of this hero—the effective aid which he lent to the Dorian king Ægimius against the Lapithæ, his descent to the under-world for the purpose of rescuing the imprisoned Théseus, and his conquest of the city of the Minyæ, the powerful Orchomenus 1.

Other epic poems—the Phorônis, the Danaïs, the Alkmæonis, the Aththis, the Amazonia 2—we know only by name, and can just guess obscurely at their contents so far as the name indicates. The Titamachia, the Gigantomachia, and the Corinthiaca, three compositions all ascribed to Eumélos, afford by means of their titles an idea somewhat clearer of the matter which they comprised. The Theogony ascribed to Hesiod still exists, though partially corrupt and mutilated: but there seem to have been other poems, now lost, of the like import and title.

Of the poems composed in the Hesiodic style, diffusive and full of genealogical detail, the principal were, the Catalogue of Women and the Great Eoiai; the latter of which indeed seems to have been a continuation of the former. A large number of the celebrated women of heroic Greece were commemorated in these poems, one after the other, without any other than an arbitrary bond of connection.

1 Welcker, Der Epische Kyklus, p. 256—266; Apollod. ii. 7. 7; Diodor. iv. 37; O. Müller, Doriana, i. 28.

2 Welcker (Der Epische Kyklus, p. 209) considers the Alkmæonis as the same with the Epigoni, and the Aththis of Hegaiomous the same with the Amazonia: in Saullas (v. Ομήρος the latter is among the poems ascribed to Homer.

Lentzsch, (Thesäidæ Cyclois Reliquiae, p. 12—14) views the Thesæus and the Epigoni as different parts of the same poem.
The Marriage of Kéyx—the Melampodia—and a string of fables called Astronomia, are farther ascribed to Hesiod: and the poem above-mentioned, called Ægimius, is also sometimes connected with his name, sometimes with that of Kerkops. The Naupaktian Verses (so called probably from the birth-place of their author), and the genealogies of Kinethón and Asius, were compositions of the same rambling character, as far as we can judge from the scanty fragments remaining. The Orchomenian epic poet Chersias, of whom two lines only are preserved to us by Pausanias, may reasonably be referred to the same category.

The oldest of the epic poets, to whom any date, carrying with it the semblance of authority, is assigned, is Arktinus of Milétus, who is placed by Eusebius in the first Olympiad, and by Suidas in the ninth. Eugammon, the author of the Telegonia, and the latest of the catalogue, is placed in the fifty-third Olympiad, B.C. 566. Between these two we find Asius and Leschés, about the thirtieth Olympiad,—a time when the vein of the ancient epic was drying up, and when other forms of poetry—elegiac, iambic, lyric, and choric—had either already arisen, or were on the point of arising, to compete with it.

It has already been stated in a former chapter,
that in the early commencements of prose-writing, Hekatæus, Pherekydês, and other logographers, made it their business to extract from the ancient fables something like a continuous narrative chronologically arranged. It was upon a principle somewhat analogous that the Alexandrine literati, about the second century before the Christian æra\textsuperscript{1}, arranged the multitude of old epic poets into a series founded on the supposed order of time in the events narrated—beginning with the intermarriage of Uranus and Gaea, and the Theogony—and concluding with the death of Odysseus by the hands of his son Telegonius. This collection passed by the name of the Epic Cycle, and the poets, whose compositions were embodied in it, were termed Cyclic poets. Doubtless the epical treasures of the Alexandrine library were larger than had ever before been brought together and submitted to men both of learning and leisure; so that multiplication of such compositions in the same museum rendered it advisable to establish some fixed order of perusal, and

\textsuperscript{1} Perhaps Zenodotus, the superintendent of the Alexandrine library under Ptolemy Philadelphus, in the third century B.C.; there is a Scholia on Ptolemy, published not many years ago by Osann, and since more fully by Ritschel,—"Cæsus in commento Comediarum Aristophanie in Phile—Alexander, Rōlos, et Lycoforon Chalcidemik, et Zenodotus Ephesius, impultu regis Ptolemaei, Philadelphi cognomento, artis poeticae libris in unum conlegentur et in ordinem relegentur; Alexander tragodias, Lycoforon comedias, Zenodotus vero Homerorum poëmatum et reliquarum illinarum poetarum." See Lange, Ueber die Kyklichen Dichter, p. 56 (Mainz, 1837): Walcker, Der Epische Kyklus, p. 8; Ritschel, Die Alexandrinschen Bibliotheken, p. 3 (Breslau, 1838).

Lange disputes the sufficiency of this passage as proof that Zenodotus was the founder of the Epic Cycle; his grounds are however unsatisfactory to me.
to copy them in one corrected and uniform edition¹. It pleased the critics to determine precedence neither by antiquity nor by excellence of the compositions themselves, but by the supposed sequence of narrative, so that the whole taken together constituted a readable aggregate of epical antiquity.

Much obscurity² exists, and many different opinions have been expressed, respecting this Epic Cycle: I view it, not as an exclusive canon, but simply as an all-comprehensive classification, with a new edition founded thereupon. It would include all the epic poems in the library older than the Telegonia, and apt for continuous narrative: it would exclude only two classes—first, the recent epic poets, such as Panyasis and Antimachus; next, the genealogical and desultory poems, such as the Catalogue of Women, the Eoiai, and others, which could not be made to fit in to any chrono-

¹ That there existed a cyclic copy or edition of the Odyssey (ἡ εἰκονική) is proved by two passages in the Scholia (xvi. 195; xvii. 25), with Boeckh's remark in Buttman's edition: this was the Odyssey copied or edited along with the other poems of the cycle.

² Our word to edit—or edition—suggests ideas not exactly suited to the proceedings of the Alexandrine library, in which we cannot expect to find anything like what is now called publication. That magnificent establishment, possessing a large collection of epical manuscripts, and ample means of every kind at command, would naturally desire to have these compositions put in order and corrected by skilful hands, and then carefully copied for the use of the library. Such copy constitutes the cyclic edition: they might perhaps cause or permit duplicates to be made, but the Scholia or edition was complete without them.

³ Respecting the great confusion in which the Epic Cycle is involved, see the striking declaration of Buttman, Addenda ad Scholia in Odysseum, p. 875: compare the opinions of the different critics, as enumerated at the end of Weicker's treatise, Epich. Kyk. p. 420–453.
logical sequence of events\textsuperscript{1}. Both the Iliad and the Odyssey were comprised in the Cycle, so that the denomination of cyclic poet did not originally or designedly carry with it any association of contempt. But as the great and capital poems were chiefly spoken of by themselves, or by the title of their own separate authors, so the general name of poems of the Cycle came gradually to be applied only to the worst, and thus to imply vulgarity or common-place; the more so as many of the inferior compositions included in the collection seem to have been anonymous, and their authors in consequence describable only under some such com-

\textsuperscript{1} Our information respecting the Epic Cycle is derived from Eutychus Proclus, a literary man of Sceia during the second century of the Christian era, and tutor of Marcus Antoninus (Jul. Capitolin. Vit. Marc. c. 2)—not from Proclus, called Deadocles, the neo-Platonic philosopher of the fifth century, as Heyne, Mr. Clinton, and others have imagined. The fragments from his work called Chrestomathia give arguments of several of the lost cyclic poems connected with the siege of Troy, communicating the important fact that the Iliad and Odyssey were included in the cycle, and giving the following description of the principle upon which it was arranged:—

\textit{Δυσλογίας ὑπὲρ των λεγομένων ἐπικών κύκλων, δὲ ἄρχεται μὲν ἐκ τῆς Θέρμης καὶ τῆς ὑπολογισμῶν μέχρις ......καὶ περιττετὰ ἐκ τῶν κύκλων, ἐκ διαφόρων ποιητῶν ὑπολογισμῶν, μέχρι τῶν ὑπολογισμῶν Ὀδυσσέας......Δύο ὡς ὁ τῶν ἐκ τῶν κύκλων τὰ ποιήματα διαδόθησαν καὶ ὑπολογίσθηκαν τοῖς ποιητοῖς, νὰ ἦν δὲ τὰς ὄρετα, ἢ δὲ τὰς ὑπολογισμοὺς τὰς ἐν αὐτής προγ-μάτως (sp. Plutarch, cat. 239).

This much-commented passage, while it clearly marks out the cardinal principle of the Epic Cycle (ὑπολογίας προγμάτως), neither affirms nor denies anything respecting the excellences of the constituent poems. Proclus speaks of the taste common in his own time (ὑπολογίστας τῶν ποιητῶν): there was not much relish in his time for these poems as such, but people were much interested in the sequence of spiral events. The abstracts which he himself drew up in the form of arguments of several poems, show that he adapted himself to this taste. We cannot collect from his words that he intended to express any opinion of his own respecting the goodness or badness of the cyclic poems.
mon designation as that of the cyclic poets. It is in this manner that we are to explain the disparaging sentiment connected by Horace and others with the idea of a cyclic writer, though no such sentiment was implied in the original meaning of the Epic Cycle.

The poems of the Cycle were thus mentioned in contrast and antithesis with Homer, though ori-

The gradual growth of a contemptuous feeling towards the scrip-
tor cyclicus (Horat. Ars Poetica, 136), which was not originally implied in the name, is well set forth by Lange (Ueber die Kyklisch. Dicht. p. 53-56).

Both Lange (p. 26-47) however and Ulrich (Geschichte des Griech. Epos, 2te Vorles. p. 418) adopt another opinion with respect to the cycle, which I think unsupported and unadmissible—that the several constituent poems were not received into it entire (i.e. with only such changes as were requisite for a corrected text), but cut down and abridged in such manner as to produce an exact continuity of narrative. Lange even imagines that the cyclic Odyssey was thus dealt with. But there seems no evidence to countenance this theory, which would convert the Alexandrine literati from critics into logographers. That the cyclic Iliad and Odyssey were the same in the main (allowing for corrections of text) as the common Iliad and Odyssey, is shown by the fact, that Proclus merely names them in the series without giving any abstract of their contents; they were too well known to render such a process necessary. Nor does either the language of Proclus, or that of Celsus as applied to Zenoalotus, indicate any transformation applied to the poets whose works are described to have been brought together and put into a certain order.

The hypothesis of Lange is founded upon the idea that the δεκα θεν παραγωγικα continuity of narrated events must necessarily have been exact and without break, as if the whole constituted one work. But this would not be possible, let the framers do what they might; moreover, in the attempts, the individuality of all the constituent poets must have been sacrificed, in such manner that it would be absurd to discuss their separate merits.

The continuity of narrative in the Epic Cycle could not have been more than approximative—as complete as the poem composing it would seem; nevertheless it would be correct to say that the poems were arranged in series upon this principle and upon no other. The Hymnains might have arranged in like manner the vast mass of trag-
ginally the Iliad and Odyssey had both been included among them: and this alteration of the meaning of the word has given birth to a mistake as to the primary purpose of the classification, as if it had been designed especially to part off the inferior epic productions from Homer. But while some critics are disposed to distinguish the cyclic poets too pointedly from Homer, I conceive that Welcker goes too much into the other extreme, and identifies the Cycle too closely with that poet. He construes it as a classification deliberately framed to comprise all the various productions of the Homeric epic, with its unity of action and comparative paucity both of persons and adventures—as opposed to the Hesiodic epic, crowded with separate persons and pedigrees, and destitute of central action as well as of closing catastrophe. This opinion does indeed coincide to a great degree with the fact, inasmuch as few of the Hesiodic epics appear to have been included in the Cycle: to say that none were included, would be too much, for we cannot venture to set aside either the Theogony or the Ægimius; but we may account for their absence perfectly well without supposing any design to exclude them, for it is obvious that their rambling character (like that of the Metamorphoses of Ovid) forbade the possibility of interweaving them in any continuous series. Continuity in the series of narrated events, coupled with a certain degree of antiquity in the poems, being the principle on which the arrangement called the Epic Cycle was based,
the Hesiodic poems generally were excluded, not from any preconceived intention, but because they could not be brought into harmony with such orderly reading.

What were the particular poems which it comprised, we cannot now determine with exactness. Welcker arranges them as follows:—Titanomachia, Danaïs, Amazonia (or Atthis), Ædipodia, Thebaïs (or Expedition of Amphiaraüs), Epigoni (or Alkmêônis), Minyas (or Phokaïs), Capture of Æchallia, Cyprian Verses, Iliad, Æthiopis, Lesser Iliad, Illipersis or the Taking of Troy, Returns of the Heroes, Odyssey, and Telegonia. Wuellner, Lange, and Mr. Fynes Clinton enlarge the list of cyclic poems still farther. But all such reconstructions of the Cycle are conjectural and destitute of authority: the only poems which we can affirm on positive grounds to have been comprehended in it, are, first, the series respecting the heroes of Troy, from the Cypria to the Telegonia, of which Proclus has preserved the arguments, and which includes the Iliad and Odyssey—next, the old Thebaïs, which is expressly termed cyclic in order to distinguish it from the poem of the same name composed by Antimachus. In regard to other particular compositions, we have no evidence to guide us, either for admission or exclusion, except our general views as to the scheme upon which the Cycle was framed. If my idea of that scheme be correct, the Alexandrine critics arranged therein all their old epical treasures, down


to the Telegonia—the good as well as the bad; gold, silver, and iron—provided only they could be pieced in with the narrative series. But I cannot venture to include, as Mr. Clinton does, the Euròpia, the Phorònís, and other poems of which we know only the names, because it is uncertain whether their contents were such as to fulfil that primary condition: nor can I concur with him in thinking that, where there were two or more poems of the same title and subject, one of them must necessarily have been adopted into the Cycle to the exclusion of the others. There may have been two Theogonies, or two Herakleias, both comprehended in the Cycle; the purpose being (as I before remarked), not to sift the better from the worse, but to determine some fixed order, convenient for reading and reference, amidst a multiplicity of scattered compositions, as the basis of a new, entire, and corrected edition.

Whatever may have been the principle on which the cyclic poems were originally stringed together, they are all now lost, except those two unrivalled diamonds, whose brightness, dimming all the rest, has alone sufficed to confer imperishable glory even upon the earliest phase of Grecian life. It has been the natural privilege of the Iliad and Odyssey, from the rise of Grecian philology down to the present day, to provoke an intense curiosity, which, even in the historical and literary days of Greece, there were no assured facts to satisfy. These compositions are the monuments of an age essentially religious and poetical, but essentially also unphilosophical, unreflecting and unrecording: the nature of...
the case forbids our having any authentic transmitted knowledge respecting such a period; and the lesson must be learnt, hard and painful though it be, that no imaginable reach of critical acumen will of itself enable us to discriminate fancy from reality, in the absence of a tolerable stock of evidence. After the numberless comments and acrimonious controversies to which the Homeric poems have given rise, it can hardly be said that any of the points originally doubtful have obtained a solution such as to command universal acquiescence. To glance at all these controversies, however briefly, would far transcend the limits of the present work; but the most abridged Grecian history would be incomplete without some inquiry respecting the Poet (so the Greek critics in their veneration denominated Homer), and the productions which pass now, or have heretofore passed, under his name.

Who or what was Homer? What date is to be assigned to him? What were his compositions?

A person, putting these questions to Greeks of different towns and ages, would have obtained answers widely discrepant and contradictory. Since the invaluable labours of Aristarchus and the other Alexandrine critics on the text of the Iliad and

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1 It is a memorable illustration of that bitterness which has so much disgraced the controversies of literary men in all ages (I fear we can make no exception), when we find Pausanias saying that he had examined into the ages of Hesiod and Homer with the most laborious scrutiny, but that he knew too well the calumnious dispositions of contemporary critics and poets, to declare what conclusion he had come to (Paus. ix. 30. 2): ἔρχονται ἐκ τοῦ ἀκριβοῦς τοῦ ἑαυτοῦ τοῦ Ἱσείου τοῦ Ομήρου τῶν ὕπομνημάτων ἐκ τοῦ ἀκριβοῦς τῶν ὕπομνημάτων τοῦ Ἑσίου, εἰπώντων τοῦ δικαίου οὖν τοῦ Ἱσείου τοῦ Ομήρου.
Odyssey, it has indeed been customary to regard those two (putting aside the Hymns and a few other minor poems) as being the only genuine Homeric compositions; and the literary men called Chorizontes, or the Separators, at the head of whom were Xenôn and Hellanikus, endeavoured still farther to reduce the number by disconnecting the Iliad and Odyssey, and pointing out that both could not be the work of the same author. Throughout the whole course of Grecian antiquity, the Iliad and the Odyssey, and the Hymns, have been received as Homeric; but if we go back to the time of Herodotus or still earlier, we find that several other epics also were ascribed to Homer—and there were not wanting critics, earlier than the Alexandrine age, who regarded the whole Epic Cycle, together with the satirical poem called Margites, the Batrachomyomachia, and other smaller pieces, as Homeric works. The cyclic Thebaïs and the Epigoni (whether they be two separate poems, or the latter a second part of the former) were in early days currently ascribed to Homer: the same was the case with the Cyprian Verses: some even attributed to him several other poems, the Capture of Æchala, the Lesser Iliad, the Phokais, and the Amazonia. The title of the poem called Thebaïs to be styled Homeric depends upon evidence more ancient than any which can be produced to authenticate the Iliad and Odyssey: for Kallinus, the ancient elegiac poet (a.c. 640), mentioned Homer as the author of it—and his opinion was shared by many other com-

1 See the extract of Proclus, in Photius Cod. 239.
2 Suidas, s. 'Oπαμαρ; Κυκλαθ. ad Ilid. ii. p. 339.
petent judges. From the remarkable description given by Herodotus of the expulsion of the rhapsodes from Sikyony by the despot Kleisthenes, in the time of Solon (about a.c. 580), we may form a probable judgement that the Thebans and the Epigonoi were then rhapsodised at Sikyony as Homeric productions. And it is clear from the language of

1 Pausan. t. 9, 3. The name of Kallius in that passage seems certainly correct: Τω δὲ ἐπὶ τοὺν (the Thebais) Καλλίους, ἀρσενίκους αὐτῶν ἐν μέγαρε, ἔφησον ὁ Ὀμηρος τὸν ποιητὴν αὐτὸς Kαλλίου ὁ πολλοί τε καὶ ἄλοι λόγοι κατὰ τοῦτο ἡγεμόνα. Ἐγὼ δὲ τῷ πολλοῖς τούτῳ μετὰ τῆς Δαίδαλος καὶ Ὀδυσσείας ἐκείνου μάλιστα.

To the same purpose the author of the Certamen of Healed and Homer and the pseudo-Herodotus (Vit. Homer. c. 9). The Ἀργείας Ἰθάκεως, alluded to in Suidas as the productions of Homer, may be reasonably identified with the Thebais (Suidas, v. Ὀμηρος).

The cyclographer Dionysaus, who affirmed that Homer had lived both in the Theban and the Trojan wars, must have recognised that poet as author of the Thebais as well as of the Iliad (sp. Proel. ad Healed p. 3).

2 Herodot. c. 67. Κλασθένης γὰρ Ἀργείων πολεμαστὸς—τοῦτο μὲν, μητροφόρος ἐκεῖνος ἐν Ἰθακῆς—ὁ Ὀμηρός ἐκεῖνος, πᾶν ὁ Ὀμηρός ἐκεῖνος. Ὅσον, ὅσον γὰρ ἐν τούτῳ ἐστίν ἐκεῖνος, τὸν τέλειον ἱππότατον τὸν Μαλαΐμον ἂν ἄρετον τοις Τάλαιοις, τοῦτο ἐκδιδόμενον ἐίναι τούτῳ Κλασθένθει, ἐκεῖνῳ Ἀργείων, ἐκεῖνῳ τῷ τῆς χάριν. Herodotus then goes on to relate how Kleisthenes carried into effect his purpose of banishing the hero Adrastus: first, he applied to the Delphian Apollo for permission to do so directly and avowedly; next, on that permission being refused, he made application to the Thebans to allow him to introduce into Sikyony their hero Melanippus, the bitter enemy of Adrastus in the old Theban legend; by their consent, he consecrated a chapel to Melanippus in the most commanding part of the Sikyonian agora, and then transferred to the newly-supported hero the rites and festivals which had before been given to Adrastus.

Taking in conjunction all the points of this very curious tale, I venture to think that the rhapsodies incurred the displeasure of Kleisthenes by restating, not the Homeric Iliad, but the Homeric Thebais and Epigoni. The former does not answer the conditions of the narrative: the latter fulfills them accurately.

1. It cannot be said even by the utmost latitude of speech, that in the Iliad “Little else is sung except Argos and the Argives”—(“ nulla ubique féce nominis Argos et Argivum celebrantur”—is the translation of Schweppehämmer); Argos is rarely mentioned in it, and never exalted
Herodotus, that in his time the general opinion ascribed to Homer both the Cyprian Verses and the Epigoni, though he himself dissents. In spite of such dissent, however, that historian must have into any primary importance: the Argians, as inhabitants of Argos separately, are never noticed at all: that name is applied to the Iliad, in common with Achaeans and Danaans, only to the general body of Greeks—and even applied to them much less frequently than the name of Achaeans.

2. Adrastus is twice, and only twice, mentioned in the Iliad, as master of the wonderful horse Aione and as father-in-law of Tydeus; but he makes no figure in the poem, and attracts no interest.

Wherefore, though Kleisthenes might have been ever so much incensed against Argos and Adrastus, there seems no reason why he should have interdicted the rhapsodes from reciting the Iliad. On the other hand, the Thebais and Epigoni could not fail to provoke him especially, for,

1. Argos and its inhabitants were the grand subject of the poem, and the proclaimed assailants in the expedition against Thebes. Though the poem itself is lost, the first line of it has been preserved (Leutsch, Theb. Cyc. Reliq. p. 5; compare Sophocles, Ed. Col. 380 with Scholia).—

"Αργος δ' θεά, πολυλιμφέω, ἡδές χοίρε, &c.

2. Adrastus was king of Argos, and the chief of the expedition. It is therefore literally true, that Argos and the Argians were "the burden of the song" in these two poems.

To this we may add—

1. The rhapsodes would have the strongest motive to recite the Thebais and Epigoni at Sikyon, where Adrastus was worshipped and enjoyed as vast a popularity, and where he even attracted to himself the choric solemnities which in other towns were given to Dionysus.

2. The means which Kleisthenes took to get rid of Adrastus indicates a special reference to the Thebais: he invited from Thebes the hero Melanippus, the Herōt of Thébes in that very poem.

For these reasons I think we may conclude, that the Ὀμῆρος ἕγι alluded to in this very illustrative story of Herodotus are the Thebais and the Epigoni, not the Iliad.

Herodot. b. 117; iv. 32. The words in which Herodotus intimates his own dissent from the reigning opinion are treated as spurious by F. A. Wolf, and vindicated by Schweighäuser: whether they be admitted or not, the general currency of the opinion adverted to is equally evident.
conceived the names of Homer and Hesiod to be nearly co-extensive with the whole of the ancient epic, otherwise he would hardly have delivered his memorable judgement, that they two were the framers of Grecian theogony.

The many different cities which laid claim to the birth of Homer (seven is rather below the truth, and Smyrna and Chios are the most prominent among them) is well-known, and most of them had legends to tell respecting his romantic parentage, his alleged blindness, and his life of an itinerant bard acquainted with poverty and sorrow. The

1 The Life of Homer, which passes falsely under the name of Herodotus, contains a collection of these different stories: it is supposed to have been written about the second century after the Christian era, but the statements which it furnishes are probably several of them as old as Ephorus (compare also Proclus ap. Photius, c. 239).

The belief in the blindness of Homer is doubtless of far more ancient date, since the circumstance appears mentioned in the Homerid Hymn to the Delian Apollo, where the bard of Chios, in some very touching lines, recommends himself and his strains to the favour of the Delian maidens employed in the worship of Apollo. This hymn is cited by Thucydides as unquestionably authentic, and he doubtless accepted the lines as a description of the personal condition and relations of the author of the Iliad and Odyssey (Thucydi. iii. 104); Simonides of Keos also calls Homer a Chian (Frag. 69, Schneidewin).

There were also tales which represented Homer as the contemporary, the counsellor, and the rival in recited composition, of Hesiod, who (it was pretended) had vanquished him. See the Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi, annexed to the works of the latter (p. 314, ed. Göttingen; and Plutarch, Conviv. Sept. Sapient. c. 10), in which also various stories respecting the life of Homer are scattered. The emperor Hadrian consulted the Delphian oracle to know who Homer was: the answer of the priestess reported him to be a native of Ithaca, the son of Telamonius and Epikaste, daughter of Nestor (Certamen Homeri et Hes. p. 314). The author of this Certamen tells us that the authority of the Delphian oracle deserves implicit confidence.

Hellanikus, Damastes, and Pherekydes traced both Homer and Hesiod up to Orpheus, through a pedigree of ten generations (see Sturt,
discrepancies of statement respecting the date of his reputed existence are no less worthy of remark; for out of the eight different epochs assigned to him, the oldest differs from the most recent by a period of 460 years.

Thus conflicting would have been the answers returned in different portions of the Grecian world to any questions respecting the person of Homer. But there were a poetical gens (fraternity or guild) in the Ionic island of Chios, who, if the question had been put to them, would have answered in another manner. To them Homer was not a mere antecedent man, of kindred nature with themselves, but a divine or semi-divine eponymous and progenitor, whom they worshiped in their gentile sacrifices, and in whose ascendent name and glory the individuality of every member of the gens was merged. The compositions of each separate Homérid, or the combined efforts of many of them in conjunction, were the works of Homer; the name of the individual bard perishes and his authorship is forgotten, but the common gentile father lives and grows in renown, from generation to generation, by the genius of his self-renewing sons.

Fragment. Hellanu, fr. 75-144; compare also Lobeck's remarks—Aplaooumνες, p. 222—on the subject of these genealogies. The computations of these authors earlier than Herodotus are of value, because they illustrate the habits of mind in which Grecian chronology began: the genealogy might be easily continued backward to any length in the past. To trace Homer up to Orpheus, however, would not have been consonant to the belief of the Homérids.

The contentions of the different cities which disputed for the birth of Homer, and indeed all the legendary anecdotes circulated in antiquity respecting the poet, are copiously discussed in Weick, Der Epenche Kyklos (p. 194-199).
Such was the conception entertained of Homer by the poetical gens called Homeriadæ or Homeriads; and in the general obscurity of the whole case, I lean towards it as the most plausible conception. Homer is not only the reputed author of the various compositions emanating from the gentile members, but also the recipient of the many different legends and of the divine genealogy, which it pleases their imagination to confer upon him. Such manufacture of fictitious personality, and such perfect incorporation of the entities of religion and fancy with the real world, is a process familiar and even habitual in the retrospective vision of the Greeks.

It is to be remarked that the poetical gens here brought to view, the Homeriads, are of indisputable authenticity. Their existence and their considerations were maintained down to the historical times in the island of Chios. If the Homeriads were still conspicuous even in the days of Akusilaus, Pindar, Hellanikus and Plato, when their productive invention had ceased, and when they had become only guardians and distributors, in common with others, of the treasures bequeathed by their predecessors—far more exalted must their position have been.

1 Even Aristotle ascribed to Homer a divine parentage: a damsel of the isle of Ios, pregnant by some god, was carried off by pirates to Sicyon at the time of the Ionic emigration, and there gave birth to the poet (Aristotel. ap. Plutarch. Vit. Homer. p. 1039).

Plato seems to have considered Homer as having been an itinerant rhapsode, poor and almost friendless (Republ. p. 600).


It seems by a passage of Plato (Phaedrus, p. 252), that the Homeriads professed to possess unpublished verses of their ancestral poet—*τοις ἀδελφοῖς*. Compare Plato, Republic, p. 559, and Iserat. Helen, p. 218.
three centuries before, while they were still the inspired creators of epic novelty, and when the absence of writing assured to them the undisputed monopoly of their own compositions.

Homer, then, is no individual man, but the divine or heroic father (the ideas of worship and ancestry coalescing, as they constantly did in the Grecian mind) of the gentle Homéids, and he is the author of the Thebais, the Epigoní, the Cyprian Verses, the Protoems or Hymns, and other poems, in the same sense in which he is the author of the Iliad and Odyssey—assuming that these various compo-

Nitzsch (De Historia Homeri, Fascic. 1. p. 126, Fascic. 2. p. 71), and Ulrici (Geschichte der Epische Poesie, vol. i. p. 240-331) question the antiquity of the Homérid gens, and limit their functions to simple reciters, denying that they ever composed songs or poems of their own. Yet these gravei, such as the Enamida, the Lykomidae, the Butades, the Talthybiades, the descendants of Cheirón at Pelión, &c., the Hesychides (Schol. Ias. Hom. Óidip. Col. 489) (the acknowledged parables of the Homérids), may be surely all considered as belonging to the earliest known elements of Grecian history: rarely at least, if ever, can such gens, with its tripartite character of civil, religious and professional, be shown to have commenced at any recent period. And in the early times, composer and singer were one person: often at least, though probably not always, the bard combined both functions. The Homerid double sings his own compositions; and it is reasonable to imagine that many of the early Homérids did the same.

See Niebuhr, Réomisch. Gesch. vol. i. p. 324; and the treatise, Uber die Sikler in der Odysse—in the Rheinisches Museum, 1828, p. 257; and Böckh, in the Index of Contents to his Lectures of 1834.

"The Sage Vyasa (observes Professor Wilson, System of Hindu Mythology, Introd. p. lxiii.) is represented, not as the author, but as the arranger and compiler of the Vedas and the Purânas. His name denotes his character, meaning the arranger or distributor (Welcker gives the same meaning to the name Homer); and the recurrence of many Vyasa,—many individuals who have modelled the Hindu scriptures,—has nothing in it that is improbable, except the fabulous intervals by which their labours are separated." Individual authorship and the thirst of personal distinction are in this case also buried under one great and common name, as in the case of Homer.
sitions emanate, as perhaps they may, from different individuals numbered among the Homérids. But this disallowance of the historical personality of Homer is quite distinct from the question, with which it has been often confounded, whether the Iliad and Odyssey are originally entire poems, and whether by one author or otherwise. To us, the name of Homer means these two poems, and little else: we desire to know as much as can be learnt respecting their date, their original composition, their preservation, and their mode of communication to the public. All these questions are more or less complicated one with the other.

Concerning the date of the poems, we have no other information except the various affirmations, respecting the age of Homer, which differ among themselves (as I have before observed) by an interval of 460 years, and which for the most part determine the date of Homer by reference to some other event, itself fabulous and unauthenticated—such as the Trojan war, the Return of the Hérakleids, or the Ionic migration. Krates placed Homer earlier than the Return of the Hérakleids and less than eighty years after the Trojan war: Eratosthenes put him 100 years after the Trojan war: Aristotle, Aristarchus and Castor made his birth contemporary with the Ionic migration, while Apollodorus brings him down to 100 years after that event, or 240 years after the taking of Troy. Thucydides assigns to him a date much subsequent to the Trojan war. On the other hand, Theopompus and Euphorion refer his age to the far more recent

1 Thucyd. i. 3.
period of the Lydian king Gyges (Ol. 18–23, B.C. 708–688), and put him 500 years after the Trojan epoch. What were the grounds of these various conjectures, we do not know, though in the statements of Kratès and Eratosthenes, we may pretty well divine. But the oldest dictum preserved to us respecting the date of Homer—meaning thereby the date of the Iliad and Odyssey—appears to me at the same time the most credible, and the most consistent with the general history of the ancient epic, Herodotus places Homer 400 years before himself; taking his departure, not from any fabulous event, but from a point of real and authentic time. Four centuries anterior to Herodotus would be a period commencing with 880 B.C.; so that the composition of the Homeric poems would thus fall in a space between 850 and 800 B.C. We may gather from the language of Herodotus that this was his own judgement, opposed to a

See the statements and citations respecting the age of Homer, collected in Mr. Clinton's Chronology, vol. i. p. 146. He prefers the view of Aristotle, and places the Iliad and Odyssey a century earlier than I am inclined to do,—340–227 B.C.

Kratès probably placed the poet anterior to the Return of the Héraclidae, because the Iliad makes no mention of Dorians in Peloponnesus: Eratosthenes may be supposed to have grounded his date on the passage of the Iliad which mentions the three generations descended from Æneas. We should have been glad to know the grounds of the very low date assigned by Theopompus and Euphorion.

The Pseudo-Herodotus, in his life of Homer, puts the birth of the poet 168 years after the Trojan war.

1 Herodot. ii. 53. Héraclidae Ponticus affirmed that Lycurgus had brought into Peloponnesus the Homeric poems, which had before been unknown out of Ionia. The supposed epoch of Lycurgus has sometimes been employed to sustain the date here assigned to the Homeric poems; but everything respecting Lycurgus is too doubtful to serve as evidence in other inquiries.
current opinion which assigned the poet to an earlier epoch.

To place the Iliad and Odyssey at some periods between 850 B.C. and 776 B.C., appears to me more probable than any other date, anterior or posterior—more probable than the latter, because we are justified in believing these two poems to be older than Arktinus, who comes shortly after the first Olympiad—more probable than the former, because the farther we push the poems back, the more do we enhance the wonder of their preservation, already sufficiently great, down from such an age and society to the historical times.

The mode in which these poems, and indeed all poems, epic as well as lyric, down to the age (probably) of Peisistratus, were circulated and brought to bear upon the public, deserves particular attention. They were not read by individuals alone and apart, but sung or recited at festivals or to assembled companies. This seems to be one of the few undisputed facts with regard to the great poet: for even those who maintain that the Iliad and Odyssey were preserved by means of writing, seldom contend that they were read.

In appreciating the effect of the poems, we must always take account of this great difference between early Greece and our own times—between the congregation mustered at a solemn festival, stimulated by community of sympathy, listening to a measured and musical recital from the lips of trained bards or rhapsodes, whose matter was supposed to have been inspired by the Muse—and the
solitary reader with a manuscript before him; such manuscript being, down to a very late period in Greek literature, indifferently written, without division into parts and without marks of punctuation. As in the case of dramatic performances in all ages, so in that of the early Grecian epic—a very large proportion of its impressive effect was derived from the talent of the reciter and the force of the general accompaniments, and would have disappeared altogether in solitary reading. Originally, the bard sung his own epical narrative, commencing with a proœemium or hymn to one of the gods\(^1\): his profession was separate and special, like that of the carpenter, the leech, or the prophet: his manner and enunciation must have required particular training no less than his imaginative faculty. His character presents itself in the Odyssey as one highly esteemed; and in the Iliad, even Achilles does not disdain to touch the lyre with his own hands, and to sing heroic deeds\(^2\). Not only did the Iliad and

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\(^1\) The Homeric hymns are proœmias of this sort, some very short, consisting only of a few lines—others of considerable length. The Hymn (or rather one of the two hymns) to Apollo is cited by Thucydides as the Proœemium of Apollo.

The Hymns to Aphrodite, Apollo, Herakles, Demeter, and Dionysus, are genuine epical narratives. Hermann (Proef. ad Hymn. p. lxix.) pronounces the Hymn to Aphrodite to be the oldest and most genuine; portions of the Hymn to Apollo (Herm. p. xx.) are also very old, but both that hymn and the others are largely interpolated. His opinion respecting these interpolations, however, is disputed by Franke (Proef. ad Hymn. Homeric. p. ix.—xix.); and the distinction between what is genuine and what is spurious depends upon criteria not very distinctly assignable. Compare Ullrich, Gesch. der Ep. Poes. p. 385—391.

\(^2\) Phemius, Demodokos, and the nameless bard who guarded the fidelity of Klytemnestra, bear out this position (Odys. i. 155; iii. 267; vii. 420; xxi. 330; Achilles in Iliad, ix. 190).

A degree of invisibility seems attached to the person of the bard as well as to that of the herald (Odysse. xxii. 355—357).
Odyssey, and the poems embodied in the Epic Cycle, produce all their impression and gain all their renown by this process of oral delivery, but even the lyric and choric poets who succeeded them were known and felt in the same way by the general public, even after the full establishment of habits of reading among lettered men. While in the case of the epic, the recitation or singing had been extremely simple and the measure comparatively little diversified, with no other accompaniment than that of the four-stringed harp—all the variations superinduced upon the original hexameter, beginning with the pentameter and iambus, and proceeding step by step to the complicated strophes of Pindar and the tragic writers, still left the general effect of the poetry greatly dependent upon voice and accompaniments, and pointedly distinguished from mere solitary reading of the words. And in the dramatic poetry, the last in order of time, the declamation and gesture of the speaking actor alternated with the song and dance of the Chorus, and with the instruments of musicians, the whole being set off by imposing visible decorations. Now both dramatic effect and song are familiar in modern times, so that every man knows the difference between reading the words and hearing them under the appropriate circumstances: but poetry, as such, is, and has now long been, so exclusively enjoyed by reading, that it requires an especial memento to bring us back to the time when the Iliad and Odyssey were addressed only to the ear and feelings of a promiscuous and sympathising multitude. Readers there were none, at least until the century
preceding Solon and Peisistratus: from that time forward, they gradually increased both in number and influence; though doubtless small, even in the most literary period of Greece, as compared with modern European society. So far as the production of beautiful epic poetry was concerned, however, the select body of instructed readers furnished a less potent stimulus than the unlettered and listening crowd of the earlier periods. The poems of Chœrillus and Antimachus, towards the close of the Peloponnesian war, though admired by erudite men, never acquired popularity; and the emperor Hadrian failed in his attempt to bring the latter poet into fashion at the expense of Homer.

It will be seen by what has been here stated, that that class of men, who formed the medium of communication between the verse and the ear, were of the highest importance in the ancient world, and especially in the earlier periods of its career—the bards and rhapsodes for the epic, the singers for

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1 Scurian. Vit. Hadrian. p. 8; Dio Casa. iix. 4; Plut. Tim. c. 36.

There are some good observations on this point in Nākē's comments on Chœrillus, ch. viii. p. 39.—

"Habet hoc epica poesis, vera illa, ejus perfectissimam normam cognoscimus Homericam—habet hoc proprium, ut nos in possessione viorum eruditorum, sed quasi viva sit et coram populo recitanda: ut eum populo creasset, et sibi populus Deorurn et antiquorum heroum facultas, quod praeipium est epica poesiis argumentum, audire et secum reperteq delectaret, ab omnibus. Id vero tum factum est in Greecia, quam populus eie atate, quam meritiis diceo poesis, peracta, partim ad res serias tristisque, politicas maxime—cumque multo, quam sunt, impeditiones—abstruebatur; partim epica poesiis pertinex, ex alia poesiis generibus, quae tum nasc准确t, novum et diversum obiectamentum genus primum pressagire, sibi, demide hancire, coepit."

Nākē remarks too that the "splendidissima et propria Homerovae poesiis res, ea quae sponte quasi ad inter populum et quasi cum populo voverat," did not reach below Periastes. It did not, I think, reach even so low as that period.
the lyric, the actors and singers jointly with the dancers for the chorus and drama. The lyric and dramatic poets taught with their own lips the delivery of their compositions, and so prominently did this business of teaching present itself to the view of the public, that the name Didaskalia, by which the dramatic exhibition was commonly designated, derived from thence its origin.

Among the number of rhapsodes who frequented the festivals at a time when Grecian cities were multiplied and easy of access, for the recitation of the ancient epic, there must have been of course great differences of excellence; but that the more considerable individuals of the class were elaborately trained and highly accomplished in the exercise of their profession, we may assume as certain. But it happens that Sokrates with his two pupils Plato and Xenophon speak contemptuously of their merits, and many persons have been disposed, somewhat too readily, to admit this sentence of condemnation as conclusive, without taking account of the point of view from which it was delivered.  

1 Xenoph. Memorab. iv. 2, 10; and Symposium. iii. 6. Ὅρθον ἐὰν ἠλικίατο τοὺς μαθητὰς; Ἀλλαν γὰρ ἐπὶ τῆς ἐποιήματος ἐπὶ ἐπιστήμην. ἂν ἔτει Συμφωνίων τοι καὶ Αραχμάδος καὶ ἄλλοις παλλον τολύς δέδωκαν θρόμος. ἔτειν μὲν σε τῶν παλλον ἄλλων λαλήθη. 

These ἐποιήματα are the hidden meanings or allegories which a certain set of philosophers undertook to discover in Homer, and which the rhapsodes were no way called upon to study.

The Platonic dialogue called Ion ascribes to Ion the double function of a rhapsode or impressive reciter, and a critical expositor of the poet (Isocrates also indicates the same double character in the rhapsodes of his time—Panathenaeic, p. 240); but it conveys no solid grounds for a mean estimate of the class of rhapsodes, while it attests remarkably the striking effect produced by their recitation (v. 6, p. 535). That this class of men came to combine the habit of expository comment on the poet with their original profession of reciting, proves the tendencies of
These philosophers considered Homer and other poets with a view to instruction, ethical doctrine, and virtuous practice: they analysed the characters whom the poet described, sifted the value of the lessons conveyed, and often struggled to discover a hidden meaning, where they disapproved that which was apparent. When they found a man like the rhapsode, who professed to impress the Homeric narrative upon an audience, and yet either never meddled at all, or meddled unsuccessfully, with the business of exposition, they treated him with contempt; indeed Sokratēs depreciates the poets themselves much upon the same principle, as dealing with matters of which they could render no rational account. It was also the habit of Plato and Xenophon to disparage generally professional exertion of talent for the purpose of gaining a livelihood, contrasting it often in an indelicate manner with the gratuitous teaching and ostentatious poverty of their master. But we are not warranted in judging the rhapsodes by such a standard. Though they were not philosophers or moralists, it was their province—and it had been so, long before the philosophical point of view was opened—to bring their the age; probably it also brought them into rivalry with the philosophers.

The grounds taken by Aristotle (Problem. xxx. 10; compare Aul. Gellius, xx. 14) against the actors, singers, musicians, &c. of his time are more serious, and have more the air of truth.

If it be correct in Leiris (de Studis Aristarchi, Diss. ii. p. 46) to identify those early glossographers of Homer, whose explanations the Alexandrine critics so severely condemned, with the rhapsodes, this only proves that the rhapsodes had come to undertake a double duty, of which their predecessors before Solin would never have dreamt.

Plato, Apolog. Socrat, p. 20, c. 7.
poet home to the bosoms and emotions of an assembled crowd, and to penetrate themselves with his meaning so far as was suitable for that purpose, adapting to it the appropriate graces of action and intonation. In this their genuine task they were valuable members of the Grecian community, and seem to have possessed all the qualities necessary for success.

These rhapsodes, the successors of the primitive Aëdi or Bards, seem to have been distinguished from them by the discontinuance of all musical accompaniment. Originally, the bard sung, enlivening the song with occasional touches of the simple four-stringed harp; his successor the rhapsode, recited, holding in his hand nothing but a branch of laurel, and depending for effect upon voice and manner,—a species of musical and rhythmical declamation¹, which gradually increased in vehement emphasis and gesticulation until it approached to

¹ Aristotel. Poetic. c. 47; Welcker, Der Episch. Kyklos; Ueber den Vortrag der Homerischen Gedichte, pp. 340-406, which collects all the facts respecting the Aëdi and the rhapsodes. Unfortunately the ascertained points are very few.

The laurel branch in the hand of the singer or reciter (for the two expressions are often confounded) seems to have been peculiar to the recitation of Homer and Hesiod (Hesiod, Theog. 30; Schol. ad Aristophan. Nub. 1367. Pausan. x. 7, 2). "Poemata omne genus (sive Apulicus, Florid. p. 122, Bipont.) apta virgo, lirae, socco, cothurno."

Not only Homer and Hesiod, but also Archilochus, were recited by rhapsodes (Athenae. xii. 620; also Plato, Legg. ii. p. 658). Consult, besides, Nietzsche, De Historicum Homer. Fascic. 2. p. 114 seq., respecting the rhapsodes; and O. Müller, History of the Literature of Ancient Greece, ch. iv. s. 3.

The ideas of singing and speech are however often confounded, in reference to any verse solemnly and emphatically delivered (Thucyd. ii. 53)—φωνησεις οι πρωτευτεραι πολων ἡκοντικῇ. Περὶ Δορισκοῦ παπάρον καὶ λαμνὺς ἄποι πεστὶν. And the rhapsodes are said to sing Homer
that of the dramatic actor. At what time this change took place, or whether the two different modes of enunciating the ancient epic may for a certain period have gone on simultaneously, we have no means of determining. Hesiod receives from the Muse a branch of laurel, as a token of his ordination into their service, which marks him for a rhapsode; while the ancient bard with his harp is still recognised in the Homeric Hymn to the Delian Apollo, as efficient and popular at the Panionic festivals in the island of Delos. Perhaps the

(Plato, Kryxias, c. 15; Hesych. v. ἅρπαςαινετος; Strabo. i. p. 18) has a good passage upon song and speech.

William Grimm (Deutsche Heldensage, p. 373) supposes the ancient German heroic romances to have been recited or declaimed in a similar manner with a simple accompaniment of the harp, as the Servian heroic lays are even at this time delivered.

Fauriel also tells us, respecting the French Carlovigian Epic (Romans de Chevalerie, Revue des Deux Mondes, xiii. p. 559): "The romances of the 12th and 13th centuries were really sung: the jongleur invited his audience to hear a belle chanson d'histoire,—le mot chante ne manque jamais dans la formule initiale,—and it is to be understood literally: the music was simple and intermittent, more like a recitative; the jongleur carried a rebeck, or violin with three strings, an Arabic instrument; when he wished to rest his voice, he played an air or ritournelle upon this; he went thus from place to place, and the romances had no existence among the people except through the aid and recitation of these jongleurs."

It appears that there had once been rhapsodic exhibitions at the festivals of Dionysus, but they were discontinued (Klearchus ap. Athenae. vii. p. 275)—probably superseded by the dithyramb and the tragedy.

The etymology of ἰδέης is a disputed point: Weicker traces it to ἰδής; most critics derive it from ἰδώρα ὁδή, which O. Müller explains "to denote the coupling together of verses without any considerable divisions or pauses,—the even, unbroken, continuous flow of the epic poem," as contrasted with the strophic or choric periods (t. e.).

1 Homer, Hymn to Apollo 170. The εἴθωρα, ὁδή, ὕχηθημα, are constantly put together in that hymn: evidently the instrumental accompaniment was essential to the hymns at the Ionic festival. Compare also the Hymn to Hermès (430), where the function ascribed to the Muses can hardly be understood to include non-musical recitation.
improvements made in the harp, to which three strings, in addition to the original four, were attached by Terpander (a.c. 660), and the growing complication of instrumental music generally, may have contributed to discredit the primitive accompaniment, and thus to promote the practice of recital: the story, that Terpander himself composed music not only for hexameter poems of his own, but also for those of Homer, seems to indicate that the music which preceded him was ceasing to find favour. By whatever steps the change from the bard to the rhapsode took place, certain it is that before the time of Solon, the latter was the recognised and exclusive organ of the old Epic; sometimes in short fragments before private companies, by single rhapsodes—sometimes several rhapsodes in continuous succession at a public festival.

Respecting the mode in which the Homeric poems were preserved, during the two centuries (or as some think, longer interval) between their original composition and the period shortly pre-

The Hymn to Hermès is more recent than Terpander, insasmuch as it mentions the seven strings of the lyre, v. 50.

1 Terpander—see Plutarch. de Musici, c. 3-4; the facts respecting him are collected in Plehn's Lesbiae, pp. 140-160; but very little can be authenticated.

Stesiclus at the Pythian festivals sang the Homeric battles, with a harp accompaniment of his own composition (Athenoe. xiv. p. 638).

The principal testimonies respecting the rhapsodising of the Homeric poems at Athens, chiefly at the Panathenian festival, are Isokrates, Panegyric. p. 74; Lyseurgus contra Leocrat. p. 161; Plato, Hipparch. p. 228; Diogen. Laert. Vita. Solon. i. 57.

Inscriptions attest that rhapsodising continued in great esteem, down to a late period of the historical age, both at Chios and Teos, especially the former: it was the subject of competition by trained youth, and of prizes for the victor, at periodical religious solemnities: see Corp. Inscript. Borekh. No. 2214–3088.
ceding Solón—and respecting their original composition and subsequent changes—there are wide differences of opinion among able critics. Were they preserved with, or without, being written? Was the Iliad originally composed as one poem, and the Odyssey in like manner, or is each of them an aggregation of parts originally self-existent and unconnected? Was the authorship of each poem single-headed or many-headed?

Either tacitly or explicitly, these questions have been generally coupled together and discussed with reference to each other, by inquiries into the Homeric poems; though Mr. Payne Knight's Prolegomena have the merit of keeping them distinct. Half a century ago, the acute and valuable Prolegomena of F. A. Wolf, turning to account the Venetian Scholia which had then been recently published, first opened philosophical discussion as to the history of the Homeric text. A considerable part of that dissertation (though by no means the whole) is employed in vindicating the position, previously announced by Bentley amongst others, that the separate constituent portions of the Iliad and Odyssey had not been cemented together into any compact body and unchangeable order until the days of Peisistratus, in the sixth century before Christ. As a step towards that conclusion, Wolf maintained that no written copies of either poem could be shown to have existed during the earlier times to which their composition is referred—and that without writing, neither the perfect symmetry of so complicated a work could have been originally conceived by any poet, nor, if realised by him,
transmitted with assurance to posterity. The absence of easy and convenient writing, such as must be indispensably supposed for long manuscripts, among the early Greeks, was thus one of the points in Wolf's case against the primitive integrity of the Iliad and Odyssey. By Nitzsch and other leading opponents of Wolf, the connection of the one with the other seems to have been accepted as he originally put it, and it has been considered incumbent on those, who defended the ancient aggregate character of the Iliad and Odyssey, to maintain that they were written poems from the beginning.

To me it appears that the architectonic functions, ascribed by Wolf to Peisistratus and his associates in reference to the Homeric poems, are nowise admissible. But much would undoubtedly be gained towards that view of the question, if it could be shown that in order to controvert it, we were driven to the necessity of admitting long written poems in the ninth century before the Christian era. Few things, in my opinion, can be more improbable: and Mr. Payne Knight, opposed as he is to the Wolfian hypothesis, admits this no less than Wolf himself. The traces of writing in Greece, even in the seventh

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1 Knight, Prolegom. Hom. e. xxxviii.--xl. "Hanc tamen ulhim Homericorum carminum exemplar Pisistrati seculo antiquissimo extitisse, aut sexcentesimo prins anno ante C.N. scriptum fuisse, facile credam: nam enim et perdifficilis erat in temporems scriptura ob penniam materie scribendo ilioncem, quum literas aut lapidibus exarare, aut tabulis ligneis aut laminis metalli aliequis insculpere oportere:... Atque idem memoriae retenta sunt, et hac et aliis vterum postearum carmina, et per urbes et vicos et in principum virorum sedibus, desunt a rhapsodis. Neque mirandum est, ex per tot secula sic integra conservata esse, quoniam—per eos tradita erant, qui ab omnibus Graecis et coloniarum regibus et evitatibus mercede satia amplà conducti, omnì sua studios in illa osta—
century before the Christian era, are exceedingly trifling. We have no remaining inscription earlier than the 40th Olympiad, and the early inscriptions are rude and unskilfully executed: nor can we even assure ourselves whether Archilochus, Simonides of Amorgus, Kallinus, Tyrtaeus, Xanthus, and the other early elegiac and lyric poets, committed their compositions to writing, or at what time the practice of doing so became familiar. The first positive ground, which authorises us to presume the existence of a manuscript of Homer, is in the famous ordinance of Solon with regard to the rhapsodes at the Panathenaea; but for what length of time, previously, manuscripts had existed, we are unable to say.

Those who maintain the Homeric poems to have been written from the beginning, rest their case, not upon positive proofs—nor yet upon the existing habits of society with regard to poetry, for they admit generally that the Iliad and Odyssey were not read, but recited and heard—but upon the supposed necessity that there must have been eumai, eumendia, ot the rectiendia, conferrent. Wolm, Prolegon., xxiv.—xxv.

The evidences of early writing among the Greeks, and of written poems even anterior to Homer, may be seen collected in Kremker (Vorfragen uber Homeros, p. 127-159, Frankfort 1828). His proofs appear to me altogether inconclusive. Nietzsche maintains the same opinion (Histor. Homeri, Fasc. i. sect. xii. xvii. xviii.)—in my opinion, not more successfully: nor does Franz (Epigraphische Graec. Introd. s. iv.) produce any new arguments.

I do not quite subscribe to Mr. Knight's language, when he says that there is nothing wonderful in the long preservation of the Homeric poems unwritten. It is enough to maintain that the existence and practical use of long manuscripts by all the rhapsodes, under the condition and circumstances of the 6th and 7th centuries among the Greeks, would be a greater wonder.
manuscripts, to ensure the preservation of the poems,—the unassisted memory of reciters being neither sufficient nor trustworthy. But here we only escape a smaller difficulty by running into a greater; for the existence of trained bards, gifted with extraordinary memory, is far less astonishing than that of long manuscripts in an age essentially non-reading and non-writing, and when even suitable instruments and materials for the process are not obvious. Moreover, there is a strong positive reason for believing that the bard was under no necessity of refreshing his memory by consulting a manuscript. For if such had been the fact, blindness would have been a disqualification for the profession, which we know that it was not; as well from the example of Demodokus in the Odyssey, as from that of the blind bard of Chios, in the Hymn to the Delian Apollo, whom Thucydides, as well as the general tenor of Grecian legend, identifies with Homer himself. The author of that Hymn, be he who he may, could never have described a blind man as attaining the utmost perfection in his art, if he had been conscious that the memory of the bard was only maintained by constant reference to the manuscript in his chest.

1 See this argument strongly put by Nietzsche, in the prefatory remarks at the beginning of his second volume of Commentaries on the Odyssey (p. 33. xxvii.). He takes great pains to discard all idea that the poems were written in order to be read. To the same purpose Franz (Epi- graphiae Graec. Instud. p. 42.) who adopts Nietzsche’s positions,—“Audire est unum, non lectura, examina paracontrast.”

1 Odyssey, v. 17; Hymn ad Apoll. 172; Pseudo-Herodot. Vit. Horat. c. 31, Thucyd. iii. 104.

Various commentators on Homer imagined that under the misfortune of Demodokus the poet in reality described his own (Schol. ad Odyssey I. 1. 1; Maxim. Tyr. xxxviii. 1).
Nor will it be found, after all, that the effort of memory required either from bards or rhapsodes, even for the longest of these old epic poems,—though doubtless great, was at all superhuman. Taking the case with reference to the entire Iliad and Odyssey, we know that there were educated gentlemen at Athens who could repeat both poems by heart: but in the professional recitations, we

1 Xemoph. Sympos. iii. 5. Compare, respecting the laborious discipline of the Gallic Druids, and the number of unwritten verses which they retained in their memories, Cesar, B. G. vi. 34; Mele, iii. 2; also Wolf, Prolegg. s. xxiv. and Herod. ii. 77, about the prodigious memory of the Egyptian priests at Heliopolis.

I transcribe, from the interesting Discours of M. Fauvel (prefixed to his Chants Populaires de la Grèce Moderne, Paris 1824), a few particulars respecting the number, the mnemonic power, and the popularity of those itinerant singers or rhapsodes who frequent the festivals or pæanophoria of modern Greece: it is curious to learn that this profession is habitually exercised by blind men (p. xc. seq.).

"Les avenugs exercent en Grèce une profession qui les rend non seulement agréables, mais nécessaires; le caractère, l'imagination, et la condition du peuple, étant ce qu'ils sont: c'est la profession des chanteurs ambulans...... Ils sont dans l'usage, tant sur le continent que dans les îles, de la Grèce, d'apprendre par cœur le plus grand nombre qu'ils peuvent de chansons populaires de tout genre et de toute époque. Quelques une fussent par en souveraine quantité prodigieuse, et tous en assez beaucoup. Avec ce trésor dans leur mémoire, ils sont toujours en marche, traversant la Grèce en tout sens; ils s'en vont de ville en ville, de village en village, chantant à l'auditoire qui se forme autour d'eux, partant où ils se montrent, celles de leurs chansons qu'ils jugent convenir le mieux, soit à la localité, soit à la circonstance, et reçoivent une petite rétribution qui fait tout leur revenu. Ils ont l'air de chercher de préférence, en tout lieu, la partie la plus insulée de la population, qui en est toujours la plus curieuse, la plus avide d'impressions, et la moins difficile dans le choix de ceux qui leur sont offerts. Les Tzars seuls ne les écouteront pas. C'est aux réunions nombreuses, aux fêtes de village connus sous le nom de Pæanophoria, que ces chanteurs ambulans accroutent le plus volontiers. Ils chantent en s'accompagnant d'un instrument à cordes que l'on touche avec un archet, et qui est exactement l'ancienne lyre des Grecs, dont il a conservé le nom comme le morceau.

"Cette lyre, pour être entière, doit avoir cinq cordes: mais souvent
are not to imagine that the same person did go through the whole: the recitation was essentially a joint undertaking, and the rhapsodes who visited a festival would naturally understand among themselves which part of the poem should devolve upon each particular individual. Under such circumstances, and with such means of preparation beforehand, the quantity of verse which a rhapsode could deliver would be measured, not so much by the exhaustion of his memory, as by the physical sufficiency of his voice, having reference to the sonority of the sounds, as it is said to be necessary to produce a perfectly harmonious effect. The blind singers, moreover, are divided into two classes: the one (et ce sont, selon toute apparence, les plus nombreux) are born to the function of gathering, learning, and repeating the songs composed by other singers; the other (et ce sont ceux qui forment l'ordre le plus distingué du corps), to the function of repeating and conveying the songs of others, and repeating them in their turn, to the people; and these two kinds of rhapsodes are said to be nearly alike, inasmuch as the former are not only blind and dumb, but the latter have no voice.

To pass to another country—Persia, once the great rival of Greece:—

"The Kurrugolian rhapsodes are called Kurruglian Khans, from Khamed, meaning to sing. Their duty is to know by heart all the majlis (narratives) of Kurruglian, narrate them, or sing them, with the accompaniment of the favourite instrument of Kurruglian, the chungar or cittern, a three-stringed guitar. Ferdowsi has also his Shams Khan, the prophet Mahomed his Koran Khan. The memory of those singers is truly astonishing. At every request they recite in one breath for some hours, without stammering, beginning the tale at the passage or verse pointed out by the hearers." (Specimens of the Popular Poetry of Persia, as found in the Adventures and Improvisations of Kurruglian, the Bandit Minstrel of Northern Persia, by Alexander Chodzko; London 1842, Introd. p. 43.)

"One of the songs of the Casmic national bard sometimes lasts a whole day." (Ibid. p. 372.)
rous, emphatic, and rhythmical pronunciation required from him.

But what guarantee have we for the exact transmission of the text for a space of two centuries by simply oral means? It may be replied that oral transmission would hand down the text as exactly as in point of fact it was handed down. The great lines of each poem—the order of parts—the vein of Homeric feeling and the general style of location, and for the most part, the true words—would be maintained: for the professional training of the rhapsode, over and above the precision of his actual memory, would tend to Homerize his mind (if the expression may be permitted) and to restrain him within this magic circle. On the other hand, in respect to the details of the text, we should expect that there would be wide differences and numerous inaccuracies: and so there really were, as the records contained in the Scholia, together with the passages cited in ancient authors, but not found in our Homeric text, abundantly testify.

Moreover the state of the Iliad and Odyssey in respect to the letter called the Digamma affords a proof that they were recited for a considerable period

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1 There are just remarks of Mr. Mitford on the possibility that the Homeric poems might have been preserved without writing (History of Greece, vol. i. pp. 125-137).

2 Villainius, Prolegomen. pp. xxxiv.-lvii.; Wolf, Prolegomen. p. 37. Dünzzer, in the Epicur. Grac. Fragment. p. 27-29, gives a considerable list of the Homeric passages cited by ancient authors, but not found either in the Iliad or Odyssey. It is hardly to be doubted, however, that many of these passages belonged to other epic poems which passed under the name of Homer. Welcker (Der Eposch. Kyklus, pp. 25-133) enforces this opinion very justly, and it harmonizes with his view of the name of Homer as co-extensive with the whole Epic cycle.
before they were committed to writing, insomuch that the oral pronunciation underwent during the interval a sensible change¹. At the time when these poems were composed, the Digamma was an effective consonant, and figured as such in the structure of the verse; at the time when they were committed to writing, it had ceased to be pronounced, and therefore never found a place in any of the manuscripts—insomuch that the Alexandrine critics, though they knew of its existence in the much later poems of Alkæus and Sapphï, never recognised it in Homer. The hiatus, and the various perplexities of metre, occasioned by the loss of the Digamma, were corrected by different grammatical stratagems. But the whole history of this lost letter is very curious, and is rendered intelligible only by the supposition that the Iliad and Odyssey belonged for a wide space of time to the memory, the voice and the ear, exclusively.

At what period these poems, or indeed any other Greek poems, first began to be written, must be matter of conjecture, though there is ground for assurance that it was before the time of Solon. If

¹ See this argument strongly maintained in Giese (Ueber den Äolischen Dialekt, sect. 14, p. 100 seqq.). He notices several other particulars in the Homeric language—the plenitude and variety of interchangeable grammatical forms—the numerous metrical licences, set right by appropriate oral intonations—which indicate a language as yet not constrained by the exigencies of written authority.

The same line of argument is taken by O. Müller (History of the Literature of Ancient Greece, ch. iv. s. 5).

Giese has shown also, in the same chapter, that all the manuscripts of Homer, mentioned in the Scholæ, were written in the Ionic alphabet (with ḫ and θ as marks for the long vowels, and no special mark for the rough breathing), in so far as the special citations out of them enable us to verify.
in the absence of evidence we may venture upon naming any more determinate period, the question at once suggests itself, what were the purposes which in that stage of society, a manuscript at its first commencement must have been intended to answer? For whom was a written Iliad necessary? Not for the rhapsodes; for with them it was not only planted in the memory, but also interwoven with the feelings, and conceived in conjunction with all those flexions and intonations of voice, pauses and other oral artifices, which were required for emphatic delivery, and which the naked manuscript could never reproduce. Not for the general public—they were accustomed to receive it with its rhapsodic delivery, and with its accompaniments of a solemn and crowded festival. The only persons for whom the written Iliad would be suitable, would be a select few: studious and curious men—a class of readers, capable of analysing the complicated emotions which they had experienced as bearers in the crowd, and who would on perusing the written words realise in their imaginations a sensible portion of the impression communicated by the reciter!.

1 Nitzch and Welekar argue, that because the Homeric poems were "serem with great delight and interest, therefore the first rudiments of the art of writing, even while beset by a thousand mechanical difficulties, would be employed to record them. I cannot adopt this opinion, which appears to me to derive all its plausibility from our present familiarity with reading and writing. The first step from the recited to the written poem is really one of great violence, as well as useless for any want then actually felt. I much more agree with Wolf when he says:"
Incredible as the statement may seem in an age like the present, there is in all early societies, and there was in early Greece, a time when no such reading class existed. If we could discover at what time such a class first began to be formed, we should be able to make a guess at the time when the old Epic poems were first committed to writing. Now the period which may with the greatest probability be fixed upon as having first witnessed the formation even of the narrowest reading class in Greece, is the middle of the seventh century before the Christian æra (B.C. 660 to B.C. 630),—the age of Terpander, Kallinus, Archilochus, Simonidès of Amorgus, &c. I ground this supposition on the change then operated in the character and tendencies of Grecian poetry and music,—the elegiac and iambic measures having been introduced as rivals to the primitive hexameter, and poetical compositions having been transferred from the epical past to the affairs of present and real life. Such a

ut centu et recitatione sum maxime vigentia deducere ad mutas notas, ex illus etatis seniti nihil alium esset, quam perimere ex et vitali vi se spiritu praevere.” (Prolegom., x. v. p. 69.)

Some good remarks on this subject are to be found in William Humboldt’s Introduction to his elaborate treatise Über die Kiwi-Sprache, in reference to the oral tales current among the Basques. He too observes how great and repulsive a proceeding it is, to pass at first from verse sung or recited, to verse written, implying that the words are conceived detached from the Vertrag, the accompanying music, and the surrounding and sympathizing assembly. The Basque tales have no charm for the people themselves when put in Spanish words and read (Introduction, sect. xx. p. 258—259).

Unwritten prose tales, preserved in the memory and said to be repeated nearly in the same words from age to age, are mentioned by Mariner in the Tonga Islands (Mariner’s Account, vol. ii. p. 377).

The Demicidal poems were kept unwritten by design, after writing was in established use for other purposes (Cæsar, B. G. vi. 18).
change was important at a time when poetry was the only known mode of publication (to use a modern phrase not altogether suitable, yet the nearest approaching to the sense). It argued a new way of looking at the old epical treasures of the people, as well as a thirst for new poetical effect; and the men who stood forward in it may well be considered as desirous to study, and competent to criticise, from their own individual point of view, the written words of the Homeric rhapsodes, just as we are told that Kallinus both noticed and eulogised the Thebaïs as the production of Homer. There seems therefore ground for conjecturing, that (for the use of this newly-formed and important, but very narrow class) manuscripts of the Homeric poems and other old epics—the Thebaïs and the Cypria as well as the Iliad and the Odyssey—began to be compiled towards the middle of the seventh century b.c.¹; and the opening of Egypt to Grecian commerce, which took place about the same period, would furnish increased facilities for obtaining the requisite papyrus to write upon. A reading class, when once formed, would doubtless slowly increase, and the number of manuscripts along with it; so that before the time of Solon, fifty years afterwards,

¹ Mr. FynesClinton (Fasti Hellenici, vol. i, p. 368-373) treats it as a matter of certainty that Archilochus and Alkman wrote their poems. I am not aware of any evidence for announcing this as positively known—except indeed an admission of Wolf, which is doubtless good as an assumption ad hominem, but is not to be received as proof (Wolf, Proleg., p. 50). The evidence mentioned by Mr. Clinton (p. 368) certainly cannot be regarded as proving anything to the point.

Grese (Über den Kölischen Dialekt, p. 172) places the first writing of the separate rhapsodies composing the Iliad in the seventh century B.C.
both readers and manuscripts, though still comparatively few, might have attained a certain recognised authority, and formed a tribunal of reference, against the carelessness of individual rhapsodes.

We may, I think, consider the Iliad and Odyssey to have been preserved without the aid of writing for a period near upon two centuries. But is it true, as Wolf imagined, and as other able critics have imagined also, that the separate portions of which these two poems are composed were originally distinct epical ballads, each constituting a separate whole and intended for separate recitation? Is it true that they had not only no common author, but originally neither common purpose nor fixed order, and that their first permanent arrangement and integration was delayed for three centuries, and accomplished at last only by the taste of Peisistratus conjoined with various lettered friends?

1 The songs of the Icelandic Skalds were preserved orally for a period longer than two centuries.—F. A. Müller thinks very much longer,—before they were collected or embodied in written story by Snorri and Saemund (Lauge, Untersuchungen über die Geschichte der Nordischen Heldensage, p. 98; also Introduct. p. xx., xxviii.). He confounds, however, often, the preservation of the songs from old time—with the question whether they have or have not an historical basis.

And there were doubtless many old bardic and rhapsodic in ancient Greece, of whom the same might be said which Saxo Grammaticus affirms of an Englishman named Lucas, that he was “literis quidem tenitus instructus, sed historiarum scientia amplectetur” (Dahlmann, Historische Forschungen, vol. i. p. 176).

2 “Homer wrote a sequel of songs and rhapsodies, to be sung by himself for small earnings and good cheer, at festivals and other days of merriment; the Iliad he made for the men, the Odyssey for the other sex. These loose songs were not collected together into the form of an epic poem until 500 years after.”

Such is the naked language in which Wolf's main hypothesis had been previously set forth by Bentley, in his “Remarks on a late Dis-
This hypothesis—to which the genius of Wolf first gave celebrity, but which has been since enforced more in detail by others, especially by William Müller and Lachmann—appears to me not only unsupported by any sufficient testimony, but also opposed to other testimony as well as to a strong force of internal probability. The authorities quoted by Wolf are Josephus, Cicero and Pausanias: Josephus mentions nothing about Peisistratus, but merely states (what we may accept as the probable fact) that the Homeric poems were originally unwritten, and preserved only in songs or recitations, from which they were at a subsequent period put into writing: hence many of the discrepancies in the text. On the other hand, Cicero and Pausanias go farther, and affirm that Peisistratus both collected, and arranged in the existing order, the rhapsodies of the Iliad and Odyssey,


The same hypothesis may be seen more fully developed, partly in the work of Wolf's pupil and admirer, William Müller, Homerische Vorzüge (the second edition of which was published at Leipzig, 1836, with an excellent introduction and notes by Baumgarten-Crusius, adding greatly to the value of the original work by its dispassionate review of the whole controversy), partly in two valuable Dissertations of Lachmann, published in the Philological Transactions of the Berlin Academy for 1837 and 1841.

1 Joseph. cont. Apion. i. 2; Cicero de Orator. iii. 34; Pausan. vi. 26, 6; compare the Scholiast on Plantus in Ritschl, Die Alexandrin. Bibliothek, p. 4. Elgin (V. II. iii. 14), who mentions both the introduction of the Homeric poems into Peloponnesus by Lykurgus, and the compilation by Peisistratus, can hardly be considered as adding to the value of the testimony: still less Lhassan and Sunidas. What we learn is, that some literary and critical men of the Alexandrian age (more or fewer, as the case may be; but Wolf exaggerates when he talks of an unanimous conviction) spoke of Peisistratus as having first put together the fractional parts of the Iliad and Odyssey into entire poems.
(implied as poems originally entire and subsequently broken into pieces,) which he found partly confused and partly isolated from each other—each part being then remembered only in its own portion of the Grecian world. Respecting Hipparchus the son of Peisistratus, too, we are told in the Pseudo-Platonic dialogue which bears his name, that he was the first to introduce into Attica the poetry of Homer, and that he prescribed to the rhapsodes to recite the parts at the Panathenaic festival in regular sequence.

Wolf and William Müller occasionally speak as if they admitted something like an Iliad and Odyssey as established aggregates prior to Peisistratus; but for the most part they represent him or his associates as having been the first to put together Homeric poems which were before distinct and self-existent compositions. And Lachmann, the recent expositor of the same theory, ascribes to Peisistratus still more unequivocally this original integration of parts in reference to the Iliad—distributing the first twenty-two books of the poem into sixteen separate songs, and treating it as ridiculous to imagine that the fusion of these songs into an order such as we now read, belongs to any date earlier than Peisistratus.

1 Plato, Hipparch, p. 228.
2 "Doch ich komme mir bald licherlich vor, wenn ich nach immer die Moglichkeit gelten lasse, dass unsere Ilias in dem gegenwartigen Zusammenhange der bedeutenden Thiele, und nicht bloess der wenigsten bedeutendsten, jemals vor der Arbeit des Peisistratus gedeckt worden sei." (Lachmann, Fernere Betrachtungen iiber die Ilias, sect. xxvii. p. 32; Abhandlungen Berlin, Academ. 1841.) How far this admission—that for the few most important portions of the Iliad there did exist an established order of succession prior to Peisistratus—is intended to reach, I do not know; but the language of Lachmann goes farther than
Upon this theory we may remark, first, that it stands opposed to the testimony existing respecting the regulations of Solon; who, before the time of Peisistratus, had enforced a fixed order of recitation on the rhapsodes of the Iliad at the Panathenaic festival; not only directing that they should go through the rhapsodies seriatim and without omission or corruption, but also establishing a prompter or censorial authority to ensure obedience,—which implies the existence (at the

either Wolf or William Müller. (See Wolf, Prolegomena, p. exil., exili., and W. Müller, Homerische Vorleschule, Abschnitt, vii., pp. 96, 98, 100, 102.) The latter admits that neither Peisistratus nor the Diakonata could have made any considerable changes in the Iliad and Odyssey, either in the way of addition or of transposition; the poems as aggregates being too well-known, and the Homeric vein of invention too completely extinct, to admit of such novelties.

I confess I do not see how these last-mentioned admissions can be reconciled with the main doctrine of Wolf, in so far as regards Peisistratus.

Diogen. Laer. i. 57.—Τά καὶ Ὀμήρου ἐς ῥυτιστῆς γραμμῆς ἔργα εἰσπέρασαν, οὕτω ὡς ὅγοιοι Πτολεμαῖοι, ἐξειδεύκασαν τὸν ἄρχαίους, ὡς φυσι πατέρας ἑαυτῆς Μεγαρίδος.

Respecting Hipparchus, son of Peisistratus, the Pseudo-Plato tells us (in the dialogue so called, p. 228)—καὶ τά Ὀμήρου ἐς ῥυτιστῆς γραμμῆς εἰς τὴν γῆν ἐμφαίνει, καὶ ἠγέρθηκε τὸς μαθητὴν Ἡπαχράμιον ἐς ῥυτιστῆς ἔργα εἰσπέρασαν, ὡς φυσι πατέρας ἑαυτῆς Μεγαρίδος.

These words have provoked multiplied criticisms from all the learned men who have touched upon the theory of the Homeric poems—to determine what was the practice which Solon found existing, and what was the change which he introduced. Our information is too scanty to pretend to certainty, but I think the explanation of Hermann the most satisfactory ("Quid sit ἐρωτιστῆς ἐς ῥυτιστῆς.")—Opuscula, tom. v. p. 300, tom. vii. p. 162).

Ὡροβολή is the technical term for the prompter at a theatrical representation (Pintarch, Precinct, general. Recip, p. 813); ὄρωμα and ὑστημα have corresponding meanings, of aiding the memory of a speaker and keeping him in accordance with a certain standard, in possession of the prompter; see the words ἐς ὕστημα, Xenophon, Cyropaedia, iii. 3, 75. Ὑστήμα therefore has no necessary connection with a series of rhapsodes, but would apply just as much to one alone; although it happens in this case to be brought to bear upon
same time that it proclaims the occasional infringement of an orderly aggregate, as well as of manuscripts professedly complete. Next, the theory ascribes to Peisistratus a character not only materially different from what is indicated by Cicero.

several in succession. ὑπελεγματικά, again, means "the taking up in succession of one rhapsode by another;" though the two words, therefore, have not the same meaning, yet the proceeding described in the two passages in reference both to Solon and Hipparchus appears to be in substance the same—i.e. to ensure, by compulsory supervision, a correct and orderly recitation by the successive rhapsodes who went through the different parts of the poem.

There is good reason to conclude from this passage that the rhapsodes before Solon were guilty both of negligence and of omission in their recital of Homer, but no reason to imagine either that they transposed the books, or that the legitimate order was not previously recognised.

The appointment of a systematic ἔσοδολος or prompter plainly indicates the existence of complete manuscripts.

The direction of Solon, that Homer should be rhapsodised under the security of a prompter with his manuscript, appears just the same as that of the orator Lykurgus in reference to Eschylus, Sophokles, and Euripides (Pseudo-Plutarchus Vit. X. Rhetor. Lycurgis Vit.—ἐκάστης ἐσοδεύει ἐκεῖνος ἐν μένῳ τοῦ ποιήματος Αἰσχύλου, Σοφοκλῆος, Εὐριπίδου, καὶ τῶν προφηθηκέντων ὕπολοί τινα ἐκκλησίας γραμματέων φιλάττειν, καὶ τῶν τῆς ποιήματος γραμματέων πολλοῖς παραπεριγράφειν τάτον ἐπιστήμενον ὡς γιὰ ἡγομένου ἀστέα ἀλλοι ἐκπεραίηται. The word ἀλλοi which occurs last but one is introduced by the conjecture of Gryser, who has cited and explained the above passage of the Pseudo-Plutarchus in a valuable dissertation—De Hectorum Tragediis, qui in fact circa tempora Democriti (Cologne 1829). All the critics admit the text as it now stands to be unintelligible, and various corrections have been proposed, among which that of Gryser seems the best. From his Dissertation I transcribe the following passage, which illustrates the rhapsodising of Homer ἐν ἐσοδολοῖς:

"Quoniam histriones fabulis interpolandis agere abstinerunt, Lycurgus legem super indicatam nec tuti omnium, quod revocationes histrionum esse publicum illo exemplo omnia congrua renders. Quod si necessiceretur, constituit, ut duum fabulis in secol revitaretur, scribere publicum simul exemplum recitatis insipientes, juxta sive in theatro sive in postero sedem. Hec enim certe supercrescunt et significantur, postea principis in praeceptis tabæ, ut idem sit, quod contra sive juxta legere: id quod faciunt ilii, qui recita sub utero vel recitata cum suis conferre nolint." (Gryser, p. 2.)
and Pausanias—who represent him, not as having put together atoms originally distinct, but as the renovator of an ancient order subsequently lost—but also in itself unintelligible and inconsistent with Grecian habit and feeling. That Peisistratus should take pains to repress the licence, or make up for the unfaithful memory, of individual rhapsodes, and to ennoble the Panathenaic festival by the most correct recital of a great and venerable poem, according to the standard received among the best judges in Greece—this is a task both suitable to his position, and requiring nothing more than an improved recension, together with exact adherence to it on the part of the rhapsodes. But what motive had he to string together several poems, previously known only as separate, into one new whole? What feeling could be gratify by introducing the extensive changes and transpositions surmised by Lachmann, for the purpose of binding together sixteen songs which the rhapsodes are assumed to have been accustomed to recite, and the people to hear, each by itself apart? Peisistratus was not a poet, seeking to interest the public mind by new creations and combinations, but a ruler desirous to impart solemnity to a great religious festival in his native city. Now such a purpose would be answered by selecting, amidst the divergences of rhapsodes in different parts of Greece, that order of text which intelligent men could approve as a return to the pure and pristine Iliad; but it would be defeated if he attempted large innovations of his own, and brought out for the first time a new Iliad by blending together, altering, and transposing,
many old and well-known songs. A novelty so bold would have been more likely to offend than to please both the critics and the multitude. And if it were even enforced, by authority, at Athens, no probable reason can be given why all the other towns and all the rhapsodes throughout Greece should abnegate their previous habits in favour of it, since Athens at that time enjoyed no political ascendency such as she acquired during the following century. On the whole, it will appear that the character and position of Peisistratus himself go far to negative the function which Wolf and Lachmann put upon him. His interference presupposes a certain foreknown and ancient aggregate, the main lineaments of which were familiar to the Grecian public, although many of the rhapsodes in their practice may have deviated from it both by omission and interpolation. In correcting the Athenian recitations conformably with such understood general type, he might hope both to procure respect for Athens and to constitute a fashion for the rest of Greece. But this step of "collecting the torn body of sacred Homer" is something generically different from the composition of a new Iliad out of pre-existing songs: the former is as easy, suitable, and promising, as the latter is violent and gratuitous.

1 That the Iliad or Odyssey were ever recited with all the parts entire, at any time anterior to Solon, is a point which Ritschel denies (Die Alexandria. Bibliothek. p. 67-70). He thinks that before Solon, they were always recited in parts, and without any fixed order among the parts. Nor did Solon determine (as he thinks) the order of the parts: he only checked the license of the rhapsodes as to the recitation of the separate books: it was Peisistratus, who, with the help of Onomakritus and others, first settled the order of the parts and bound each poem
To sustain the inference, that Peisistratus was the first architect of the Iliad and Odyssey, it ought at least to be shown that no other long and continuous poems existed during the earlier centuries. But the contrary of this is known to be the fact. The Æthiopis of Arktinus, which contained 9100 verses, dates from a period more than two centuries earlier than Peisistratus: several other of the lost cyclic epics, some among them of considerable length, appear during the century succeeding Arktinus; and it is important to notice that three or four at least of these poems passed currently under the name of Homer. There is into a whole, with some corrections and interpolations. Nevertheless he admits that the parts were originally composed by the same poet, and adapted to form a whole amongst each other; but this primitive entireness (he asserts) was only maintained as a sort of traditional belief, never realised in recitation, and never reduced to an obvious, unequivocal, and permanent fact—until the time of Peisistratus.

There is no sufficient ground, I think, for denying all entire recitation previous to Solôn, and we only interpose a new difficulty, both grave and gratuitous, by doing so.

The Æthiopis of Arktinus contained 9100 verses, as we learn from the Tabula Iliaca: yet Prokhus assigns to it only four books. The Ilias Minor had four books, the Cyprian Verses eleven, though we do not know the number of lines in either.

Nitsch states it as a certain matter of fact, that Arktinus recited his own poem alone, though it was too long to admit of his doing so without interruption. (See his Vorrede to the 2nd vol. of the Odyssey, p. xxi.) There is no evidence for this assertion, and it appears to me highly improbable.

In reference to the Romances of the Middle Ages, belonging to the Cycle of the Round Table, M. Fauriel tells us that the German Perceval has nearly 25,000 verses (more than half as long again as the Iliad); the Perceval of Christian of Troyes probably more; the German Tristan, of Godfrey of Strasburg, has more than 23,000; sometimes the poem is begun by one author and continued by another. (Fauriel, Romans de Chevalerie, Revue des Deux Mondes, t. xiii., p. 693-697.)

The ancient recited poems of the Icelandic Skalds are as much lyric as epic: the longest of them does not exceed 800 lines, and they
no greater intrinsic difficulty in supposing long epics to have begun with the Iliad and Odyssey than with the Αἰθιόπις: the ascendency of the name of Homer, and the subordinate position of Arktinus, in the history of early Grecian poetry, tend to prove the former in preference to the latter.

Moreover, we find particular portions of the Iliad, which expressly pronounce themselves, by their own internal evidence, as belonging to a large whole, and not as separate integers. We can hardly conceive the Catalogue in the second book except as a fractional composition, and with reference to a series of approaching exploits; for taken apart by itself, such a barren enumeration of names could have stimulated neither the fancy of the poet nor the attention of the listeners. But the Homeric Catalogue had acquired a sort of canonical authority even in the time of Solón, insomuch that he interpolated a line into it, or was accused of doing so, for the purpose of gaining a disputed point against the Megarians, who on their side set forth another version. No such established reverence could have been felt for this document, unless there had existed for a long time prior to Peisistratus, the habit of regarding and listening to the Iliad as a continuous poem. And when the philosopher Xenophonês, contemporary with Peisistratus, noticed Homer as the universal teacher, and

are for the most part much shorter (Untersuchungen über die Geschichte der nordischen Heldenage, ans P. A. Müller's Sagbibliothek von G. Lange, Frankf. 1832, Introduc. p. xli.).

1 Plutarch, Solon. 10.
denounced him as an unworthy describer of the gods, he must have connected this great mental sway, not with a number of unconnected rhapsodies, but with an aggregate Iliad and Odyssey; probably with other poems also, ascribed to the same author, such as the Cypria, Epigoni, and Thebaïs.

We find, it is true, references in various authors to portions of the Iliad each by its own separate name, such as the Teichomachy, the Aristeia (pre-eminent exploits) of Diomedes or of Agamemnon, the Doloncia or Night-expedition (of Dolon as well as of Odysseus and Diomedes), &c., and hence it has been concluded that these portions originally existed as separate poems, before they were cemented together into an Iliad. But such references prove nothing to the point; for until the Iliad was divided by Aristarchus and his colleagues into a given number of books or rhapsodies, designated by the series of letters in the alphabet, there was no method of calling attention to any particular portion of the poem except by special indication of its subject-matter. Authors subsequent to Peisistratus, such as Herodotus and Plato, who unquestionably conceived the Iliad as a whole, cite the separate fractions of it by designations of this sort.

The foregoing remarks on the Wolfian hypothesis respecting the text of the Iliad, tend to separate two points which are by no means necessarily connected, though that hypothesis, as set forth by Wolf himself, by W. Müller, and by Lachmann,

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1 The Homeric Scholiast refers to Quintus Calaber ἐν τῇ Ἀποζωσμαχίᾳ, which was only one portion of his long poem (Schol. ad Iliad. ii. 220).
presents the two in conjunction. First, was the Iliad originally projected and composed by one author and as one poem, or were the different parts composed separately and by unconnected authors, and subsequently strung together into an aggregate? Secondly, assuming that the internal evidences of the poem negative the former supposition, and drive us upon the latter, was the construction of the whole poem deferred, and did the parts exist only in their separate state, until a period so late as the reign of Peisistratus? It is obvious that these two questions are essentially separate, and that a man may believe the Iliad to have been put together out of pre-existing songs, without recognising the age of Peisistratus as the period of its first compilation. Now whatever may be the steps through which the poem passed to its ultimate integrity, there is sufficient reason for believing that they had been accomplished long before that period: the friends of Peisistratus found an Iliad already existing and already ancient in their time, even granting that the poem had not been originally born in a state of unity. Moreover, the Alexandrine critics, whose remarks are preserved in the Scholia, do not even notice the Peisistratic recension among the many manuscripts which they had before them: and Mr. Payne Knight justly infers from their silence that either they did not possess it, or it was in their eyes of no great authority¹.

¹ Knight, Prolegg. Homer. xxxii. xxxvi. xxxvii. That Peisistratus caused a corrected MS. of the Iliad to be prepared, there seems good reason to believe, and the Scholium on Plantus edited by Ritschl (see Die Alexandrinische Bibliothek, p. 4) specifies the four persons (Onomakritus was one) employed on the task. Ritschl fancies that it served
which could never have been the case if it had been the prime originator of Homeric unity.

The line of argument, by which the advocates of Wolf's hypothesis negative the primitive unity of the poem, consists in exposing gaps, incongruities, contradictions, &c. between the separate parts. Now, if in spite of all these incoherencies, standing mementos of an antecedent state of separation, the component poems were made to coalesce so intimately as to appear as if they had been one from the beginning, we can better understand the complete success of the proceeding and the universal prevalence of the illusion, by supposing such coalescence to have taken place at a very early period, during the productive days of epical genius, and before the growth of reading and criticism. The longer the aggregation of the separate poems was deferred, the harder it would be to obliterate in men's minds the previous state of separation, and to make them accept the new aggregate as an original unity. The bards or rhapsodes might as a sort of Vulgate for the text of the Alexandrine critics, who named specially other MSS. (of Chios, Sinope, Massalia, &c.) only when they diverged from this Vulgate: he thinks also that it formed the original from whence those other MSS. were first drawn, which are called in the Homeric Scholiæ αι τους ἄνθρωπους (p. 59–60).

Welcker supposes the Peisistratian MS. to have been either lost or carried away when Xerxes took Athens (Der Epische Kyklos, p. 382–388).


The main facts respecting the Peisistratian recension are collected and discussed by Gräfenhain, Geschichte der Philologie, sect. 54–64. vol. i. p. 266–311. Unfortunately we cannot get beyond mere conjecture and possibility.
have found comparatively little difficulty in thus piecing together distinct songs, during the ninth or eighth century before Christ; but if we suppose the process to be deferred until the latter half of the sixth century—if we imagine that Solôn, with all his contemporaries and predecessors, knew nothing about any aggregate Iliad, but was accustomed to read and hear only those sixteen distinct epical pieces into which Lachmann would dissect the Iliad, each of the sixteen bearing a separate name of its own—no compilation then for the first time made by the friends of Peisistratus could have effaced the established habit, and planted itself in the general convictions of Greece as the primitive Homeric production. Had the sixteen pieces remained disunited and individualised down to the time of Peisistratus, they would in all probability have continued so ever afterwards; nor could the extensive changes and transpositions which (according to Lachmann's theory) were required to melt them down into our present Iliad, have obtained at that late period universal acceptance. Assuming it to be true that such changes and transpositions did really take place, they must at least be referred to a period greatly earlier than Peisistratus or Solôn.

The whole tenor of the poems themselves confirms what is here remarked. There is nothing either in the Iliad or Odyssey which savours of modernism, applying that term to the age of Peisistratus; nothing which brings to our view the alterations, brought about by two centuries, in the Greek language, the coined money, the habits of
writing and reading, the despotisms and republican governments, the close military array, the improved construction of ships, the Amphiktyonic convocations, the mutual frequentation of religious festivals, the Oriental and Egyptian veins of religion, &c., familiar to the latter epoch. These alterations Onomakritus and the other literary friends of Peisistratus could hardly have failed to notice even without design, had they then for the first time undertaken the task of piecing together many self-existent epics into one large aggregate. Everything in the two great Homeric poems, both in substance and in language, belongs to an age two or three centuries earlier than Peisistratus. Indeed even the interpolations (or those passages which on the best grounds are pronounced to be such) betray no trace of the sixth century before Christ, and may well have been heard by Archilochus and Kallinus—in some cases even by Arktinus and Hesiod—as genuine Homeric matter. As far as the evidences on the case, as well internal as external, enable us to judge, we seem warranted in believing that the Iliad and Odyssey were recited substan-

Wolf allows both the uniformity of colouring and the antiquity of colouring which pervade the Homeric poems, also the strong line by which they stand distinguished from the other Greek poets:—"Ipsum congruent in us omnia ferme in idem ingenium, in eodem mores, in eodem formam sentiendi et loquendi." (Prolegom. p. cclxv.; compare p. cxxvi.)

He thinks indeed that this harmony was restored by the ability and care of Aristarchus ("mirificum illum concinentum revocatum Aristarcho imprima dehuminus"). This is a very exaggerated estimate of the interference of Aristarchus; but at any rate the congeries itself was ancient and original, and Aristarchus only restored it when it had been spoiled by intervening accidents: at least, if we are to construe recuperation strictly, which perhaps is hardly consistent with Wolf's main theory.
tially as they now stand (always allowing for partial divergences of text and interpolations) in 776 a.c., our first trustworthy mark of Grecian time. And this ancient date—let it be added—as it is the best-authenticated fact, so it is also the most important attribute of the Homeric poems, considered in reference to Grecian history. For they thus afford us an insight into the ante-historical character of the Greeks—enabling us to trace the subsequent forward march of the nation, and to seize instructive contrasts between their former and their later condition.

 Rejecting therefore the idea of compilation by Peisistratus, and referring the present state of the Iliad and Odyssey to a period more than two centuries earlier, the question still remains, by what process, or through whose agency, they reached that state? Is each poem the work of one author, or of several? If the latter, do all the parts belong to the same age? What ground is there for believing, that any or all of these parts existed before as separate poems, and have been accommodated to the place in which they now appear by more or less systematic alteration?

 The acute and valuable Prolegomena of Wolf, half a century ago, powerfully turned the attention of scholars to the necessity of considering the Iliad and Odyssey with reference to the age and society in which they arose, and to the material differences in this respect between Homer and more recent epic poets. Since that time an elaborate study

1 See Wolf, Prolegg. c. xii. p. xiii. "Nondum enim prorsum ejecta et explosa est corum ratio, qui Homerum et Callimachum et Virgilium
has been bestowed upon the early manifestations of poetry (Sagen-poesie) among other nations; and the German critics especially, among whom this description of literature has been most cultivated, have selected it as the only appropriate analogy for the Homeric poems. Such poetry, consisting for the most part of short, artless effusions, with little of deliberate or far-sighted combination, has been assumed by many critics as a fit standard to apply for measuring the capacities of the Homeric age; an age exclusively of speakers, singers, and hearers, not of readers or writers. In place of the unbounded admiration which was felt for Homer, not merely as a poet of detail, but as constructor of a long-epic, at the time when Wolf wrote his Prolegomena, the tone of criticism passed to the opposite extreme, and attention was fixed entirely upon the defects in the arrangement of the Iliad and Odyssey. Whatever was to be found in them of symmetry or pervading system, was pronounced to be decidedly post-Homeric. Under such preconceived anticipations Homer seems to have been generally studied in Germany, during the generation succeeding Wolf, the negative portion of whose theory was usually admitted, though as to the positive substitute—what explanation was to be given of the history and present constitution of the Homeric poems—there was by no means the like agreement.

et Nominum et Miliumnum sodem animo legunt, nec quid unus enique se nas ferat, expendere legendo et computare laborant;” &c.

A similar and earlier attempt to construe the Homeric poems with reference to their age, is to be seen in the treatise called Il Ferro Museo of Vico,—marked with a good deal of original thought, but not strong in erudition (Opere di Vico, ed. Milan, voi. v, p. 437-497).
During the last ten years, however, a contrary tendency has manifested itself; the Wolfian theory has been re-examined and shaken by Nitzsch, who, as well as O. Müller, Welcker, and other scholars, have revived the idea of original Homeric unity, under certain modifications. The change in Goethe's opinion, coincident with this new direction, is recorded in one of his latest works. On the other hand, the original opinion of Wolf has also been reproduced within the last five years, and fortified with several new observations on the text of the Iliad, by Lachmann.

The point is thus still under controversy among able scholars, and is probably destined to remain so. For in truth our means of knowledge are so limited, that no man can produce arguments sufficiently cogent to contend against opposing preconceptions; and it creates a painful sentiment of diffidence when we read the expressions of equal and absolute persuasion with which the two opposite conclusions have both been advanced. We have

1 In the 46th volume of his collected works, in the little treatise "Homer, noch einmal!" compare G. Lange, Ueber die Kyklischen Dichter (Mainz, 1857), Preface, p. vi.


Lachmann, after having dissected the 2300 lines in the Iliad, between the beginning of the eleventh book and line 590 of the fifteenth, into four songs "in the highest degree different in their spirit" ("ihren Geists nach höchst verschiedenem Liedern"), tells us that whoever thinks this difference of spirit incomconsiderable,—whoever does not feel it at once when pointed out,—whoever can believe that the parts as they stand now belong to one artistically constructed Epics,—"will do well not to trouble himself any more either with my criticisms or with epic
nothing to teach us the history of these poems except the poems themselves. Not only do we possess no collateral information respecting them or their authors, but we have no one to describe to us the people or the age in which they originated; our knowledge respecting contemporary Homeric society is collected exclusively from the Homeric compositions themselves. We are ignorant whether any other, or what other, poems preceded them or divided with them the public favour, nor have we anything better than conjecture to determine either the circumstances under which they were brought before the hearers, or the conditions which a bard of that day was required to satisfy. On all these points, moreover, the age of Thucydidés¹ and Plato seems to have been no better in

poetry, because he is too weak to understand anything about it" ("weil er zu schwach ist etwas darin zu verstehen") : Fernere Betrachtungen Ueber die Ilias: Abhandl. Berlin. Acad. 1841, p. 18, § xxiii.

On the contrary, Ulrici, after having shown (or tried to show) that the composition of Homer satisfies perfectly, in the main, all the exigences of an artistic epic—adds, that this will make itself at once evident to all those who have any sense of artistic symmetry; but that for those to whom that sense is wanting, no conclusive demonstration can be given. He warns the latter, however, that they are not to deny the existence of that which their short-sighted vision cannot distinguish, for everything cannot be made clear to children, which the mature man sees through at a glance (Ulrici, Geschichte des Griechischen Epos, Part i. ch. vii. p. 260–261). Read also Payne Knight, Proleg. c. xxvii., about the insanity of the Wulfian school, obvious even to the "hommemus e trivio."

I have the misfortune to dissent from both Lachmann and Ulrici; for it appears to me a mistake to put the Iliad and Odyssey on the same footing, as Ulrici does, and as is too frequently done by others.

¹ Plato, Aristotle, and their contemporaries generally, read the most suspicious portions of the Homeric poems as genuine (Nitzsch, Plan und Gang der Odyssee, in the Preface to his second vol. of Commenta on the Odyssey, p. lx–lxxiv.).

Thucydidés accepts the Hymn to Apollo as a composition by the author of the Iliad.
formed than we are, except in so far as they could profit by the analogies of the cyclic and other epic poems, which would doubtless in many cases have afforded valuable aid.

Nevertheless no classical scholar can be easy without some opinion respecting the authorship of these immortal poems. And the more defective the evidence we possess, the more essential is it that all that evidence should be marshalled in the clearest order, and its bearing upon the points in controversy distinctly understood beforehand. Both these conditions seem to have been often neglected, throughout the long-continued Homeric discussion.

To illustrate the first point:—Since two poems are comprehended in the problem to be solved, the natural process would be, first to study the easier of the two, and then to apply the conclusions thence deduced as a means of explaining the other. Now the Odyssey, looking at its aggregate character, is incomparably more easy to comprehend than the Iliad. Yet most Homeric critics apply the microscope at once, and in the first instance, to the Iliad.

To illustrate the second point:—What evidence is sufficient to negative the supposition that the Iliad or the Odyssey is a poem originally and intentionally one? Not simply particular gaps and contradictions, though they be even gross and numerous; but the preponderance of these proofs of mere unprepared coalescence over the other proofs of designed adaptation scattered throughout the whole poem. For the poet (or the cooperating poets, if more than one) may have intended to
compose an harmonious whole, but may have realised their intention incompletely, and left partial faults; or perhaps the contradictory lines may have crept in through a corrupt text. A survey of the whole poem is necessary to determine the question; and this necessity, too, has not always been attended to.

If it had happened that the Odyssey had been preserved to us alone, without the Iliad, I think the dispute respecting Homeric unity would never have been raised. For the former is, in my judgment, pervaded almost from beginning to end by marks of designed adaptation; and the special faults which Wolf, W. Müller, and B. Thiersch\footnote{Bernhard Thiersch, Ueber das Zeitalter und Vaterland des Homer (Halberstadt 1832), Einleitung, p. 4–18.}, have singled out for the purpose of disproving such unity of intention, are so few and of so little importance, that they would have been universally regarded as mere instances of haste or unskillfulness on the part of the poet, had they not been seconded by the far more powerful battery opened against the Iliad. These critics having laid down their general presumptions against the antiquity of the long epopee, illustrate their principles by exposing the many flaws and fissures in the Iliad, and then think it sufficient if they can show a few similar defects in the Odyssey—as if the breaking up of Homeric unity in the former naturally entailed a similar necessity with regard to the latter; and their method of proceeding, contrary to the rule above laid down, puts the more difficult problem in the foreground, as a means of solution for the easier. We can
hardly wonder, however, that they have applied their observations in the first instance to the Iliad, because it is in every man's esteem the more marked, striking, and impressive poem of the two—and the character of Homer is more intimately identified with it than with the Odyssey. This may serve as an explanation of the course pursued; but be the case as it may in respect to comparative poetical merit, it is not the less true, that as an aggregate, the Odyssey is more simple and easily understood, and therefore ought to come first in the order of analysis.

Now, looking at the Odyssey by itself, the proofs of an unity of design seem unequivocal and everywhere to be found. A premeditated structure, and a concentration of interest upon one prime hero under well-defined circumstances, may be traced from the first book to the twenty-third. Odysseus is always either directly or indirectly kept before the reader, as a warrior returning from the fulness of glory at Troy, exposed to manifold and protracted calamities during his return home, on which his whole soul is so bent that he refuses even the immortality offered by Calypso;—a victim, moreover, even after his return, to mingled injury and insult from the suitors, who have long been plundering his property and dishonouring his house; but at length obtaining, by valour and cunning united, a signal revenge which restores him to all that he had lost. All the persons and all the events in the poem are subsidiary to this main plot; and the divine agency, necessary to satisfy the feeling of the Homeric man, is put forth by Poseidon and
Athéné, in both cases from dispositions directly bearing upon Odysseus. To appreciate the unity of the Odyssey, we have only to read the objections taken against that of the Iliad—especially in regard to the long withdrawal of Achilles, not only from the scene, but from the memory—together with the independent prominence of Ajax, Diomèdes and other heroes. How far we are entitled from hence to infer the want of premeditated unity in the Iliad, will be presently considered; but it is certain that the constitution of the Odyssey in this respect everywhere demonstrates the presence of such unity. Whatever may be the interest attached to Penelope, Telemachus, or Eumæus, we never disconnect them from their association with Odysseus. The present is not the place for collecting the many marks of artistical structure dispersed throughout this poem; but it may be worth while to remark, that the final catastrophe realised in the twenty-second book—the slaughter of the suitors in the very house which they were profaning—is distinctly and prominently marked out in the first and second books, promised by Teiresias in the eleventh, by Athéné in the thirteenth, and by Helen in the fifteenth, and gradually matured by a series of suitable preliminaries, throughout the eight books preceding its occurrence1. Indeed what is principally evident, and what has been often noticed, in the Odyssey, is, the equable flow both of the narrative and the events; the absence of that rise and

1 Compare t. 295; ii. 146 (σπωνεί χείρα ἑτερα δία ποταμομεν πάντεν); xi. 118; xii. 395; xv. 178; also xiv. 162.
fall of interest which is sufficiently conspicuous in the Iliad.

To set against these evidences of unity, there ought at least to be some strong cases produced of occasional incoherence or contradiction. But it is remarkable how little of such counter-evidence is to be found, although the arguments of Wolf, W. Müller, and B. Thiersch stand so much in need of it. They have discovered only one instance of undeniable inconsistency in the parts—the number of days occupied by the absence of Telemachus at Pylus and Sparta. That young prince, though represented as in great haste to depart, and refusing pressing invitations to prolong his stay, must nevertheless be supposed to have continued for thirty days the guest of Menelaus, in order to bring his proceedings into chronological harmony with those of Odysseus, and to explain the first meeting of father and son in the swine-fold of Eumaeus. Here is undoubtedly an inaccuracy (so Nitzsch treats it, and I think justly) on the part

1 Nitzsch, Plan und Gang der Odyssee, p. xiii., prefixed to the second vol. of his Commentary on the Odyssey.

2. At carminum primi auditorum non adeo curiosi erant (observes Mr. Payne Knight, Proleg. c. xxiii.), ut ejusmodi rerum rationes aut exquirent aut expenderent; neque corum fides e subtilioribus congruentibus omnino pendebat. Moneundi enim sunt etiam etiam etiam Homericorum studiosi, veteres illis audebant non linguam professoriam inter vives criticos et grammaticos, aut alios quosunque argutiarum captatores, carminis cautissas, sed inter se qui sensibus animorum libere, maxime, et effusae indulgerent, &c. Chap. xxiii.—xxvii. of Mr. Knight's Prolegomena are valuable to the same purpose, showing the "hominem rudest et agrestissimo" of that day as excellent judges of what fell under their senses and observation, but careless, credulous, and unobservant of contradiction, in matters which came only under the mind's eye.
of the poet, who did not anticipate, and did not experience in ancient times, so strict a scrutiny; an inaccuracy certainly not at all wonderful; the matter of real wonder is, that it stands almost alone, and that there are no others in the poem.

Now this is one of the main points on which W. Müller and B. Thiersch rest their theory—explaining the chronological confusion by supposing that the journey of Telemachus to Pylus and Sparta constituted the subject of an epic originally separate (comprising the first four books and a portion of the fifteenth), and incorporated at second-hand with the remaining poem. And they conceive this view to be farther confirmed by the double assembly of the gods, (at the beginning of the first book as well as of the fifth) which they treat as an awkward repetition, such as could not have formed part of the primary scheme of any epic poet. But here they only escape a small difficulty by running into another and a greater. For it is impossible to comprehend how the first four books and part of the fifteenth can ever have constituted a distinct epic; since the adventures of Telemachus have no satisfactory termination, except at the point of confluence with those of his father, when the unexpected meeting and recognition takes place under the roof of Eumæus—nor can any epic poem ever have described that meeting and recognition without giving some account how Odysseus came thither. Moreover the first two books of the Odyssey distinctly lay the ground, and carry expectation forward, to the final catastrophe of the poem—treating Telemachus as a subordinate person,
and his expedition as merely provisional towards an ulterior result. Nor can I agree with W. Müller, that the real Odyssey might well be supposed to begin with the fifth book. On the contrary, the exhibition of the suitors and the Ithakesian agora, presented to us in the second book, is absolutely essential to the full comprehension of the books subsequent to the thirteenth. The suitors are far too important personages in the poem to allow of their being first introduced in so informal a manner as we read in the sixteenth book: indeed the passing allusions of Athéné (xiii. 310, 375) and Eumaeus (xiv. 41, 81) to the suitors, presuppose cognizance of them on the part of the hearer.

Lastly, the twofold discussion of the gods, at the beginning of the first and fifth books, and the double interference of Athéné, far from being a needless repetition, may be shown to suit perfectly both the genuine epical conditions and the unity of the poem⁠[1]. For although the final consummation, and the organization of measures against the suitors, was to be accomplished by Odysseus and Telemachus jointly, yet the march and adventures of the two, until the moment of their meeting in the dwelling of Eumaeus, were essentially distinct. But according to the religious ideas of the old epic, the presiding direction of Athéné was necessary for the safety

⁠[1] W. Müller is not correct in saying that in the first assembly of the gods, Zeus promises something which he does not perform. Zeus does not promise to send Hermès as messenger to Kalypso, in the first book, though Athéné urges him to do so. Zeus indeed requires to be urged twice before he dictates to Kalypso the release of Odysseus, but he had already intimated in the first book that he felt great difficulty in protecting the hero, because of the wrath manifested against him by Poseidôn.
and success of both of them. Her first interference arouses and inspires the son, her second produces the liberation of the father—constituting a point of union and common origination for two lines of adventures, in both of which she takes earnest interest, but which are necessarily for a time kept apart in order to coincide at the proper moment.

It will thus appear that the twice-repeated agora of the gods in the Odyssey, bringing home as it does to one and the same divine agent that double start which is essential to the scheme of the poem, consists better with the supposition of premeditated unity than with that of distinct self-existent parts. And assuredly the manner in which Telemachus and Odysseus, both by different roads, are brought into meeting and conjunction at the dwelling of Eumæus, is something not only contrived, but very skilfully contrived. It is needless to advert to the highly interesting character of Eumæus, rendered available as a rallying point, though in different ways, both to the father and the son, over and above the sympathy which he himself inspires.

If the Odyssey be not an original unity, of what self-existent parts can we imagine it to have consisted? To this question it is difficult to imagine a satisfactory reply: for the supposition that Telemachus and his adventures may once have formed the subject of a separate epos, apart from Odysseus, appears inconsistent with the whole character of that youth as it stands in the poem, and with the events in which he is made to take part. We could better imagine the distribution of the adventures of Odysseus himself into two parts—one containing
his wanderings and return, the other handling his ill-treatment by the suitors and his final triumph. But though either of these two subjects might have been adequate to furnish out a separate poem, it is nevertheless certain, that as they are presented in the Odyssey, the former cannot be divorced from the latter. The simple return of Odysseus, as it now stands in the poem, could satisfy no one as a final close, so long as the suitors remain in possession of his house and forbid his reunion with his wife. Any poem which treated his wanderings and return separately, must have represented his reunion with Penelope and restoration to his house as following naturally upon his arrival in Ithaca—thus taking little or no notice of the suitors. But this would be a capital mutilation of the actual epic narrative, which considers the suitors at home as an essential portion of the destiny of the much-suffering hero, not less than his shipwrecks and trials at sea. His return (separately taken) is foredoomed, according to the curse of Polyphemus executed by Poseidon, to be long-deferred, miserable, solitary, and ending with destruction in his house to greet him 1; and the ground is thus laid, in the very recital of his wanderings, for a new series of events which are to happen to him after his arrival in Ithaca. There is no tenable halting-place between the departure of Odysseus from Troy and the final restoration to his house and his wife. The distance

1 Odys. ix. 534.—

1 Orfe κατὰ Διήνυ, ἀλλωσε ἀπὸ πάντως ἐπιρρεῖν,
Νῦν ἐν θαλατταῖς, εἴρησε ἐν πῆμα στάιν

2 θα θαντε, εὐχόμενος (the Cyclopa to Poseidon) τοῖς τῶν Κυκλόπων.
between these two events may indeed be widened, by accumulating new distresses and impediments, but any separate portion of it cannot be otherwise treated than as a fraction of the whole. The beginning and end are here the data in respect to epical genesis, though the intermediate events admit of being conceived as variables, more or less numerous: so that the conception of the whole may be said without impropriety both to precede and to govern that of the constituent parts.

The general result of a study of the Odyssey may be set down as follows:—1. The poem as it now stands exhibits unequivocally adaptation of parts and continuity of structure, whether by one or by several consentient hands: it may perhaps be a secondary formation, out of a pre-existing Odyssey of smaller dimensions; but if so, the parts of the smaller whole must have been so far recast as to make them suitable members of the larger, and are noway recognisable by us. 2. The subject-matter of the poem not only does not favour, but goes far to exclude, the possibility of the Wolfian hypothesis. Its events cannot be so arranged as to have composed several antecedent substantive epics, afterwards put together into the present aggregate. Its authors cannot have been mere compilers of pre-existing materials, such as Peisistratus and his friends: they must have been poets, competent to work such matter as they found into a new and enlarged design of their own. Nor can the age in which this long poem, of so many thousand lines, was turned out as a continuous aggregate, be separated
from the ancient, productive, inspired age of Greek epic.

Arriving at such conclusions from the internal evidence of the Odyssey, we can apply them by analogy to the Iliad. We learn something respecting the character and capacities of that early age which has left no other mementos except these two poems. Long continuous epics (it is observed by those who support the views of Wolf), with an artistical structure, are inconsistent with the capacities of a rude and non-writing age. Such epics (we may reply) are not inconsistent with the early age of the Greeks, and the Odyssey is a proof of it; for in that poem the integration of the whole, and the composition of the parts, must have been simultaneous. The analogy of the Odyssey enables us to rebut that preconception under which many ingenious critics sit down to the study of the Iliad, and which induces them to explain all the incoherencies of the latter by breaking it up into smaller units, as if short epics were the only manifestation of poetical power which the age admitted. There ought to be no reluctance in admitting a presiding scheme and premeditated unity of parts.

1 Wolf admits, in most unequivocal language, the compact and artful structure of the Odyssey. Against this positive internal evidence he sets the general presumption, that no such constructive art can possibly have belonged to a poet of the age of Homer:—“De Odysseis maximo, eujus admirabilis summa et compages pro praecellissimo monumento Greci ingenii labenda est... Unica fit in Odyssean nemo, cum omnino prorsus viris placet, nisi perlectam et quam depurare quern. At illi sunt ipsum est, quod existo ne ne quisque cadere videtur in rationem singularis tantum rhapsodias decensante.” &c. (Prolegomena, p. cxxiii.; compare cxxv.)
in so far as the parts themselves point to such a conclusion.

That the Iliad is not so essentially one piece as the Odyssey, every man agrees. It includes a much greater multiplicity of events, and what is yet more important, a greater multiplicity of prominent personages: the very indefinite title which it bears, as contrasted with the speciality of the name Odyssey, marks the difference at once. The parts stand out more conspicuously from the whole, and admit more readily of being felt and appreciated in detached recitation. We may also add, that it is of more unequal execution than the Odyssey—often rising to a far higher pitch of grandeur, but also occasionally tamer: the story does not move on continuously; incidents occur without plausible motive, nor can we shut our eyes to evidences of incoherence and contradiction.

To a certain extent, the Iliad is open to all these remarks, though Wolf and William Müller, and above all Lachmann, exaggerate the case in degree. And from hence has been deduced the hypothesis which treats the parts in their original state as separate integers, independent of and unconnected with each other, and forced into unity only by the afterthought of a subsequent age; or sometimes not even themselves as integers, but as aggregates grouped together out of fragments still smaller—short epics formed by the coalescence of still shorter songs. Now there is some plausibility in these reasonings, so long as the discrepancies are looked upon as the whole of the case. But in point of fact they are not the whole of the
case: for it is not less true, that there are large portions of the Iliad which present positive and undeniable evidences of coherence as antecedent and consequent, though we are occasionally perplexed by inconsistencies of detail. To deal with these latter, is a portion of the duties of the critic. But he is not to treat the Iliad as if inconsistency prevailed everywhere throughout its parts; for coherence of parts—symmetrical antecedence and consequence—is discernible throughout the larger half of the poem.

Now the Wolfian theory explains the gaps and contradictions throughout the narrative, but it explains nothing else. If (as Lachmann thinks) the Iliad originally consisted of sixteen songs or little substantive epics (Lachmann's sixteen songs cover the space only as far as the 22nd book or the death of Hector, and two more songs would have to be admitted for the 23rd and 24th books)—not only composed by different authors, but by each without any view to conjunction with the rest—we have then no right to expect any intrinsic continuity between them; and all that continuity which we now find must be of extraneous origin. Where are we to look for the origin? Lachmann

1 Lachmann seems to admit one case in which the composer of one song manifests cognizance of another song, and a disposition to give what will form a sequel to it. His fifteenth song (the Patrokleia) lasts from xv. 592 down to the end of the 17th book: the sixteenth song (including the four next books, from 18 to 22 melia) is a continuation of the fifteenth, but by a different poet. (Fernere Betrachtungen über die Ilias, Abhandl. Berlin. Acad. 1841, sect. xxvi. xxviii. xxix. pp. 24, 34, 42.)

This admission of premeditated adaptation to a certain extent breaks up the integrity of the Wolfian hypothesis.
follows Wolf in ascribing the whole constructive process to Peisistratus and his associates, at a period when the creative epicical faculty is admitted to have died out. But upon this supposition Peisistratus (or his associates) must have done much more than omit, transpose, and interpolate, here and there; he must have gone so far to rewrite the whole poem. A great poet might have recast pre-existing separate songs into one comprehensive whole, but no mere arrangers or compilers would be competent to do so: and we are thus left without any means of accounting for that degree of continuity and consistence which runs through so large a portion of the Iliad, though not through the whole. The idea that the poem as we read it grew out of atoms not originally designed for the places which they now occupy, involves us in new and inextricable difficulties when we seek to elucidate either the mode of coalescence or the degree of existing unity.

\[1\] The advocates of the Wolfian theory appear to feel the difficulties which beset it; for their language is wavering in respect to those supposed primary constituent atoms. Sometimes Lachmann tells us, that the original pieces were much finer poetry than the Iliad as we now read it; at another time, that it cannot be now discovered what they originally were: nay, he further admits (as remarked in the preceding note) that the poet of the sixteenth song had cognisance of the fifteenth.

But if it be granted that the original constituent songs were so composed, though by different poets, as that the more recent were adapted to the earlier, with more or less dexterity and success, this brings us into totally different conditions of the problem. It is a virtual surrender of the Wolfian hypothesis, which however Lachmann both means to defend, and does defend with ability; though his vindication of it has, to my mind, only the effect of exposing its inherent weakness by carrying it out into something detailed and positive. I will add, in respect to his Dissertations, so instructive as a microscopic examination of the poem,—1. That I find myself constantly dissenting from
Admitting then premeditated adaptation of parts to a certain extent as essential to the Iliad, we may yet inquire whether it was produced all at once or gradually enlarged—whether by one author or by several; and if the parts be of different age, which is the primitive kernel, and which are the additions.

Welcker, Lange, and Nitzsch treat the Homeric poems as representing a second step in advance, in the progress of popular poetry. First comes the age of short narrative songs; next, when these have become numerous, there arise constructive minds who recast and blend together many of them into a larger aggregate conceived upon some scheme of their own. The age of the epos is followed by that of the epopee—short spontaneous effusions preparing the way, and furnishing materials, for the architectonic genius of the poet. It is further presumed by the above-mentioned authors that the pre-Homeric epic included a great abundance of such smaller songs;—a fact which admits of no proof, but which seems countenanced by some passages in Homer, and is in itself noway improbable. But the transition from such songs, assuming them to be ever so numerous, to a combined and continuous poem, forms an epoch in the intellectual history of the nation, implying mental that critical feeling, on the strength of which he cuts out parts as interpolations, and discovers traces of the hand of distinct poets: 2. that his objections against the continuity of the narrative are often founded upon lines which the ancient scholiasts and Mr. Payne Knight had already pronounced to be interpolations; 3. that such of his objections as are founded upon lines undisputed, admit in many cases of a complete and satisfactory reply.

Lange, in his Letter to Goethe, Über die Einheit der Ilias, p. 33 (1826); Nitzsch, Historia Homer, Fasciculus 2. Præfât. p. x.
qualities of a higher order than those upon which the songs themselves depend. Nor is it to be imagined that the materials pass unaltered from their first state of isolation into their second state of combination. They must of necessity be recast, and undergo an adapting process, in which the genius of the organizing poet consists; nor can we hope, by simply knowing them as they exist in the second stage, ever to divine how they stood in the first. Such, in my judgement, is the right conception of the Homeric epoch,—an organising poetical mind, still preserving that freshness of observation and vivacity of details which constitutes the charm of the ballad.

Nothing is gained by studying the Iliad as a congeries of fragments once independent of each other; no portion of the poem can be shown to have ever been so, and the supposition introduces difficulties greater than those which it removes. But it is not necessary to affirm that the whole poem as we now read it belonged to the original and pre-conceived plan. In this respect the Iliad produces

1 Even Aristotle, the great builder-up of the celebrity of Homer as to epicus aggregation, found some occasions (it appears) on which he was obliged to be content with simply examining, without admiring, the poet (Poet. 44. τοις Ἀλκετη ἔργον τοις παιρην ἐλένεις ἢπειρητε το ἄρκειν).

And Hermann observes justly, in his acute treatise De Interpolationibus Homeri (Opuscula, tom. v. p. 53),—"Nisi admirabilis ilia Homericorum carminum Evans lectorum animos quasi incantationibus quibusdam captos tenere, non tam facile delitesserent, quae securitas considerata, et multa minus apta quam quis jurat postulat composita esse appareat necessar eet."
upon my mind an impression totally different from
the Odyssey. In the latter poem, the characters and
incidents are fewer, and the whole plot appears of
one projection, from the beginning down to the
death of the suitors: none of the parts look as if
they had been composed separately and inserted by
way of addition into a pre-existing smaller poem.
But the Iliad, on the contrary, presents the appear-
ance of a house built upon a plan comparatively
narrow and subsequently enlarged by successive
additions. The first book, together with the eighth,
and the books from the eleventh to the twenty-
second inclusive, seem to form the primary orga-
nisation of the poem, then properly an Achilleis:
the twenty-third and twenty-fourth books are, per-
haps, additions at the tail of this primitive poem,
which still leave it nothing more than an enlarged
Achilleis. But the books from the second to the
seventh inclusive, together with the tenth, are of a
wider and more comprehensive character, and con-
vert the poem from an Achilleis into an Iliad¹. The
primitive frontispiece, inscribed with the anger of
Achilles and its direct consequences, yet remains,
after it has ceased to be coextensive with the
poem. The parts added, however, are not neces-
sarily inferior in merit to the original poem: so
far is this from being the case, that amongst them
are comprehended some of the noblest efforts of
the Grecian epic. Nor are they more recent in
date than the original; strictly speaking, they

¹ In reference to the books from the second to the seventh inclusive,
I agree with the observations of William Müller, Homerische Vosschule,
Abschnitt. viii. p. 116-118.
must be a little more recent, but they belong to
the same generation and state of society as the
primitive Achilleis. These qualifications are ne-
cessary to keep apart different questions, which,
in discussions of Homeric criticism, are but too
often confounded.

If we take those portions of the poem which I
imagine to have constituted the original Achilleis, it
will be found that the sequence of events contained
in them is more rapid, more unbroken, and more
intimately knit together in the way of cause and
effect, than in the other books. Heyne and Lach-
mann indeed, with other objecting critics, complains
of the action in them as being too much crowded and
hurried, since one day lasts from the beginning of
the eleventh book to the middle of the eighteenth,
without any sensible halt in the march throughout
so large a portion of the journey. Lachmann like-
wise admits that those separate songs, into which
he imagines that the whole Iliad may be dissected,
cannot be severed with the same sharpness, in the
books subsequent to the eleventh, as in those before
it. There is only one real halting-place from the

1 Lachmann, Fernere Betrachtungen über die Ilias, Abhandlungen
Berlin, Acad. 1841, p. 4.

After having pointed out certain discrepancies which he maintains to
prove different composing hands, he adds,—“Nevertheless, we must
be careful not to regard the single constituent songs in this part of the
poem as being distinct and separable in a degree equal to those in the
first half; for they all with one accord harmonize in one particular
circumstance, which with reference to the story of the Iliad is not less
important even than the anger of Achilles, viz. that the three most
distinguished heroes, Agamemnon, Odysseus, and Diomede, all become
disabled throughout the whole duration of the battles.”

Important for the story of the Achilleis, I should say, not for that
eleventh book to the twenty-second—the death of Patroclus; and this can never be conceived as the end of a separate poem⁷, though it is a capital step in the development of the Achilléis, and brings about that entire revolution in the temper of Achilles which was essential for the purpose of the poet. It would be a mistake to imagine that there ever could have existed a separate poem called Patrocleia, though a part of the Iliad was designated by that name. For Patroclus has no substantive position: he is the attached friend and second of Achilles, but nothing else,—standing to the latter in a relation of dependence resembling that of Telemachus to Odysseus. And the way in which Patroclus is dealt with in the Iliad is (in my judgement) the most dexterous and artistical contrivance in the poem—that which approaches nearest to the neat tissue of the Odyssey².

Of the Iliad. This remark of Lachmann is highly illustrative for the distinction between the original and the enlarged poem.

¹ I confess my astonishment that a man of so much genius and power of thought as M. Benjamin Constant, should have imagined the original Iliad to have concluded with the death of Patroclus, on the ground that Achilles then becomes reconciled with Agamemnon. See the review of B. Constant’s work De la Religion, &c., by O. Müller, in the Kleine Schriften of the latter, vol. ii. p. 74.

² He appears as the mediator between the insulted Achilles and the Greeks, manifesting kindly sympathies for the latter without renouncing his fidelity to the former. The wounded Machaon, an object of interest to the whole camp, being carried off the field by Nestor—Achilles, looking on from his distant ship, sends Patroclus to inquire whether it be really Machaon; which enables Nestor to lay before Patroclus the deplorable state of the Greek host, as a motive to induce him and Achilles again to take arms. The compassionate feelings of Patroclus being powerfully touched, he is hastening to enforce upon Achilles the urgent necessity of giving help, when he meets Eurytychus crying out of the field, helpless with a severe wound, and supplicating
The great and capital misfortune which prostrates the strength of the Greeks and renders them incapable of defending themselves without Achilles, is the disablement by wounds of Agamemnön, Dionèdès, and Odysseus; so that the defence of the wall and of the ships is left only to heroes of the second magnitude (Ajax alone excepted), such as Idomeneus, Leonteus, Polypotès, Merionès, Menelaus, &c. Now it is remarkable that all these three first-rate chiefs are in full force at the beginning of the eleventh book: all three are wounded in the battle which that book describes, and at the commencement of which Agamemnön is full of spirits and courage.

Nothing can be more striking than the manner in which Homer concentrates our attention in the first book upon Achilles as the hero, his quarrel with Agamemnôn, and the calamities to the Greeks which are held out as about to ensue from it, through the intercession of Thetis with Zeus. But the incidents dwelt upon from the beginning of the second book down to the combat between Hector and his succour. He supports the wounded warrior to his tent, and ministers to his suffering; but before this operation is fully completed, the Grecian host has been totally driven back, and the Trojans are on the point of setting fire to the ships. Patroclus then hurries to Achilles to proclaim the desperate peril which hangs over them all, and succeeds in obtaining his permission to take the field at the head of the Myrmidons. The way in which Patroclus is kept present to the bearer, as a prelude to his brilliant but short-lived display when he comes forth in arms,—the contrast between his characteristic gentleness and the ferocity of Achilles,—and the natural train of circumstances whereby he is made the vehicle of reconciliation on the part of his offended friend, and rescue to his imperiled countrymen,—all these exhibit a degree of epical skill, in the author of the primitive Achillëia, to which nothing is found parallel in the added books of the Iliad.
Ajax in the seventh, animated and interesting as they are, do nothing to realise this promise. They are a splendid picture of the Trojan war generally, and eminently suitable to that larger title under which the poem has been immortalised—but the consequences of the anger of Achilles do not appear until the eighth book. The tenth book, or Doloneia, is also a portion of the Iliad, but not of the Achilleis; while the ninth book appears to me a subsequent addition, nowise harmonising with that main stream of the Achilleis which flows from the eleventh book to the twenty-second. The eighth book ought to be read in immediate connection with the eleventh, in order to see the structure of what seems the primitive Achilleis; for there are several passages in the eleventh and the following books⁰, which prove that

⁰ Observe, for example, the following passages:

1. Achilles, standing on the prow of his ship, sees the general army of Greeks undergoing defeat by the Trojans, and also sees Nestor conveying in his chariot a wounded warrior from the field. He sends Patroclus to find out who the wounded man is: in calling forth Patroclus, he says (xi. 607).

Διὶ Μενεκράτε, τῷ μοι χειραρχίας θυμι,
Νεκὼν πόλεμον ὑπὲρ στραταρχὸν Ἀχιλλέως
Ἀριστότενας χρόνον γὰρ ἱερὰν ὁδόν τερέσσιον.

Heyne, in his comment, asks the question, not unreasonably, "Pompeius ist erat experitatis erga priorem legationem, an homo auroplagi expectaverit alteram ad se missionem?" I answer, neither one nor the other: the words imply that he had received no embassy at all. He is still the same Achilles who in the first book pouted alone by the seashore, devouring his own soul under a sense of bitter affront, and praying to Thetis to aid his revenge; this revenge is now about to be realised, and he hails its approach with delight. But if we admit the embassy of the ninth book to intervene, the passage becomes a glaring inconsistency: for that which Achilles anticipates as future, and even yet as contingent, had actually occurred on the previous evening: the Greeks had supplicated at his feet—they had proclaimed their intolerable need,—and he had spurned them. The Scholiast, in his explanation of these
the poet who composed them could not have had present to his mind the main event of the ninth
lines, after giving the plain meaning, that "Achilles shows what he has long been desiring, to see the Greeks in a state of supplication to him"—seems to recollect that this is in contradiction to the ninth book, and tries to remove the contradiction by saying "that he had been previously mollified by conversation with Phoenix." —ὅτι ἐν προσαλλήθη δὲ ἐπὶ τῶν Φαίδον τῶν Ἀχιλλῶν—a supposition neither countenanced by any thing in the poet, nor sufficient to remove the difficulty.

2. The speech of Poseidon (xiv. 115) to encourage the disquieted Greek heroes, in which, after having admitted the injury done to Achilles by Agamemnon, he recommends an effort to heal the sore, and intimates "that the minds of good men admit of this healing process." ("Ἀλλὰ ἰδοῦ τίς διὰ τοῦτο δικαιοῦται ἵνα φῶςτε ἔνθελον") is certainly not very consistent with the supposition that this attempt to heal had been made in the best possible way, and that Achilles had manifested a mind implausible in the extreme on the evening before—while the mind of Agamemnon was already brought to proclaimed humiliation and needed no further healing.

3. And what shall we say to the language of Achilles and Patroclus at the beginning of the sixteenth book, just at the moment when the danger has reached its maximum, and when Achilles is about to send forth his friend?

Neither Nestor, when he invokes and instructs Patroclus as intercessor with Achilles (xi. 654-700), nor Patroclus himself, though in the extreme of anxiety to work upon the mind of Achilles, and reproaching him with hardness of heart—ever bring to remembrance the ample atonement which had been tendered to him; while Achilles himself repeats the original ground of quarrel, the wrong offered to him in taking away Briseis, continuing the language of the first book; then without the least allusion to the atonement and restitution since tendered, he yields to his friend's proposition just like a man whose wrong remained unredressed, but who was nevertheless forced to take arms by necessity (xvi. 52-63)?

"Ἀλλὰ τῷ μὲν προτέτομαι ἀντίκειται, οὐδὲ ἢκα πὼς δὲν ἢκα τῇ ἐπιστέφειν ἐκ ἑαυτοῦ ἢ ἐκόμπον ἢ μηῖρον ἢ μη ipairs ἢ μηしております, "The Trojans (Achilles says) now press boldly forward upon the ships, for they no longer see the blaze of my helmet": but if Agamemnon were favourably disposed towards me,
book,—the outpouring of profound humiliation by the Greeks, and from Agamemnon especially, before they would presently run away and fill the ditches with their dead bodies" (71):—

\[
\text{τόχα καὶ δεξαμενὲς έυικῶν}
\]

Πρήσσων τεκέον, εἰ μοι κρίειν Αγαμέμνων

"Ημα εἴδες τίνι δέ οισίμων θρίαμβοιν.

Now here again, if we take our start from the first book, omitting the ninth, the sentiment is perfectly just. But assume the ninth book, and it becomes false and misplaced; for Agamemnon is then a prostrate and repentant man, not merely "favourably disposed" towards Achilles, but offering to pay any price for the purpose of appeasing him.

4. Again, a few lines further, in the same speech, Achilles permits Patroclus to go forth, in consideration of the extreme peril of the fleet, but restricts him simply to avert this peril and do nothing more: "Obey my words, so that you may procure for me honour and glory from the body of Greeks, and that they may send back to me the damsel, giving me ample presents besides: when you have driven the Trojans from the ships, come back again":

\[
\text{De δὲ μοι τροίη μεγάλην καὶ εἴδος ἄροι}
\]

Πρὸς θανῶν δαμαστ' εἰσίν οἱ περιπατεῖν αὐτήν

"Αφ' ἀπαντασσόμεν, προτί ᾗ ἀγιαὶ δόμα πέρωσιν'

\[
\text{Εἴναϊ ἑλάσας, ἔνα παιδί} (81–87).
\]

How are we to reconcile this with the ninth book, where Achilles declares that he does not care for being honoured by the Greeks, ix. 601? In the mouth of the affronted Achilles of the first book such words are apt enough: he will grant succour, but only to the extent necessary for the emergency, and in such a way as to ensure redress for his own wrong,—which redress he has no reason as yet to conclude that Agamemnon is willing to grant. But the ninth book has actually tendered to him everything which he here demands and even more (the daughter of Agamemnon in marriage, without the price usually paid for a bride, &c.) Bricées, whom now he is so anxious to repossess, was then offered in restitution, and he disclaimed the offer. Mr. Knight in fact strikes out these lines as spurious; partly, because they contradict the ninth book, where Achilles has actually rejected what he here thirsts for ("Dona cum paulli jam ante obhata aspernatus erat")—partly because he thinks that they express a sentiment unworthy of Achilles; in which latter criticism I do not concur.

5. We proceed a little farther to the address of Patroclus to the Myrmidons, as he is conducting them forth to the battle: "Fight bravely, Myrmidons, that we may bring honour to Achilles; and that the wide-ruling Agamemnon may know the man fully which he committed when he disowned the bravest of the Greeks."

To impress this knowledge upon Agamemnon was no longer neces-
fore Achilles, coupled with formal offers to restore Briséis and pay the ampest compensation for past

The ninth book records his humiliating confession of it, accompanied by atonement and repentance. To teach him the lesson a second time is to break the bruised reed—to slay the slain. But leave out the ninth book, and the motive is the natural one—both for Patroclus to offer, and for the Myrmidons to obey. Achilles still remains a dishonoured man, and to humble the rival who has dishonoured him is the first of all objects, as well with his friends as with himself.

6. Lastly, the time comes when Achilles, in deep anguish for the death of Patroclus, looks back with aversion and repentance to the past. To what point should we expect that his repentance would naturally turn? Not to his primary quarrel with Agamemnón, in which he had been unhesitatingly wronged—but to the scene in the ninth book, where the maximum of atonement for the previous wrong is tendered to him and scornfully rejected. Yet when we turn to xiii. 108, and xix. 55, 68, 270, we find him reverting to the primitive quarrel in the first book, just as if it had been the last incident in his relations with Agamemnón: moreover Agamemnón (xix. 86), in his speech of reconciliation, treats the past just in the same way,—deplors his original inanity in wronging Achilles.

7. When we look to the prayers of Achilles and Thetis, addressed to Zeus in the first book, we find that the consummation prayed for is,—honour to Achilles,—redress for the wrong offered to him,—victory to the Trojans until Agamemnón and the Greeks shall be made bitterly sensible of the wrong which they have done to their bravest warrior (i. 402–512). Now this consummation is brought about in the ninth book. Achilles can get no more, nor does he ultimately get more, either in the way of redress to himself or remorseful humiliation of Agamemnón, than what is here tendered. The defeat which the Greeks suffer in the battle of the eighth book (Kósmo hipó Mínyo) has brought about the consummation. The subsequent and much more destructive defeats which they undergo are thus casuless; yet Zeus is represented as inflicting them reluctantly, and only because they are necessary to honour Achilles (xx. 350; xv. 75, 235, 598; compare also viii. 372 and 475).

If we reflect upon the constitution of the poem, we shall see that the fundamental sequence of ideas in it is, a series of misfortunes to the Greeks, brought on by Zeus for the special purpose of procuring atonement to Achilles and bringing humiliation on Agamemnón: the introduction of Patroclus superadds new motives of the utmost interest, but it is most harmoniously worked into the fundamental sequence. Now the intrusion of the ninth book breaks up the scheme of the poem by disrupting this sequence: Agamemnón is on his knees before Achilles, entreatin pardon and proffering reparation, yet the calamities of the
wrong. The words of Achilles (not less than those of Patroclus and Nestor) in the eleventh and in the following books, plainly imply that the humiliation of the Greeks before him, for which he thirsts, is as yet future and contingent; that no plenary apology has yet been tendered, nor any offer made of restoring Brises; while both Nestor and Patroclus, with all their wish to induce him to take arms, never take notice of the offered atonement and restitution, but view him as one whose

Greeks become more and more dreadful. The atonement of the ninth book comes at the wrong time and in the wrong manner.

There are four passages (and only four, so far as I am aware) in which the embassy of the ninth book is alluded to in the subsequent books: one in xviii. 444-456, which was explained as spurious by Aristarchus (see the Scholia and Knight’s commentary ad loc.); and three others in the following book, wherein the gifts previously tendered by Odysseus as the envoy of Agamemnon are noticed as identical with the gifts actually given in the nineteenth book: I feel persuaded that these passages (vv. 140-141, 192-195, and 243) are specially inserted for the purpose of establishing a connexion between the ninth book and the nineteenth. The four lines (192-195) are decidedly better away: the first two lines (140-141) are noway necessary; while the word ἡθος (which occurs in both passages) is only rendered admissible by being stretched to mean ἡθος τέταρτος (Heyne ad loc.).

I will only further remark with respect to the ninth book, that the speech of Agamemnon (17-29), the theme for the rebuke of Diomedes and the obscure commonplace of Nestor, is taken verbatim from his speech in the second book, in which place the proposition, of leaving the place and flying, is made, not seriously, but as a stratagem (vii. 110, 118, 140).

The length of this note cannot be excused by its direct bearing upon the structure of the Iliad. To show that the books from the eleventh downwards are composed by a poet who has no knowledge of the ninth book, is, in my judgement, a very important point of evidence in aiding us to understand what the original Achilleia was. The books from the second to the seventh inclusive are insertions into the Achilleia and lie apart from its plot, but do not violently contradict it, except in regard to the agon of the gods at the beginning of the fourth book, and the almost mortal wound of Sarpedon in his battle with Telemachus. But the ninth book overthrows the fundamental scheme of the poem.
ground for quarrel stands still the same as it did at the beginning. Moreover, if we look at the first book—the opening of the Achilléis—we shall see that this prostration of Agamemnôn and the chief Grecian heroes before Achilles would really be the termination of the whole poem; for Achilles asks nothing more from Thetis, nor Thetis anything more from Zeus, than that Agamemnôn and the Greeks may be brought to know the wrong that they have done to their capital warrior, and humbled in the dust in expiation of it. We may add, that the abject terror, in which Agamemnôn appears in the ninth book when he sends the suppliantary message to Achilles, as it is not adequately accounted for by the degree of calamity which the Greeks have experienced in the preceding (eighth) book, so it is inconsistent with the gallantry and high spirit with which he shines at the beginning of the eleventh. The situation of the Greeks only becomes desperate when the three great chiefs, Agamemnôn, Odysseus, and Diomèdes, are disabled by wounds; this is the irreparable calamity which works upon Patroclus, and through him upon Achilles. The ninth book as it now stands seems to

1 Helbig (Sittl. Zustände des Heldentums, p. 30) says, "The consciousness in the bosom of Agamemnôn that he has offered atonement to Achilles strengthens his confidence and valour." &c. This is the idea of the critic, not of the poet. It does not occur in the Iliad, though the critic not unnaturally imagines that it must occur. Agamemnôn never says—"I was wrong in provoking Achilles, but you see I have done everything which man could do to beg his pardon." Assuming the ninth book to be a part of the original conception, this feeling is so natural, that we could hardly fail to find it at the beginning of the eleventh book, numbered among the motives of Agamemnôn.

2 Iliad, xi. 639; xiv. 128; xvi. 25.
me an addition, by a different hand to the original Achilleis, framed so as both to forestal and to spoil the nineteenth book, which is the real reconciliation of the two inimical heroes: I will venture to add that it carries the pride and egotism of Achilles beyond even the largest exigences of insulted honour, and is shocking to that sentiment of Nemesis which was so deeply seated in the Grecian mind. We forgive any excess of fury against the Trojans and Hector, after the death of Patroclus; but that he should remain unmoved by restitution, by abject supplications, and by the richest atoning presents, tendered from the Greeks, indicates an implacability such as neither the first book, nor the books between the eleventh and seventeenth, convey.

It is with the Grecian agora in the beginning of the second book that the Iliad (as distinguished from the Achilleis) commences,—continued through the Catalogue, the muster of the two armies, the single combat between Menelaus and Paris, the renewed promiscuous battle caused by the arrow of Pandarus; the (Epipolēsis or) personal circuit of Agamemnōn round the army, the Aristeia or brilliant exploits of Diomēdēs, the visit of Hector to Troy for purposes of sacrifice, his interview with Andromachē, and his combat with Ajax—down to the seventh book. All these are beautiful poetry, presenting to us the general Trojan war and its conspicuous individuals under different points of view, but leaving no room in the reader's mind for the thought of Achilles. Now the difficulty for an enlarging poet was, to pass from the Achilleis in the first book to the Iliad in the second, and it will
accordingly be found that here is an awkwardness in the structure of the poem which counsel on the poet's behalf (ancient or modern) do not satisfactorily explain.

In the first book, Zeus has promised Thetis that he will punish the Greeks for the wrong done to Achilles; in the beginning of the second book, he deliberates how he shall fulfil the promise, and sends down for that purpose "mischievous Oneirus" (the Dream-God) to visit Agamemnôn in his sleep, to assure him that the gods have now with one accord consented to put Troy into his hands, and to exhort him forthwith to the assembling of his army for the attack. The ancient commentators were here perplexed by the circumstance that Zeus puts a falsehood into the mouth of Oneirus. But there seems no more difficulty in explaining this than in the narrative of the book of 1 Kings (chap. xxii. 20), where Jehovah is mentioned to have put a lying spirit into the mouth of Ahab's prophets—the real awkwardness is, that Oneirus and his falsehood produce no effect. For in the first place Agamemnôn takes a step very different from that which his dream recommends—and in the next place, when the Grecian army is at length armed and goes forth to battle, it does not experience defeat (which would be the case if the exhortation of Oneirus really proved mischievous), but carries on a successful day's battle, chiefly through the heroism of Diomèdês. Instead of arming the Greeks forthwith, Agamemnôn convokes first a council of chiefs, and next an agora of the host. And though himself in a temper of mind
highly elate with the deceitful assurances of Oneirus, he deliberately assumes the language of despair in addressing the troops, having previously prepared Nestor and Odysseus for his doing so—merely in order to try the courage of the men, and with formal instructions given to these two other chiefs that they are to speak in opposition to him. Now this intervention of Zeus and Oneirus, eminently unsatisfactory when coupled with the incidents which now follow it, and making Zeus appear, but only appear, to realise his promise of honouring Achilles as well as of hurting the Greeks,—forms exactly the point of junction between the Achilléis and the Iliad.

The freak which Agamemnôn plays off upon the temper of his army, though in itself childish, serves a sufficient purpose, not only because it provides a special matter of interest to be submitted to the Greeks, but also because it calls forth the splendid description, so teeming with vivacious detail, of the sudden breaking up of the assembly after Agamemnôn’s harangue, and of the decisive interference of Odysseus to bring the men back, as well as to put down Thersitês. This picture of the Greeks in agora, bringing out the two chief speaking and counselling heroes, was so important a part of the general Trojan war, that the poet has permitted himself to introduce it by assuming an inexplicable folly on the part of Agamemnôn; just

1 The intervention of Oneirus ought rather to come as an immediate preliminary to book viii. than to book ii. The first forty-seven lines of book ii. would fit on and read consistently at the beginning of book viii., the events of which book form a proper sequel to the mission of Oneirus.
as he has ushered in another fine scene in the third book—the Teichoskopy or conversation between Priam and Helen on the walls of Troy—by admitting the supposition that the old king in the tenth year of the war did not know the persons of Agamemnön and the other Grecian chiefs. This may serve as an explanation of the delusion practised by Agamemnön towards his assembled host; but it does not at all explain the tame and empty intervention of Oneiros.

If the initial incident of the second book, whereby we pass out of the Achilleis into the Iliad, is awkward, so also the final incident of the seventh

1 O. Müller (History of Greek Literature, ch. v. § 8) doubts whether the beginning of the second book was written "by the ancient Homer, or by one of the later Homerids"; he thinks the speech of Agamemnön, wherein he plays off the deceit upon his army, is "a copious parody (of the same words used in the ninth book) composed by a later Homerid, and inserted in the room of an originally shorter account of the aiming of the Greeks." He treats the scene in the Grecian agors as "an entire mythical comedy, full of fine irony and with an amusing plot, in which the deceiving and deceived Agamemnön is the chief character."

The comic or ironical character which is here ascribed to the second book appears to me fanciful and incorrect; but Müller evidently felt the awkwardness of the opening incident, though his way of accounting for it is not successful. The second book seems to my judgment just as serious as any part of the poem.

I think also that the words alluded to by O. Müller in the ninth book are a transcript of those in the second, instead of the reverse, as he believes—because it seems probable that the ninth book is an addition made to the poem after the books between the first and the eighth had been already inserted; it is certainly introduced after the account of the fortification, contained in the seventh book, had become a part of the poem: see ix, 349. The author of the Embassy to Achilles fancied that that hero had been too long out of sight and out of mind,—a supposition for which there was no room in the original Achilleis; when the eighth and eleventh books followed in immediate succession to the first, but which offers itself naturally to any one on reading our present Iliad.
book, immediately before we come back into the Achilléis, is not less unsatisfactory—I mean the construction of the wall and ditch round the Greek camp. As the poem now stands, no plausible reason is assigned why this should be done. Nestor proposes it without any constraining necessity; for the Greeks are in a career of victory, and the Trojans are making offers of compromise which imply conscious weakness,—while Diomèdès is so confident of the approaching ruin of Troy, that he dissuades his comrades from receiving even Helen herself if the surrender should be tendered. "Many Greeks have been slain," it is true¹, as Nestor observes; but an equal or greater number of Trojans have been slain, and all the Grecian heroes are yet in full force: the absence of Achilles is not even adverted to.

Now this account of the building of the fortification seems to be an after-thought, arising out of the enlargement of the poem beyond its original scheme. The original Achilléis, passing at once from the first to the eighth², and from thence to

¹ Ilid. vii. 297.
² Heyne treats the eighth book as decidedly a separate song or epic; a supposition which the language of Zeus and the signing of the gods at the beginning are alone sufficient to refute, in my judgement (Exeunders I. ad loc. xii. vol. vi. p. 269). This Exeunders, in describing the sequence of events in the Iliad, passes at once and naturally from book viii. to book ix.

And Mr. Payne Knight, when he defends book xi. against Heyne, says, "Quae in undeiam si nposiilli Íliadis narrata sunt, iam et minus ex antiquissimis pendit: nec puere rationum pugna commissae, nec puere sermon in ali postremo nunc atque ordinem, quasi quisque intelligere posset, nisi cara et servum Achille, et victoriam quam Trojan indit conscripsi' cumulaverit, antea cognovisset." (Prolegom. c. xxiii.)

Perfectly true: to understand the eleventh book, we must have before
the eleventh book, might well assume the fortification—and talk of it as a thing existing, without adducing any special reason why it was erected. The hearer would naturally comprehend and follow the existence of a ditch and wall round the ships, as a matter of course, provided there was nothing in the previous narrative to make him believe that the Greeks had originally been without these bulwarks. And since the Achilleis, immediately after the promise of Zeus to Thetis at the close of the first book, went on to describe the fulfilment of that promise and the ensuing disasters of the Greeks, there was nothing to surprise any one in hearing that their camp was fortified. But the case was altered when the first and the eighth books were parted asunder in order to make room for descriptions of temporary success and glory on the part of the besieging army. The brilliant scenes sketched in the books from the second to the seventh, mention no fortification and even imply its non-existence; yet since notice of it occurs amidst the first description of Grecian disasters in the eighth book, the hearer who had the earlier books present to his memory might be surprised to find a fortification mentioned immediately afterwards, unless the construction of it were specially announced to have intervened. But it will at once appear, that there was some difficulty in finding a good reason why the Greeks should begin to fortify at this juncture, and that the poet who discovered the gap might as the first and the eighth (which are those that describe the anger and withdrawal of Achilles, and the defeat which the Greeks experience in consequence of it); we may dispense with the rest.
not be enabled to fill it up with success. As the Greeks have got on up to this moment without the wall, and as we have heard nothing but tales of their success, why should they now think farther laborious precautions for security necessary? we will not ask, why the Trojans should stand quietly by and permit a wall to be built, since the truce was concluded expressly for burying the dead!

"O. Müller (Hist. Greek Literat. ch. v. § 6) says about this wall.—"Nor is it until the Greeks are taught by the experience of the first day's fighting, that the Trojans can resist them in open battle, that the Greeks build the wall round their ships.... This appeared to Thucydides so little conformable to historical probability, that without regard to the authority of Homer, he placed the building of these walls immediately after the landing."

It is to be lamented, I think, that Thucydides took upon him to determine the point at all as a matter of history, but when he once undertook this, the account in the Iliad was not of a nature to give him much satisfaction, nor does the reason assigned by Müller make it better. It is implied in Müller's reason that before the first day's battle the Greeks did not believe that the Trojans could resist them in open battle; the Trojans (according to him) never had maintained the field so long as Achilles was up and fighting on the Greek side, and therefore the Greeks were quite astonished to find now, for the first time, that they could do so.

Now nothing can be more at variance with the tenor of the second and following books than this supposition. The Trojans come forth readily and fight gallantly; neither Agamemnon, nor Nestor, nor Odysseus consider them as enemies who cannot hold front; and the circuit of exhortation by Agamemnon (Eppolias), so strikingly described in the fourth book, proves that as does not anticipate a very easy victory. Nor does Nestor, in proposing the construction of the wall, give the smallest hint that the power of the Trojans to resist in the open field was to the Greeks an unexpected discovery.

The reason assigned by Müller, then, is a fancy of his own, proceeding from the same source of mistake as others among his remarks; because he tries to find, in the books between the first and eighth, a governing reference to Achilles (the point of view of the Achilleis), which those books distinctly refuse. The Achilleis was a poem of Greek disasters up to the time when Achilles sent forth Patroclus; and during those disasters, it might suit the poet to refer by contrast to the past time when Achilles was active, and to say that then the Trojans did not
The tenth book (or Doloneia) was considered by some of the ancient scholiasts\(^1\), and has been confidently set forth by the modern Würtmian critics, as originally a separate poem, inserted by Peisistratus into the Iliad. How it can ever have been a separate poem, I do not understand. It is framed with great specialty for the antecedent circumstances under which it occurs, and would suit for no other place; though capable of being separately recited, inasmuch as it has a definite beginning and end, like the story of Nisus and Euryalus in the Æneid. But while distinctly presupposing and resting upon the incidents in the eighth book, and in line 83 of the ninth (probably, the appointment of sentinels on the part of the Greeks as well as of the Trojans formed the close of the battle described in the eighth book), it has not the slightest bearing upon the events of the eleventh or the following books: it goes to make up the general picture of the Trojan war, but lies quite apart from the Achilleís. And this is one mark of a portion subsequently inserted—that though fitted on to the parts which precede, it has no influence on those which follow.

If the proceedings of the combatants on the plain of Troy, between the first and the eighth book, have no reference either to Achilles or to an
dare even to present themselves in battle array in the field, whereas now they were manning the ships. But the author of books ii. to viii. has no wish to glorify Achilles; he gives us a picture of the Trojan war generally, and describes the Trojans not only as brave and equal enemies, but well known by the Greeks themselves to be so.

The building of the Greece, as it now stands described, is an unexplained proceeding which Mühle’s ingenuity does not render consistent.

\(^1\) Seb. ad Iliad. x. 1.
Achillēs, we find Zeus in Olympus still more completely putting that hero out of the question, at the beginning of the fourth book. He is in this last-mentioned passage the Zeus of the Iliad, not of the Achillēs. Forgetful of his promise to Thetis in the first book, he discusses nothing but the question of continuance or termination of the war, and manifests anxiety only for the salvation of Troy, in opposition to the misu-Trojan goddesses, who prevent him from giving effect to the victory of Menelaus over Paris and the stipulated restitution of Helen—in which case of course the wrong offered to Achilles would remain unexpiated. An attentive comparison will render it evident that the poet who composed the discussion among the gods, at the beginning of the fourth book, has not been careful to put himself in harmony either with the Zeus of the first book or with the Zeus of the eighth.

So soon as we enter upon the eleventh book, the march of the poem becomes quite different. We are then in a series of events, each paving the way for that which follows, and all conducing to the result promised in the first book—the re-appearance of Achilles, as the only means of saving the Greeks from ruin—preceded by ample atonement¹, and followed by the maximum both of glory and revenge. The intermediate career of Patroclus introduces new elements, which however are admirably woven.

¹ Agamemmōn, after depleting the misleading influence of Atē, which induced him to do the original wrong to Achilles, says (xx. 88-107):—

"ἈΧ οὖν ἔσωθεν καὶ μεν ὁμοιότατος ἔλεγεν Ζεὺς.

"Ἄθικα ἄριστοι, δεινῶτερος τ' ἀντιτιμώτερος δέοντος, ἄνωτερον, &c."
into the scheme of the poem as disclosed in the first book. I shall not deny that there are perplexities in the detail of events, as described in the battles at the Grecian wall and before the ships, from the eleventh to the sixteenth books, but they appear only cases of partial confusion, such as may be reasonably ascribed to imperfections of text: the main sequence remains coherent and intelligible. We find no considerable events which could be left out without breaking the thread, nor any incongruity between one considerable event and another. There is nothing between the eleventh and twenty-second books which is at all comparable to the incongruity between the Zeus of the fourth book and the Zeus of the first and eighth. It may perhaps be true that the shield of Achilles is a superadded amplification of that which was originally announced in general terms—because the poet, from the eleventh to the twenty-second books, has observed such good economy of his materials, that he is hardly likely to have introduced one particular description of such disproportionate length, and having so little connection with the series of events. But I see no reason for believing that it is an addition materially later than the rest of the poem.

It must be confessed that the supposition here advanced, in reference to the structure of the Iliad, is not altogether free from difficulties, because the parts constituting the original Achilleis¹ have been

¹ The supposition of a smaller original Iliad, enlarged by successive additions to the present dimensions, and more or less interpolated (we must distinguish enlargement from interpolation—the insertion of a new chapsly from that of a new line), seems to be a sort of intermediate compromise, towards which the opposing views of Wolf.
more or less altered or interpolated to suit the additions made to it, particularly in the eighth book. But it presents fewer difficulties than any other supposition, and it is the only means, so far as I know, of explaining the difference between one part of the Iliad and another; both the continuity of structure, and the conformity to the opening promise, which are manifest when we read the books in the order i. viii. xi. to xxii., as contrasted with the absence of these two qualities in books ii. to vii., ix. and x. An entire organisation, preconceived from the beginning, would not be likely to produce any such disparity, nor is any such visible in the Odyssey; still less would the result be explained

J. H. Voss, Nitzsch, Hermann, and Boeckh all converge. Baumgarten-Crusius calls this smaller poem an Achilleis.

Wolf, Preface to the Geschen edit. of the Iliad, p. xii. xxiii.; Voss, Anti-Symbolik, part. ii. p. 234; Nitzsch, Histor. Homer., Fasciculus I. p. 112; and Vorrede to the second volume of his Comments on the Odyssey, p. xxxii.: "In the Iliad (he there says) many single portions may very easily be imagined as parts of another whole, or as having been once separately sung." (See Baumgarten-Crusius, Preface to his edition of W. Müller's Homerscbe Vorschu, p. xliv.-xlix.)

Nitzsch distinguishes the Odyssey from the Iliad, and I think justly, in respect to this supposed enlargement. The reasons which warrant us in applying this theory to the Iliad have no bearing upon the Odyssey. If there ever was an Ur-Odyssee, we have no means of determining what it contained.

The remarks of O. Müller on the Iliad (in his History of Greek Literature) are highly deserving of perusal; with much of them I agree, but there is also much which seems to me unfounded. The range of combination, and the far-fetched narrative stratagem which he ascribes to the primitive author, are in my view inadmissible (chap. v. § 5-11):—

"The internal connexion of the Iliad (he observes, § 6) rests upon the union of certain parts; and neither the interesting introduction describing the defeat of the Greeks up to the leaving of the ship of Protacius, nor the turn of affairs brought about by the death of Patroclus, nor the final pacification of the anger of Achilles, could be spared from the Iliad, when the fruitful seed of such a poem had once been sown in the soul of Homer and had begun to develop its growth. But the
hypothese of enlargement.

by supposing integers originally separate and brought together without any designed organis-
plan of the Iliad is certainly very much extended beyond what was actually necessary; and in particular, the preparatory part, consisting of the attempts on the part of the other heroes to compensate for the absence of Achilles, has, it must be owned, been drawn out to a dispro-
portionate length, so that the sequence that there were later insertions of importance makes with greater probability to the first than to the last books. A design manifested itself at an early period to make this poem complete in itself, so that all the subjects, descriptions, and actions, which could alone give interest to a poem on the entire war, might find a place within the limits of its composition. For this purpose it is not improbable that many lays of earlier bards, who had sung single adventures of the Trojan war, were laid under contribution, and the finest parts of them incorporated in the new poem.

These remarks of O. Müller intimate what is (in my judgement) the right view, unanimously as they recognise an extension of the plan of the poem beyond its original limits, manifested by insertions in the first half; and it is to be observed that in his enumeration of those parts, the union of which is necessary to the internal connexion of the Iliad, nothing is mentioned except what is comprised in books i., viii., xi., to xxii., or xxiv. But his description of "the preparatory part," as "the attempts of the other heroes to compensate for the absence of Achilles," is nowise borne out by the poet himself. From the second to the seventh book, Achilles is scarcely alluded to; moreover the Greeks do perfectly well without him. This portion of the poem displays not "the insufficiency of all the other heroes without Achilles," as Müller had observed in the preceding section, but the perfect sufficiency of the Greeks under Diomédes, Agamémnon, &c. to make head against Troy; it is only in the eighth book that their insufficiency begins to be manifested, and only in the eleventh book that it is consummated by the wounds of the three great heroes. Diomédes is in fact excited to a pitch of glory in regard to contests with the gods, which even Achilles himself never obtains afterwards, and Helenus the Trojan puts him above Achilles (vi. 39) in terrible prowess. Achilles is mentioned two or three times as absent, and Agamémnon in his speech to the Grecian agora regrets the quarrel (ii. 377), but we never hear any such exhortation as, "Let us do our best to make up for the absence of Achilles."—not even in the Epitome of Agamémnon, where it would most naturally be found. "Attempts to compensate for the absence of Achilles" must therefore be treated as the idea of the critic, not of the poet.

Though O. Müller has glanced at the distinction between the two parts of the poem (an original part, having chief reference to Achilles and the Greeks; and a superinduced part, having reference to the entire war),
tion. And it is between these three suppositions that our choice has to be made. A scheme, and a

he has not conceived it clearly, nor carried it out consistently. If we are to distinguish these two points of view at all, we ought to draw the lines at the end of the first book and at the beginning of the eighth, thus regarding the intermediate six books as belonging to the picture of the entire war (or the Iliad as distinguished from the Achilleis); the point of view of the Achilleis, dropped at the end of the first book, is resumed at the beginning of the eighth. The natural fitting together of these two parts is noticed in the comment of Heyne ad. v. 1:

"Ceterum aequi Jupiter aperte solvit Thetidii promises, dum reddid concum Trojanorum bello superorum, ut Achillis desiderium Achives, et pecuniam injustae iuris et illata Agamemnonem incessat (cf. i. 5). Nunc quae inhuc narrata sunt, partim continebantur in fortunae bello utrinque testata...partim valebant ad narrationem varianam," &c. The first and the eighth books belong to one and the same point of view, while all the intermediate books belong to the other. But O. Müller seeks to prove that a portion of these intermediate books belongs to one common point of view with the first and eighth, though he admits that they have been enlarged by insertions. Here I think he is mistaken. Strike out anything which can be reasonably allowed for enlargement in the books between the first and eighth, and the same difficulty will still remain in respect to the remainder; for all the incidents between these two points are brought out in a spirit altogether indifferent to Achilles or his anger. The Zeus of the fourth book as contrasted with Zeus in the first or eighth, marks the difference; and this description of Zeus is absolutely indispensable as the connecting link between book iii. on the one side and books iv. and v. on the other. Moreover the attempt of O. Müller, to force upon the larger portion of what is between the first and eighth books the point of view of the Achilleis, is never successful: the poet does not exhibit us those books "insufficient efforts of other heroes to compensate for the absence of Achilles," but a general and highly interesting picture of the Trojan war, with prominent reference to the original ground of quarrel. In this picture the duel between Paris and Menelaus forms naturally the foremost item—but how far fetched is the reasoning whereby O. Müller brings that striking recital within the scheme of the Achilleis! "The Greeks and Trojans are for the first time struck by an idea, which might have occurred in the previous nine years, if the Greeks, when assisted by Achilles, had not, from confidence in their superior strength, considered every compromise as unworthy of them,—namely, to decide the war by a single combat between the authors of it." Here the rashness of Achilles is dragged in by main force, and unsupported either by any actual statement in the poem or by any reasonable presumption: for it is the Trojans who propose the
large scheme too, must unquestionably be admitted as the basis of any sufficient hypothesis. But the Achilléis would have been a long poem, half the length of the present Iliad, and probably not less compact in its structure than the Odyssey. Moreover being parted off only by an imaginary line from the boundless range of the Trojan war, it would admit of enlargement more easily, and with greater relish to hearers, than the adventures of one single hero; while the expansion would naturally take place by adding new Grecian victory—since the original poem arrived at the exaltation of Achilles only through a painful series of Grecian disasters. That the poem under these circumstances should have received additions, is no very violent hypothesis: in fact when we recollect that the integrity both of the Achilléis and of the Odyssey was neither guarded by printing nor writing, we shall perhaps think it less wonderful that the former was enlarged¹, than that the latter was not. Any relaxa-

¹ single combat, and we are not told that they had ever proposed it before, though they would have had stronger reasons for proposing it during the presence of Achilles than during his absence.

O. Müller himself remarks (§ 7), "that from the second to the seventh book Zens appears as it were to have forgotten his resolution and his promise to Thetis." In other words, the poet during this part of the poem drops the point of view of the Achilléis to take up that of the more comprehensive Iliad: the Achilléis reappears in book viii—again disappears in book x.—and is resumed from book xi. to the end of the poem.

¹ This tendency to insert new homogeneous matter by new poets into poems already existing, is noticed by M. Fanuel in reference to the Romans of the Middle Ages:

"C'est un phénomène remarquable dans l'histoire de la poésie épique, que cette disposition, cette tendance constante du goût populaire à amalgamer, à lier en une seule et même composition le plus possible des compositions diverses,—cette disposition persiste chez un peuple,
tion of the laws of epical unity is a small price to pay for that splendid poetry, of which we find so much between the first and the eighth books of our Iliad.

The question respecting unity of authorship is different, and more difficult to determine, than that respecting consistency of parts, and sequence in the narrative. A poem conceived on a comparatively narrow scale may be enlarged afterwards by its original author, with greater or less coherence and success: the Faust of Goethe affords an example even in our own generation. On the other hand, a systematic poem may well have been conceived and executed by pre-arranged concert between several poets; among whom probably one will be the governing mind, though the rest may be effective, and perhaps equally effective, in respect to execution of the parts. And the age of the early Grecian epic was favourable to such fraternisation of poets, of which the Gens called Homersd probably exhibited many specimens. In the recital or singing of a long unwritten poem, many bards must have conspired together, and in the earliest times the

tant que la poésie conserve un reste de vie: tant qu’elle s’y transmet par la tradition et qu’elle y circule à l’aide du chant ou des récitations publiques. Elle cesse partout où la poésie est une fois fixée dans les livres, et n’agit plus que par la lecture,—cette dernière époque est pour ainsi dire, celle de la propriété poétique—celle où chaque poète prétend à une existence, à une gloire, personelles; et où la poésie cesse d’être une espèce de trésor commun dont le peuple jouit et dispose à sa manière, sans s’imporiter des individus qui le lui ont fait.” (Pauniel, Sur les Romans Chevaleresques, leçon 5ème, Revue des Deux Mondes, vol. xiii. p. 707.)

M. Pauniel thinks that the Shah Nauch of Ferdusi was an amalgamation of epic poems originally separate, and that probably the Mahabharat was so also (ib. p. 708).
composer and the singer were one and the same person. Now the individuals comprised in the Homerid Gens, though doubtless very different among themselves in respect of mental capacity, were yet homogeneous in respect of training, means of observation and instruction, social experience, religious feelings and theories, &c., to a degree much greater than individuals in modern times. Fallible as our inferences are on this point, where we have only internal evidence to guide us, without any contemporary points of comparison, or any species of collateral information respecting the age, the society, the poets, the hearers, or the language—we must nevertheless in the present case take coherence of structure, together with consistency in the tone of thought, feeling, language, customs, &c., as presumptions of one author; and the contrary as presumptions of severity; allowing as well as we can for that inequality of excellence which the same author may at different times present.

Now the case made out against single-headed

1 The remarks of Boeckh, upon the possibility of such co-operation of poets towards one and the same scheme are perfectly just:

"Atque quomodo composuerunt a varis auctoribus successus temporum rhapsodias potuerint, quae post primam minora directa jam ad idem consilium et quam vacant unitatem carminis sint, mensis istorum declamationibus qui populi universi opus Homerum esse pietant... tum potissimum intelligitur, ubi gentis civils Homeridarum propriam et peculiarem Homeriam poesin fauas, veteribus ipsa non testibus, at certe ducibus, concedetur.... Quia quanita sint, non est adeo difficile ad intelligendum, quomodo, post primam initia ab egregio vate facta, in gentes sacrarum et artis communem societatem, multae rhapsodias ad eum potuerint consulium dirigunt." (Index Lektion, 1834, p. 12.)

I transcribe this passage from Guse (Ueber den Kolischen Dialekt, p. 157), not having been able to see the essay of which it forms a part.
authorship of the Odyssey appears to me very weak; and those who dispute it are guided more by their à priori rejection of ancient epical unity than by any positive evidence which the poem itself affords. It is otherwise with regard to the Iliad. Whatever presumptions a disjointed structure, several apparent inconsistencies of parts, and large excessiveness of actual matter beyond the opening promise, can sanction—may reasonably be indulged against the supposition that this poem all proceeds from a single author. There is a difference of opinion on the subject among the best critics which is probably not destined to be adjusted, since so much depends partly upon critical feeling, partly upon the general reasonings, in respect to ancient epical unity, with which a man sits down to the study. For the champions of unity, such as Mr. Payne Knight, are very ready to strike out numerous and often considerable passages as interpolations, thus meeting the objections raised against unity of authorship on the ground of special inconsistencies. Hermann and Boeckh, though not going the length of Lachmann in maintaining the original theory of Wolf, agree with the latter in recognising diversity of authors in the poem, to an extent overpassing the limit of what can fairly be called interpolation. Payne Knight and Nitzsch are equally persuaded of the contrary. Here then is a decided contradiction among critics, all of whom have minutely studied the poems since the Wolfsian question was raised. And it is such critics alone who can be said to constitute authority; for the cursory reader, who dwells upon the parts simply long
enough to relish their poetical beauty, is struck only by that general sameness of colouring which Wolf himself admits to pervade the poem.

Having already intimated that, in my judgement, no theory of the structure of the poem is admissible which does not admit an original and preconcerted Achilléis—a stream which begins at the first book and ends with the death of Hector in the twenty-second, although the higher parts of it now remain only in the condition of two detached lakes, the first book and the eighth—I reason upon the same basis with respect to the authorship. Assuming continuity of structure as a presumptive proof, the whole of this Achilléis must be treated as composed by one author. Wolf indeed affirmed, that he never read the poem continuously through without being painlessly impressed with the inferiority and altered style of the last six books—and Lachmann carries this feeling further back, so as to commence with the seventeenth book. If I could enter fully into this sentiment, I should then be compelled, not to deny the existence of a preconceived scheme, but to imagine that the books from the eighteenth to the twenty-second, though forming part of that scheme

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1 Wolf, Prolegom. p. cxxxviii. "Quippe in universis idem somnis omnibus libris; idem habitus sententiuarum, oratione, numerorum;" &c.

2 Wolf, Prolegomen. p. cxxxvii. "Equidem certe quoties in continentel lectiones ad istas partes (i. e. the last six books) devenit, numquam non in eis talia quadam sensu, que vis ille tam naturae cum ceteris coniunxent, quovis pignore contendiam, indicum ab eruditis detectis et animadverteris fuisset, immo multa ejus generis, ut cum nonre Omnipotens habeantur, si tantummodo in Hymnas legenterur, ipsa sola esset suspicacionibus sedetruit adscriptura essent." Compare the sequel, p. cxxxviii. "ubi nervi deficient et spiritus Homericus—jejumn et frigidum in locis multis." &c.
or Achilleis, had yet been executed by another and an inferior poet. But it is to be remarked, first, that inferiority of poetical merit to a certain extent is quite reconcilable with unity of authorship; and secondly, that the very circumstances upon which Wolf's unfavourable judgement is built, seem to arise out of increased difficulty in the poet's task, when he came to the crowning cantoes of his designed Achilleis. For that which chiefly distinguishes these books is, the direct, incessant, and manual, intervention of the gods and goddesses, formally permitted by Zeus—and the repetition of vast and fantastic conceptions to which such superhuman agency gives occasion; not omitting the battle of Achilles against Skamander and Simois, and the burning up of these rivers by Hephæstus. Now looking at this vein of ideas with the eyes of a modern reader, or even with those of a Grecian critic of the literary ages, it is certain that the effect is unpleasing: the gods, sublime elements of poetry when kept in due proportion, are here somewhat vulgarised. But though the poet here has not succeeded, and probably success was impossible, in the task which he has prescribed to himself—yet the mere fact of his undertaking it, and the manifest distinction between his employment of divine agency in these latter cantoes as compared with the preceding, seems explicable only on the supposition that they are the latter cantoes and come in designated sequence, as the continuance of a previous plan. The poet wishes to surround the coming forth of Achilles with the maximum of glorious and terrific circumstance:
no Trojan enemy can for a moment hold out against him: the gods must descend to the plain of Troy and fight in person, while Zeus, who at the beginning of the eighth book had forbidden them to take part, expressly encourages them to do so at the beginning of the twentieth. If then the nineteenth book (which contains the reconciliation between Achilles and Agamemnon, a subject naturally somewhat tame) and the three following books (where we have before us only the gods, Achilles, and the Trojans without hope or courage) are inferior in execution and interest to the seven preceding books (which describe the long-disputed and often doubtful death-struggle between the Greeks and Trojans without Achilles), as Wolf and other critics affirm—we may explain the difference without supposing a new poet as composer; for the conditions of the poem had become essentially more difficult, and the subject more unpromising. The

Iliad, xx. 25. Zeus addresses the agora of the gods—

'Δισφοιτερον ε' ὁρήσει, ὅπι οὐς ἐναγ οἴκετον
Εἰ γὰρ Ἀχιλλῆς ὄνω ἐνι Τρόώας μαχεῖται,
Οὐδὲ μίμεσθαι ἑξεναὶ πολέμεα Πελείωνα.
Καὶ δὲ τέ μου καὶ προσδέει ἀπαρημέναν ἀθλητές
Νῦν δ' οὖν ἔτοι ἅμα τοῖς ἑπετίοις σχέσιν αὐξον.
Δείδα μὴ καὶ τείχος ἐπ' ὑμῖν ἀποκοιμήσῃ.

The formal restriction put upon the gods by Zeus at the beginning of the eighth book, and the removal of that restriction at the beginning of the twentieth, are evidently parts of one preconceived scheme.

It is difficult to determine whether the battle of the gods and goddesses in book xxi. (395-529) is to be expunged as spurious, or only to be blamed as of inferior merit (“improbable tantum, non resecundum—hoc enim est illud, quo pleurunque scuissa crisces Homerice reddit,” as Heyne observes in another place, Obsc. Iliad. xvm. 444). The objections on the score of non-Homeric location are not formidable (see P. Knight ad loc.), and the scene belongs to that vein of conception which animates the poet in the closing act of his Achilles.
necessity of keeping Achilles above the level, even of heroic prowess, restricted the poet's means of acting upon the sympathy of his hearers.

The last two books of the Iliad may have formed part of the original Achilléis. But the probability rather is, that they are additions; for the death of Hector satisfies the exigences of a coherent scheme, and we are not entitled to extend the oldest poem beyond the limit which such necessity prescribes. It has been argued on one side by Nitzsch and O. Müller, that the mind could not leave off with

\[1\] While admitting that these last books of the Iliad are not equal in interest to those between the eleventh and eighteenth, we may add that they exhibit many striking beauties, both of plan and execution, and one in particular may be noticed as an example of happy epic adaptation. The Trojans are on the point of ravishing from the Greeks the dead body of Patroclus, when Achilles (by the inspiration of Héré and Iris) shows himself unarmed on the Grecian mound, and by his mere figure and voice strikes such terror into the Trojans that they relinquish the dead body. As soon as night arrives, Polydamas proposes in the Trojan agora that the Trojans shall retire without further delay from the ships to the town, and shelter themselves within the walls, without awaiting the assault of Achilles armed on the next morning. Hector repels this counsel of Polydamas with expressions—not merely of overweening confidence in his own force, even against Achilles—but also of extreme contempt and harshness towards the giver; whose wisdom however is proved by the utter discomfiture of the Trojans the next day.

Now this angry deportment and mistake on the part of Hector is made to tell strikingly in the twenty-second book, just before his death. There yet remains a moment for him to retire within the walls, and thus obtain shelter against the near approach of his irresistible enemy—but he is struck with the recollection of that fatal moment when he repelled the counsel which would have saved his countrymen: "If I enter the town, Polydamas will be the first to reproach me as having brought destruction upon Troy on that fatal night when Achilles came forth, and when I resisted his better counsel" (compare xviii. 250-315; xxii. 100-110; and Aristot. Ethic. iii. 8).

In a discussion respecting the structure of the Iliad, and in reference to arguments which deny all designed composition of parts, it is not out of place to notice this affecting touch of poetry, be it mingled to those books which are reproached as the feeblest.
satisfaction at the moment in which Achilles sates his revenge, and while the bodies of Patroclus and Hector are lying unburied—also, that the more merciful temper which he exhibits in the twenty-fourth book must always have been an indispensable sequel, in order to create proper sympathy with his triumph. Other critics, on the contrary, have taken special grounds of exception against the last book, and have endeavour'd to set it aside as different from the other books both in tone and language. To a certain extent the peculiarities of the last book appear to me undeniable, though it is plainly a designed continuance and not a substantive poem. Some weight also is due to the remark about the twenty-third book, that Odysseus and Diomèdes, who have been wounded and disabled during the fight, now re-appear in perfect force, and contend in the games: here is no case of miraculous healing, and the inconsistency is more likely to have been admitted by a separate enlarging poet than by the schemer of the Achilléis.

The splendid books from the second to v. 322 of the seventh\(^1\) are equal in most parts to any portions of the Achilléis, and are pointedly distinguished from the latter by the broad view which they exhibit of the general Trojan war, with all its principal personages, localities, and causes—yet without advancing the result promised in the

\(^1\) The latter portion of the seventh book is spoiled by the very unsatisfactory addition introduced to explain the construction of the wall and ditch: all the other incidents (the ages and embassy of the Trojans, the truce for burial, the arrival of wine-ships from Lemnos, &c.) suit perfectly with the scheme of the poet of these books, to depict the Trojan war generally.
first book, or indeed any final purpose whatever. Even the desperate wound inflicted by Tlepolemus on Sarpedon is forgotten, when the latter hero is called forth in the subsequent Achilléis. The arguments of Lachmann, who dissects these six books into three or four separate songs, carry no conviction to my mind; and I see no reason why we should not consider all of them to be by the same author, bound together by the common purpose of giving a great collective picture which may properly be termed an Iliad. The tenth book, or Dolonemias, though adapted specially to the place in which it stands, agrees with the books between the first and eighth in belonging only to the general picture of the war, without helping forward the march of the Achilléis; yet it seems conceived in a lower vein, in so far as we can trust our modern ethical sentiment. One is unwilling to believe that the author of the fifth book (or Aristeia of D démêdês) would condescend to employ the hero whom he there so brightly glorifies—the victor even over Arês himself—in slaughtering newly-arrived Thracian sleepers, without any large purpose or necessity. The ninth book, of which I have already

1 Unless indeed we are to imagine the combat between Tlepolemus and Sarpedon, and that between Glaucus and D démêdês, to be separate songs; and they are among the very few passages in the Iliad which are completely separable, implying no special antecedents.

2 Compare also Heyne, Excursus II. sect. ii. ad Iliad. xxiv. vol. vol. p. 785.

3 Subsequent poets, seemingly thinking that the naked story (of D démêdês slaughtering Rhêsus and his companions in their sleep) as it now stands in the Iliad, was too displeasing, adopted different ways of dressing it up. Thus according to Pindar (ap. Schol. Iliad. x. 435) Rhêsus fought one day as the ally of Troy, and did such terrible damage, that the Greeks had no other means of averting total destruction from his
spoken at length, belongs to a different vein of conception, and seems to me more likely to have emanated from a separate composer.

While intimating these views respecting the authorship of the Iliad as being in my judgement the most probable, I must repeat, that though the study of the poem carries to my mind a sufficient conviction respecting its structure, the question between unity and plurality of authors is essentially less determinable. The poem consists of a part original and other parts superadded; yet it is certainly not impossible that the author of the former may himself have composed the latter: and such would be my belief, if I regarded plurality of composers as an inadmissible idea. On this supposition we must conclude that the poet, while anxious for the

hand on the next day, except by killing him during the night. And the Euripidean drama called Rhëas, though representing the latter as a new-comer, yet puts into the mouth of Athéné the like overwhelming predictions of what he would do on the coming day, if suffered to live; so that to kill him in the night is the only way of saving the Greeks (Eurip. Rhës. 602): moreover Rhëas himself is there brought forward as talking with such overweening insolence, that the sympathies of man, and the envy of the gods, are turned against him (ib. 458).

But the story is best known in the form and with the addition (equally unknown to the Iliad) which Virgil has adopted. It was decreed by fate that, if the splendid horses of Rhëas were permitted once either to taste the Trojan provender, or to drink of the river Xanthus, nothing could preserve the Greeks from ruin (Aenid, i. 468, with Servius ad loc.) —

"Nec promptum Rhēis niveis tentoris velis
Agnoscit lacrymas: primo quo profita somno
Tyliades multā vastabat cæde cruentus:
Ardentesque svertit equos in castra, praecepsam
Pabula gustasset Troja, Xanthumque habissent."

All these versions are certainly improvements upon the story as it stands in the Iliad.
addition of new and for the most part highly interesting matter, has not thought fit to recast the parts and events in such manner as to impart to the whole a pervading thread of consensus and organisation, such as we see in the Odyssey.

That the Odyssey is of later date than the Iliad, and by a different author, seems to be now the opinion of most critics, especially of Payne Knight and Nitzsch; though O. Müller leans to a contrary conclusion, at the same time adding that he thinks the arguments either way not very decisive. There are considerable differences of statement in the two poems in regard to some of the gods: Iris is messenger of the gods in the Iliad, and Hermès in the Odyssey; Æolus, the dispenser of the winds in the Odyssey, is not noticed in the twenty-third book of the Iliad, but on the contrary, Iris invites the winds as independent gods to come and kindle the funeral pile of Patroclus; and unless we are to expunge the song of Demodokus in the eighth book of the Odyssey as spurious, Aphrodité there appears as the wife of Héphaistus—a relationship not known to the Iliad. There are also some other points of difference enumerated by Mr. Knight and others, which tend to justify the presumption that the author of the Odyssey is not identical either with the author of the Achilleis or his enlargers, which G. Hermann considers to be a point unquestionable. Indeed, the difficulty of supposing a long

1 Mr. Knight places the Iliad about two centuries, and the Odyssey one century, anterior to Hesiod: a century between the two poems (Proleg. c. Ixii.).
coherent poem to have been conceived, composed, and retained, without any aid of writing, appears to many critics even now insurmountable, though the evidences on the other side are in my view sufficient to outweigh any negative presumption thus suggested. But it is improbable that the same person should have powers of memorial combination sufficient for composing two such poems, nor is there any proof to force upon us such a supposition.

Presuming a difference of authorship between the two poems, I feel less convinced about the supposed juniority of the Odyssey. The discrepancies in manners and language in the one and the other are so little important, that two different persons, in the same age and society, might well be imagined to exhibit as great or even greater. It is to be recollected that the subjects of the two are heterogeneous, so as to conduct the poet, even were he the same man, into totally different veins of imagination and illustration. The pictures of the Odyssey seem to delineate the same heroic life as the Iliad, though looked at from a distinct point of view: and the circumstances surrounding the residence of Odysseus in Ithaca are just such as we may suppose him to have left in order to attack Troy. If the scenes presented to us are for the most part pacific, as contrasted with the incessant fighting of the Iliad, this is not to be ascribed to any greater sociality or civilization in the real hearers of the Odyssey, but to the circumstances of the hero whom the poet undertakes to adorn: nor can we doubt that the poems of Arktinus and
Leschês, of a later date than the Odyssey, would have given us as much combat and bloodished as the Iliad. I am not struck by those proofs of improved civilization which some critics affirm the Odyssey to present: Mr. Knight, who is of this opinion, nevertheless admits that the mutilation of Melanthius, and the hanging up of the female slaves by Odysseus, in that poem, indicate greater barbarity than any incidents in the fights before Troy. The more skilful and compact structure of the Odyssey has been often considered as a proof of its juniority in age: and in the case of two poems by the same author, we might plausibly contend that practice would bring with it improvement in the combining faculty. But in reference to the poems before us, we must recollect, first, that in all probability the Iliad (with which the comparison is taken) is not a primitive but an enlarged poem, and that the primitive Achilleis might well have been quite as coherent as the Odyssey;—secondly, that between different authors, superiority in structure is not a proof of subsequent composition, inasmuch as on that hypothesis we should be compelled to admit that the later poem of Arktinus would be an improvement upon the Odyssey;—thirdly, that even if it were so, we could only infer that the author of the Odyssey had heard the Achilleis or the Iliad; we could not infer that he lived one or two generations afterwards.

1 Knight, Prolegg. 1. c. Odys. xxii. 465-478.
2 The arguments, upon the faith of which Payne Knight and other critics have maintained the Odyssey to be younger than the Iliad, are
On the whole, the balance of probabilities seems in favour of distinct authorship of the two poems, but the same age—and that age a very early one, anterior to the first Olympiad. And they may thus be used as evidences, and contemporary evidences, for the phenomena of primitive Greek civilization; while they also show that the power of constructing long premeditated epics, without the aid of writing, is to be taken as a characteristic of the earliest known Greek mind. This was the point controverted by Wolf, which a full review of the case (in my judgment) decides against him; it is moreover a valuable resort for the historian of the Greeks, inasmuch as it marks out to him the ground from which he is to start in appreciating their ulterior progress.

Well stated and examined in Bernard Thiersch—Questio de Diversa Iliadis et Odysseae Estate—in the Anhang (p. 306) to his work Ueber das Zeitalter und Vaterland des Homer.

He shows all such arguments to be very inconclusive; though the grounds upon which he himself maintains identity of age between the two appear to me not at all more satisfactory (p. 397): we can infer nothing to the point from the mention of Telemaclus in the Iliad.

Weeckert thinks that there is a great difference of age, and an evident difference of authorship, between the two poems (Der Epoch. Kyklus, p. 295).

O. Müller admits the more recent date of the Odyssey, but considers it "difficult and hazardous to raise upon this foundation any definite conclusions as to the person and age of the poet" (History of the Literature of Ancient Greece, ch. v. s. 13).

Dr. Thirlwall has added to the second edition of his History of Greece a valuable Appendix, on the early history of the Homeric poems (vol. i. p. 500-516); which contains copious information respecting the discordant opinions of German critics, with a brief comparative examination of their reasons. I could have wished that so excellent a judge had superadded, to his enumeration of the views of others, an ample exposition of his own. Dr. Thirlwall seems decidedly convinced upon that which appears to me the most important point in the Homeric
Whatever there may be of truth in the different conjectures of critics respecting the authorship and structure of these unrivalled poems, we are not to imagine that it is the perfection of their epical symmetry which has given them their indissoluble hold upon the human mind, as well modern as ancient. There is some tendency in critics, from Aristotle downwards, to invert the order of attributes in respect to the Homeric poems, so as to dwell most on recondite excellences which escape the unaided reader, and which are even to a great degree disputable. But it is given to few minds (as Goethe has remarked) to appreciate fully the mechanism of a long poem, and many feel the controversy: "That before the appearance of the earliest of the poems of the Epic Cycle, the Iliad and Odyssey, even if they did not exist precisely in their present form, had at least reached their present compass, and were regarded each as a complete and well-defined whole, not as a fluctuating aggregate of fugitive pieces" (p. 509).

This marks out the Homeric poems as ancient both in the items and in the total, and includes negation of the theory of Wolf and Lachmann, who contend that as a total they only date from the age of Peisistratus. It is then safe to treat the poems as unquestionable evidences of Greek antiquity (meaning thereby 776 B.C.), which we could not do if we regarded all congruity of parts in the poems as brought about through alterations of Peisistratus and his friends.

There is also a very just adumbration of Dr. Thirlwall (p. 516) as to the difficulty of measuring what degree of discrepancy or inaccuracy might or might not have escaped the poet's attention, in an age so imperfectly known to us.

1 There are just remarks on this point in Heyne's Exegeis ii. sect. 2 and 4, ad ll. xxiv. vol. viii. p. 771-800.
2 "Wenig Deutscher, und vielleicht nur wenige Menschen aller alten Nationen, haben Gefühl für ein aesthetisches Genus: sie loben und tadeln nur stellenweise, sie entrücken sich nur stellenweise." (Goethe, Wilhelm Meister: I transcribe this from Weicker's Eschyl. Trilogie, p. 306.)

What ground there is for restricting this proposition to modern as contrasted with ancient nations, I am unable to conceive.
beauty of the separate parts, who have no sentiment for the aggregate perfection of the whole.

Nor were the Homeric poems originally addressed to minds of the rarer stamp. They are intended for those feelings which the critic has in common with the unlettered mass, not for that enlarged range of vision and peculiar standard which he has acquired to himself. They are of all poems the most absolutely and unreservedly popular; had they been otherwise they could not have lived so long in the mouth of the rhapsodes, and the ear and memory of the people; and it was then that their influence was first acquired, never afterwards to be shaken. Their beauties belong to the parts taken separately, which revealed themselves spontaneously to the listening crowd at the festival—for more than to the whole poem taken together, which could hardly be appreciated unless the parts were dwelt upon and suffered to expand in the mind. The most unlettered hearer of those times could readily seize, while the most instructed reader can still recognise, the characteristic excellence of Homeric narrative—its straightforward, unconscious, unstudied simplicity—its concrete forms of speech1 and happy

1 The ἀνευπότερα δέσμευρα of Homer were extolled by Aristotle; see Schol. ad Iliad. i. 481; compare Dionys. Halicarn. De Compos. Verbor. c. 20. ἡ δεύτερη ἡμέρα διαφέρειν γνώσεις το ἄργιον το λόγιον ἀρίστω. Respecting the undisclosed bursts of feeling by the heroes, the Schol. ad Iliad. i. 349 tells us— iováρα το ἀργόν πρὸς διξφεϊα—compare Euripid. Helen. 959, and the severe censures of Plato, Republ. ii. p. 388.

The Homeric poems were the best understood, and the most widely popular of all Greek composition, even among the least instructed persons, such (for example) as the seminarians who had acquired the Greek language in addition to their own mother tongue. (Dio Chrysost. Or. xviii. vol. i. p. 478; Or. int. vol. ii. p. 277, Reisch.) Respecting the simplicity and perspicuity of the narrative style, implied in this ex-
alternation of action with dialogue—its vivid pictures of living agents, always clearly and sharply individualised, whether in the commanding proportions of Achilles and Odysseus, in the graceful presence of Helen and Penelope, or in the more humble contrast of Eumæus and Melanthius, and always moreover animated by the frankness with which his heroes give utterance to all their transient emotions and even all their infirmities—its constant reference to those coarser veins of feeling and palpable motives which belong to all men in
tensive popularity, Porphyry made a singular remark: he said that the sentences of Homer really presented much difficulty and obscurity, but that ordinary readers fancied they understood him, "because of the general clearness which appeared to run through the poems." (See the Prolegomena of Villoison's edition of the Iliad, p. xii.) This remark after is the key to a good deal of the Homeric criticism. There doubtless were real obscurities in the poems, arising from altered associations, customs, religion, language, &c. as well as from corrupt text; but while the critics did good service in elucidating these difficulties, they also introduced artificially many others, altogether of their own creating. Refusing to be satisfied with the plain and obvious meaning, they sought in Homer hidden purposes, elaborate inuendo, recondite motives even with regard to petty details, deep-laid rhetorical artifices (see a specimen in Dionys. Hal. Ars Rhetor. e. 15, p. 316, Reiske; nor is even Aristotle exempt from similar tendencies, Schol. ad Iliad. iii. 441, x. 198), or a substratum of philosophy allegorised. No wonder that passages, quite perspicuous to the vulgar reader, seemed difficult to them.

There could not be so sure a way of missing the real Homer as by searching for him in these devious recesses. He is essentially the poet of the broad highway and the market-place, touching the common sympathies and satisfying the mental appetencies of his countrymen with unvaried effect, but exempt from ulterior views, either selfish or didactic, and immersed in the same medium of practical life and experience religiously construed, as his auditors. No nation has ever yet had so perfect and touching an exposition of its early social mind as the Iliad and Odyssey exhibit.

In the verbal criticism of Homer the Alexandrine literati seem to have made a very great advance, as compared with the glossographers who preceded them. (See Lhr. De Studiis Aristarchi, Dissert. ii. p. 42.)
common—it's fulness of graphic details, freshly drawn from the visible and audible world, and though often homely, never tame nor trenching upon that limit of satiety to which the Greek mind was so keenly alive—lastly, its perpetual junction of gods and men in the same picture, and familiar appeal to ever-present divine agency, in harmony with the interpretation of nature at that time universal.

It is undoubtedly easier to feel than to describe the impressive influence of Homeric narrative: but the time and circumstances under which that influence was first, and most powerfully felt, preclude the possibility of explaining it by comprehensive and elaborate comparisons, such as are implied in Aristotle's remarks upon the structure of the poems. The critic who seeks the explanation in the right place will not depart widely from the point of view of those rude auditors to whom the poems were originally addressed, or from the susceptibilities and capacities common to the human bosom in every stage of progressive culture. And though the refinements and delicacies of the poems, as well as their general structure, are a subject of highly interesting criticism—yet it is not to these that Homer owes his wide-spread and imperishable popularity. Still less is it true, as the well-known observations of Horace would lead us to believe, that Homer is a teacher of ethical wisdom akin and superior to Chrysippus or Crantor¹. No didactic purpose is

¹ Horat. Epist. i. 2. v. 1-26:

"Sirenum voces, et Circe pocula nosti:
Quae si cum sociis stultus equinique bibisset,
Vixisset canis immunda, vel amnes ino aux."

Horace contrasts the folly and greediness of the companions of
to be found in the Iliad and Odyssey: a philosopher may doubtless extract, from the incidents and strongly marked characters which it contains, much illustrative matter for his exhortations—but the ethical doctrine which he applies must emanate from his own reflection. The Homeric hero manifests virtues or infirmities, fierceness or compassion, with the same straightforward and simple-minded vivacity, unconscious of any ideal standard by which his conduct is to be tried; nor can we

Ulysses in accepting the refreshments tendered to them by Circe, with the self-command of Ulysses himself in refusing them. But in the incident as described in the original poem, neither the praise, nor the blame, here implied, finds any countenance. The companions of Ulysses follow the universal practice in accepting hospitality tendered to strangers, the fatal consequences of which, in their particular case, they could have no ground for suspecting; while Ulysses is preserved from a similar fate, not by any self-command of his own, but by a previous divine warning and a special antidote, which had not been vouchsafed to the rest (see Odys. s. 285). And the incident of the Sirens, if it is to be taken as evidence of anything, indicates rather the absence, than the presence, of self-command on the part of Ulysses.

Of the violent mutations of text, whereby the Grammatici or critics tried to efface from Homer bad ethical tendencies (we must remember that many of these men were lecturers to youth), a remarkable specimen is afforded by the Venet. Schol. ad Iliad. ix. 455); compare Plutarch, de Andiecis Poetis, p. 95. Phænix describes the calamitous family tragedy in which he himself had been partly the agent, partly the victim. Now that an Homeric hero should confess guilty proceedings and still more guilty designs, without any expression of shame or contrition, was insupportable to the feelings of the critics. One of them, Aristodemus, thrust two negative particles into one of the lines; and though he thereby ruined not only the sense but the metre, his intervention procured for him universal applause, because he had unjustified the innocence of the hero (καὶ οὐ μόνον ἡ δίκαιοτέρα, ἀλλὰ καὶ χαίρει, ἡ δὲ καθήμερον τὰς ἔργα). And Aristarchus thought the case so alarming, that he struck out from the text four lines which have only been preserved to us by Plutarch (Ὁ µὲν Ἀρισταρχος ἠφαίνε τὸν τὰς ἐναρκ. φυσικούς). See the Fragment of Dioscorides (καί µὲν τὰς Ἑκάτερος Νομισκῆς) in Dulo's Fragmenta Historica, Graecae, vol. ii. p. 193.

1 "C'est un tableau ideal, à coup sûr, que celui de la société Grecque dans les chants qui portent le nom d'Homer : et pourtant cette société y est toute entière reproduite, avec la violeude, la féroce de ses mœurs,
trace in the poet any ulterior function beyond that of the inspired organ of the Muse, and the nameless, but eloquent, herald of lost adventures out of the darkness of the past.

ses bonnes et ses mauvaises passions, sans dessin de faire particulièrement ressortir, de célebrer tel ou tel de ses mérites, de ses avantages, ou de laisser dans l'ombre ses vices et ses maux. Ce mélange du bien et du mal, du fort et du faible—cette simultanéité d'idées et de sentiments en apparence contraires—cette variété, cette incohérence, ce développement inégal de la nature et de la destinée humaine—c'est précisément là ce qu'il y a de plus poétique, car c'est le fond même des choses, c'est la vérité sur l'homme et le monde; et dans les peintures idéales qu'en veulent faire la poésie, le roman et même l'histoire, cet ensemble, si divers et pourtant si harmonieux, doit se retrouver: sans quoi l'idéal véritable y manque aussi bien que la réalité.” (Guizot, Cours d'Histoire Moderne, Leçon 7ème, vol. i, p. 285.)
HISTORY OF GREECE.

PART II.

HISTORICAL GREECE.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL GEOGRAPHY AND LIMITS OF GREECE.

GREECE Proper lies between the 36th and 40th parallels of north latitude, and between the 21st and 26th degrees of east longitude. Its greatest length from Mount Olympus to Cape Tænarus may be stated at 250 English miles; its greatest breadth, from the western coast of Akarnania to Marathon in Attica, at 180 miles; and the distance eastward from Ambrakia across Pindus to the Magnesian mountain Homolê and the mouth of the Peneius is about 120 miles. Altogether its area is somewhat less than that of Portugal. In regard however to all attempts at determining the exact limits of Greece Proper, we may remark, first, that these limits seem not to have been very precisely defined.

even among the Greeks themselves; and next, that so large a proportion of the Hellens were distributed among islands and colonies, and so much of their influence upon the world in general produced through their colonies, as to render the extent of their original domicile a matter of comparatively little moment to verify.

The chain called Olympus and the Cambunian mountains, ranging from east and west and commencing with the Ægean Sea or the Gulf of Therma near the fortieth degree of north latitude, is prolonged under the name of Mount Lingon until it touches the Adriatic at the Akrokeraunian promontory. The country south of this chain comprehended all that in ancient times was regarded as Greece or Hellas proper, but it also comprehended something more. Hellas proper¹ (or continuous Hellas, to use the language of Skylax and Dikæarchus) was understood to begin with the town and Gulf of Ambrakia: from thence northward to the Akrokeraunian promontory lay the land called by the Greeks Epirus—occupied by the Chaonians, Molossians, and Thesprotians, who were termed Epirots and were not esteemed to belong to the Hellenic aggregate. This at least was the general understanding, though Ætolians and Akarnanians

¹ Dikæarch, 31, p. 460, ed. Fuhr. —

¹ Ἡ δ' Ἑλλάς ἀπ' τῆς Διμήθρας εἶναι δοκεῖ
Μᾶλλας συνεχῆς τὸ πέρας· αὐτῇ δ' ἦργεται
Ἐπὶ τὸν πόταμον Περείαν, ὥς Φιλίτη γραφής,
"Οροὶ το Μαντήτων Ὀμίλιοι καλομένες.

Skylax, ε. 35. —Διμήθρας-ἐπίσης ἅρχεται ἡ Ἑλλάς συνεχῆς εἰς ὑπάρχει Ἀργείων ποταμοῦ, καὶ Ὀμίλιος Μαντήτων πόλεως, ἡ ἐντὸς παρὰ τὸν ποταμόν.
in their more distant sections seem to have been not less widely removed from the full type of Hellenism than the Epirots were; while Herodotus is inclined to treat even Molossians and Thesprotians as Hellenes.

At a point about midway between the Ægenn and Ionian seas, Olympus and Lingon are traversed nearly at right angles by the still longer and vaster chain called Pindus, which stretches in a line rather west of north from the northern side of the range of Olympus: the system to which these mountains belong seems to begin with the lofty masses of greenstone comprised under the name of Mount Scardus or Scordus (Schardagh), which is divided only by the narrow cleft containing the river Drin from the limestone of the Albanian Alps. From the southern face of Olympus, Pindus strikes off nearly southward, forming the boundary between Thessaly and Epirus, and sending forth about the 39th degree of latitude the lateral chain of Othrys—which latter takes an easterly course, forming

1 Herod. i. 146; ii. 56. The Molossian Alkös passes for a Hellen (Herod. vi. 127).
2 The mountain systems in the ancient Macedon and Illyrium, north of Olympus, have been yet but imperfectly examined: see Dr. Griesbach, Reise durch Eäuolien und nach Bruss im Jahre 1829, vol. ii. ch. 13, p. 112 seqq. (Götting, 1841), which contains much instruction respecting the real relations of these mountains as compared with the different ideas and representations of them. The words of Strabo (lib. vii. Excercit. 3, ed. Tischbein), that Scardas, Orbébus, Rhodope, and Haminus extend in a straight line from the Adriatic to the Euxine, are incorrect.

See Lencke’s Travels in Northern Greece, vol. i. p. 335: the pass of Tshangon near Castoria (through which the river Devol passes from the eastward to fall into the Adriatic on the westward) is the only cleft in this long chain from the river Drin in the north down to the centre of Greece.
the southern boundary of Thessaly, and reaching the sea between Thessaly and the northern coast of Euboea. Southward of Othrys, the chain of Pindus under the name of Tymphe'stus still continues, until another lateral chain, called Oeta, projects from it again towards the east,—forming the lofty coast immediately south of the Malian Gulf, with the narrow road of Thermopylae between the two—and terminating at the Euboean strait. At the point of junction with Oeta, the chain of Pindus forks into two branches; one striking to the westward of south, and reaching across Eetolia, under the names of Arakynthos, Kurius, Korax and Taphiassus, to the promontory called Antirrhion, situated on the northern side of the narrow entrance of the Corinthian Gulf, over against the corresponding promontory of Rhion in Peloponnesus; the other tending south-east, and forming Parnassus, Helicon, and Kitharon; indeed Egalus and Hymettus, even down to the southernmost cape of Attica, Sunium, may be treated as a continuance of this chain. From the eastern extremity of Oeta, also, a range of hills, inferior in height to the preceding, takes its departure in a south-easterly direction, under the various names of Knemis, Ptolom and Teumessus. It is joined with Kitharon by the lateral communication, ranging from west to east, called Parnes; while the celebrated Pentelikus, abundant in marble quarries, constitutes its connecting link, to the south of Parnes, with the chain from Kitharon to Sunium.

From the promontory of Antirrhion the line of mountains crosses into Peloponnesus, and stretches
in a southerly direction down to the extremity of the peninsula called Tænarus, now Cape Matapan. Forming the boundary between Elis with Messenia on one side, and Arcadia with Laconia on the other, it bears the successive names of Olenus, Panachai-kus, Pholoë, Erymanthus, Lykæns, Parrhasius, and Taygetus. Another series of mountains strikes off from Kithærôn towards the south-west, constituting under the names of Geraneia and Oneia the rugged and lofty Isthmus of Corinth, and then spreading itself into Peloponnnesus. On entering that peninsula, one of its branches tends westward along the north of Arkadia, comprising the Akrokorinthus or citadel of Corinth, the high peak of Kyllène, the mountains of Aroanii and Lampesia, and ultimately joining Erymanthus and Pholoë—while the other branch strikes southward towards the south-eastern cape of Peloponnnesus, the formidable Cape Malea or St. Angelo,—and exhibits itself under the successive names of Apesas, Artemisium, Parthenium, Parnôn, Thornax, and Zarëx.

From the eastern extremity of Olympus, in a direction rather to the eastward of south, stretches the range of mountains first called Ossa and afterwards Pelion, down to the south-eastern corner of Thessaly. The long, lofty, and naked backbone of the island of Eubœa may be viewed as a continuance both of this chain and of the chain of Othrys: the line is farther prolonged by a series of islands in the Archipelago, Andros, Têsos, Mykonos, and Naxos, belonging to the group called the Cyclades or islands encircling the sacred centre of Delos. Of these Cyclades others are in like manner a
continuance of the chain which reaches to Cape Sunium—Keōs, Kythnos, Seriphos, and Siphnos join on to Attica, as Andros does to Eubœa. And we might even consider the great island of Krete as a prolongation of the system of mountains which breasts the winds and waves at Cape Malea; the island of Kythéra forming the intermediate link between them. Skiathus, Skopelus, and Skýrus, to the north-east of Eubœa, also mark themselves out as outlying peaks of the range comprehending Pelion and Eubœa.

By this brief sketch, which the reader will naturally compare with one of the recent maps of the country, it will be seen that Greece proper is among the most mountainous territories in Europe. For although it is convenient, in giving a systematic view of the face of the country, to group the multiplicity of mountains into certain chains or ranges, founded upon approximative uniformity of direction; yet in point of fact there are so many ramifications and dispersed peaks—so vast a number of hills and crags of different magnitude and elevation—that a comparatively small proportion of the surface is left for level ground. Not only few continuous plains, but even few continuous valleys, exist throughout all Greece proper. The largest spaces of level ground are seen in Thessaly.

1 For the general sketch of the mountain system of Helia, see Kruse, Helloa, vol. i. ch. 4. p. 280–290; Dr. Cramer, Geography of Ancient Greece, vol. i. p. 3–8.

Respecting the northern regions, Epirus, Illyria, and Macedonia, O. Müller, in his short but valuable treatise Über die Makedonier, p. 7 (Berlin, 1825), may be consulted with advantage. This treatise is annexed to the English translation of his History of the Dorians by Mr. G. C. Lewis.
in Ätolia, in the western portion of Peloponnesus, and in Bœotia; but irregular mountains, valleys, frequent but isolated, landlocked basins and declivities, which often occur but seldom last long, form the character of the country. ¹

The islands of the Cyclades, Eubœa, Attica, and Laconia, consist for the most part of micaceous schist, combined with and often covered by crystalline granular limestone. ² The centre and west of Peloponnesus, as well as the country north of the Corinthian Gulf from the Gulf of Ambrakia to the strait of Eubœa, present a calcareous formation, varying in different localities as to colour, consistency, and hardness, but generally belonging or approximating to the chalk; it is often very compact, but is distinguished in a marked manner from

¹ Out of the 47,600,000 stremma (= 12,000,000 English acres) included in the present kingdom of Greece, 26,500,000 go to mountains, rocks, rivers, lakes and forests—and 21,000,000 to arable land, vineyards, olive and currant grounds, &c. By arable land is meant, land fit for cultivation; for a comparatively small portion of it is actually cultivated at present. (Strong, Statistics of Greece, p. 2, London 1842.)

The modern kingdom of Greece does not include Thessaly. The epithet κόλπος (hollow) is applied to several of the chief Grecian states—κόλπος Βαλη, κόλπος Δαμαστίου, κόλπος Άργου, &c.


The fertility of Bœotia is noticed in Strabo, ix. p. 400, and in the valuable fragment of Dikareus, Bis Ελλάδα, p. 140, ed. Fuhr.

² For the geological and mineralogical character of Greece, see the survey undertaken by Dr. Fiedler, by orders of the present government of Greece, in 1834 and the following years (Reise durch alle Theile des Königreichs Griechenland in Auftrag der K. G. Regierung in den Jahren 1834 bis 1837, especially vol. ii. p. 512-530).

Professor Ross remarks upon the character of the Greek limestone—hard and malleable to the mason—jagged and irregular in its fracture—as having first determined in early times the polygonal style of architecture, which has been denounced (he observes) Cyclopean and Pelasgic, without the least reason for either denunciation (Reise in den Griech. Inseln, vol. i. p. 15).
the crystalline limestone above-mentioned. The two loftiest summits in Greece¹ (both however lower than Olympus, estimated at 9700 feet) exhibit this formation—Parnassus, which attains 8000 feet, and the point of St. Elias in Taygetus, which is not less than 7800 feet. Clay-slate and conglomerates of sand, lime and clay are found in many parts: a close and firm conglomerate of lime composes the Isthmus of Corinth: loose deposits of pebbles, and calcareous breccia, occupy also some portions of the territory. But the most important and essential elements of the Grecian soil consist of the diluvial and alluvial formations, with which the troughs and basins are filled up, resulting from the decomposition of the older adjoining rocks. In these reside the productive powers of the country, and upon these the grain and vegetables for the subsistence of the people depend. The mountain regions are to a great degree barren, destitute at present of wood or any useful vegetation, though there is reason to believe that they were better wooded in antiquity: in many parts, however, and especially in Ætolia and Akarnania, they afford plenty of timber, and in all parts, pasture for the cattle during summer, at a time when the plains are thoroughly burnt up². For other articles of food, dependence must be had on the valleys, which are

² In passing through the valley between Æta and Parnassus, going towards Eleusis, Fiedler observes the striking change in the character of the country: "Romelia (i.e. Akarnania, Ætolia, Ozolian Lokris, &c.), woody, well-watered, and covered with a good soil, ceases at once and precipitously; while craggy limestone mountains of a white-grey colour, exhibit the cold character of Attics and the Morea." (Reise. i. p. 213.)

The Hymn to Apollo conceives even the πείδευς πεύδης
occasionally of singular fertility. The low grounds of Thessaly, the valley of the Kephissus and the borders of the lake Kopais in Boeotia, the western portion of Elis, the plains of Stratus on the confines of Akarnania and Ætolia, and those near the river Parnisus in Messenia, both are now and were in ancient times remarkable for their abundant produce.

Besides the scarcity of wood for fuel, there is another serious inconvenience to which the low grounds of Greece are exposed,—the want of a supply of water at once adequate and regular. Abundance of rain falls during the autumnal and winter months, little or none during the summer; while the naked limestone of the numerous hills neither absorbs nor retains moisture, so that the rain runs off as rapidly as it falls, and springs are rare. Most of the rivers of Greece are torrents in early spring and dry before the end of the summer; the copious combinations of the ancient language designated the winter torrent by a special and separate word. The most considerable rivers in the country are, the Peneius, which carries off
all the waters of Thessaly, finding an exit into the Ægean through the narrow defile which parts Ossa from Olympus,—and the Achelous, which flows from Pindus in a south-westerly direction, separating Ætolia from Akarnania and emptying itself into the Ionian Sea: the Euænus also takes its rise at a more southerly part of the same mountain chain and falls into the same sea more to the eastward. The rivers more to the southward are unequal and inferior. Kephisus and Asopus in Boeotia, Alpheus in Elis and Arcadia, Pamisus in Messenia, maintain each a languid stream throughout the summer; while the Inachus near Argos, and the Kephisus and Illissus near Athens, present a scanty reality which falls short still more of their great poetical celebrity. Of all those rivers which have been noticed, the Achelous is by far the most important. The quantity of mud which its turbid stream brought down and deposited, occasioned a sensible increase of the land at its embouchure, within the observation of Thucydides¹.

But the disposition and properties of the Grecian territory, though not maintaining permanent rivers, are favourable to the multiplication of lakes and marshes. There are numerous hollows and enclosed basins, out of which the water can find no superficial escape, and where, unless it makes for itself a subterranean passage through rifts in the mountains, it remains either as a marsh or a lake according to the time of year. In Thessaly we find the lakes Nessonis and Bebëis; in Ætolia, between

¹ Thucyd. ii. 102.
the Achelous and Euænus, Strabo mentions the lake of Trichônis, besides several other lakes, which it is difficult to identify individually, though the quantity of ground covered by lake and marsh is as a whole very considerable. In Boeotia are situated the lakes Kopais, Hylikê, and Harmâ; the first of the three formed chiefly by the river Kephissus, flowing from Parnassus on the north-west, and shaping for itself a sinuous course through the mountains of Phokis. On the north-east and east, the lake Kopais is bounded by the high land of Mount Pélion, which intercepts its communication with the Strait of Euboea. Through the limestone of this mountain, the water has either found or forced several subterraneous cavities, by which it obtains a partial egress on the other side of the rocky hill and then flows into the strait. The Katabothra, as they were termed in antiquity, yet exist, but in an imperfect and half-obstructed condition. Even in antiquity however they never fully sufficed to carry off the surplus waters of the Kephissus; for the remains are still found of an artificial tunnel, pierced through the whole breadth of the rock, and with perpendicular apertures at proper intervals to let in the air from above. This tunnel—one of the most interesting remnants of antiquity, since it must date from the prosperous days of the old Orchomenus, anterior to its absorption into the Boeotian league, as well as to the preponderance of Thebes—is now choked up and rendered useless. It may perhaps have been designedly obstructed by the hand of an enemy, and the scheme of Alexander the Great, who commissioned an engineer from Chalkis to
re-open it, was defeated first by discontents in Boeotia, and ultimately by his early death.

The Katabothra of the Lake Kopais are a specimen of the phenomenon so frequent in Greece—lakes and rivers finding for themselves subterranean passages through the cavities in the limestone rocks, and even pursuing their unseen course for a considerable distance before they emerge to the light of day. In Arcadia, especially, several remarkable examples of subterranean water-communication occur: this central region of Peloponnesus presents a cluster of such completely enclosed valleys or basins.

1 Strabo, ix. p. 407.
2 Colonel Leake observes (Travels in Morea, vol. iii. pp. 45, 153–155), "the plain of Tripolitis (anciently that of Tegesa and Mantinea) is by far the greatest of that cluster of valleys in the centre of Peloponnesus, each of which is so closely shut in by the intersecting mountains, that no outlet is afforded to the waters except through the mountains themselves," &c. Respecting the Arcadian Orchomenus and its enclosed lake with Katabothra, see the same work, p. 103; and the mountain plains near Corinth, p. 268.

This temporary disappearance of the rivers was familiar to the ancient observers—οἱ ἀναπληρώσεις τῶν ναυσίδων (Aristot. Meteorol. i. 13; Diódor. xv. 49). Strabo, vi. p. 271; viii. p. 389, &c.

Their familiarity with this phenomenon was in part the source of some geographical suppositions, which now appear to us extravagant, respecting the long subterranean and submarine course of certain rivers, and their reappearance at very distant points. Sophokles said that the Inachus of Akarnania joined the Inachus of Argolis: Ibykus the poet affirmed that the Asopus near Sikyon had its source in Phrygia; the river Inopus of the little island of Delos was alleged by others to be an effluent from the mighty Nile; and the rhetor Zóilus, in a panegyrical oration to the inhabitants of Tegea, went the length of assuring them that the Alpheus in Elis had its source in their island (Strabo, vi. p. 271). Not only Pindar and other poets (Antig. Caryst. c. 155), but also the historian Timaeus (Timaeus Preg. 127, ed. Gyller), and Pausanias also with the greatest confidence (v. 7. 2), believed that the fountain Arethusa at Syracuse was nothing else but the reappearance of the river Alpheus from Peloponnesus: this was attested by the actual fact that a
It will be seen from these circumstances, that Greece, considering its limited total extent, offers but little motive and still less of convenient means, for internal communication among its various inhabitants. Each village or township, occupying a pocket or cup (φαλαξ) thrown into the Alpheus had come up at the Syracusean fountain, which Timaeus professed to have verified,—but even the arguments by which Strabo justifies his disbelief of this tale, show how powerfully the phenomena of the Grecian rivers actet upon his mind. "If (says he, i.e.) the Alpheus, instead of flowing into the sea, fell into some channel in the earth, there would be some plausibility in supposing that it continued its subterranean course as far as Sicily without mixing with the sea: but since its junction with the sea is matter of observation, and since there is no aperture visible near the shore to absorb the water of the river (στρατόν το επαρθεμα το ρηχον τοιο ρεον), so it is plain that the water cannot maintain its separation and its sweetness, whereas the spring Arethusa is perfectly good to drink." I have translated here the same rather than the words of Strabo; but the phenomena of "rivers falling into channels and being drunk up" for a time is exactly what happens in Greece. It did not appear to Strabo impossible that the Alpheus might traverse this great distance underground; nor do we wonder at this when we learn that a more able geographer than he (Eratosthenes) supposed that the marshes of Rhinokoula, between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, were formed by the Euphrates and Tigris, which flowed underground for the length of 6000 stadia or furlongs (Strabo, xvi, p. 743: Seidl, Fragen Eratosthen, p. 184): compare the story about the Euphrates passing underground and reappearing in Ethiopia as the river Nile (Pausan. ii, 5, 5). This disappearance and reappearance of rivers connected itself, in the minds of ancient physical philosophers, with the supposition of vast reservoirs of water in the interior of the earth, which were protruded upwards to the surface by some gaseous force (see Seler, Nat. Quest. vi, 8). Pomponius Mela mentions an idea of some writers, that the source of the Nile was to be found, not in our (oikoumen) habitable section of the globe, but in the Anticithlon, or southern continent, and that it flowed under the ocean to rise up in Ethiopia (Mela, i, 9, 55).

These views of the ancients, evidently based upon the analogy of Grecian rivers, are well set forth by M. Latomus in a paper on the situation of the Terrestrial Paradise as represented by the Fathers of the Church; cited in A. von Humboldt, Examen Critique de l'Histoire de la Geographie, &c. vol. iii, p. 118-119.

Upon the arrival of the king and regency in 1833 (observes Mr. Strong), no carriage roads existed in Greece; nor were they indeed
its plain with the enclosing mountains, supplied its own main wants, whilst the transport of commodities by land was sufficiently difficult to discourage greatly any regular commerce with neighbours. In so far as the face of the interior country was concerned, it seemed as if nature had been disposed from the beginning to keep the population of Greece socially and politically disunited—by providing so many hedges of separation, and so many boundaries generally hard, sometimes impossible, to overlap. One special motive to intercourse, however, arose out of this very geographical constitution of the country, and its endless alternation of mountain and valley. The difference of climate

much wanted previously, as down to that period not a carriage, waggon, or cart, or any other description of vehicles, was to be found in the whole country. The traffic in general was carried on by means of boats, to which the long indented line of the Greecian coast and its numerous islands afforded every facility. Between the seaports and the interior of the kingdom, the communication was effected by means of beasts of burden, such as mules, horses, and camels." (Statistics of Greece, p. 33.)

This exhibits a retrograde march to a point lower than the description of the Odyssey, where Telemachus and Pessistratus drive their chariot from Pylos to Sparta. The remains of the ancient roads are still seen in many parts of Greece (Strong, p. 34).

1 Dr. Clarke's description deserves to be noticed, though his warm eulogies on the fertility of the soil, taken generally, are not borne out by later observers:—"The physical phenomena of Greece, differing from those of any other country, present a series of beautiful plains, successively surrounded by mountains of limestone, resembling, although upon a larger scale, and rarely accompanied by volcanic products, the craters of the Pilegreesan fields. Everywhere their level surfaces seem to have been deposited by water, gradually retired or evaporated; they consist for the most part of the richest soil, and their produce is yet proverbially abundant. In this manner stood the cities of Argos, Sikyon, Corinth, Megara, Eleusis, Athens, Thebes, Amphissa, Orechomeme, Chaeronea, Lichades, Larissa, Pella, and many others." (Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. ii. ch. 4. p. 74.)
and temperature between the high and low grounds is very great; the harvest is secured in one place before it is ripe in another, and the cattle find during the heat of summer shelter and pasture on the hills, at a time when the plains are burnt up. The practice of transferring them from the mountains to the plain according to the change of season, which subsists still as it did in ancient times, is intimately connected with the structure of the country, and must from the earliest period have brought about communication among the otherwise disunited villages.

Such difficulties, however, in the internal transit by land were to a great extent counteracted by the large proportion of coast and the accessibility of the country by sea. The prominences and indentations in the line of Grecian coast are hardly less remarkable than the multiplicity of elevations and

1 Sir W. Gell found, in the month of March, summer in the low plains of Messenia, spring in Laconia, winter in Arcadia (Journey in Greece, p. 355–359).

2 The cold central region (or mountain plain—ἐπονυμία) of Trípolíta differs in climate from the maritime regions of Peloponnéesus, as much as the south of England from the south of France. . . . No appearance of spring on the trees near Teges, though not more than twenty-four miles from Argos. . . . Cattle are sent from thence every winter to the maritime plains of Elow in Laconia (Leake, Trav. in Morea, vol. 1, pp. 88, 98, 197). The pasture on Mount Olenó (boundary of Elis, Arcadia, and Achaea) is not healthy until June (Leake, vol. 2, p. 119); compare p. 318, and Fidéller, Reise, 1, p. 314. See also the instructive inscription of Orchomenus, in Boeckh, Staatsauskunft der Athener, t. ii. p. 380.

The transference of cattle, belonging to proprietors in one state, for temporary pasturage in another, is as old as the Odyssey, and is marked by various illustrative incidents: see the cause of the first Messenian war (Diódor, Pragm. v. i, vol. iv, p. 23, ed. West; Paessm., v, 4, 9).
depressions which everywhere mark the surface. The shape of Peloponnesus, with its three southern gulfs (the Argolic, Laconian and Messenian), was compared by the ancient geographers to the leaf of a plane-tree: the Pagasean Gulf on the eastern side of Greece, and the Ambrakian Gulf on the western, with their narrow entrances and considerable area, are equivalent to internal lakes: Xenophon boasts of the double sea which embraces so large a proportion of Attica, Ephorus of the triple sea by which Boeotia was accessible from west, north and south—the Euboean Strait opening a long line of country on both sides to coasting navigation. But the most important of all Grecian gulfs are the Corinthian and the Saronic, washing the northern and north-eastern shores of Peloponnesus and separated by the narrow barrier of the Isthmus of Corinth. The former, especially, lays open Ἕλληνικα, Phokis, and Boeotia, as well as the whole northern coast of Peloponnesus, to water

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1 "Universa autem (Peloponnesus), vehementer sequarum incursus natura, in montes 76 extollitur." (Plin. H. N. iv. 6.)

Strabo touches, in a striking passage (ii. p. 121-122), on the influence of the sea in determining the shape and boundaries of the land. His observations upon the great superiority of Europe over Asia and Africa in respect of intercommunication and interpenetration of land by the sea-water are remarkable: "καὶ μέν ἡ τῆς Ἑλληνιδοντακτοῦτον ταιών ὑπεράνοια, καὶ τὸ πολεμικὸν τοῦ ἄμφοτερον ἱπποτομομένον, ἐν τούτῳ εἶναι ὁ Ἱπποτόμος ἀναλογίας ἱπποτομομένος, καὶ τὸ ἔσοδον τοῦ ἔσωθεν τοῦ ἱπποτομομένου, καὶ τὸ ἀναλογίας ἐσοπτῆς ἱπποτομομένου, καὶ τὸ ἐσωθικὸν ἱπποτομομένον, καὶ τὴν ἱπποτομομένην ἱπποτομομένην τοῖς ἐσωθικαῖς ἑμεῖς." He does not especially name the coast of Greece, though his remarks have a more exact bearing upon Greece than upon any other country. And we may copy a passage out of Tacitus (Agricol. c. 10), written in reference to Britain, which applies far more precisely to Greece: "nullam liminum dominium mare... nec intellectus, nec acerbae aequorum nec resortoriae nec influens penitus at umbra, et judiis eis et aequae montibus inserta reliqua rei..."
approach. Corinth in ancient times served as an entrepôt for the trade between Italy and Asia Minor—goods being unshipped at Lechaum, the port on the Corinthian Gulf, and carried by land across to Cenchrea, the port on the Saronic; indeed even the merchant-vessels themselves, when not very large, were conveyed across by the same route. It was accounted a prodigious advantage to escape the necessity of sailing round Cape Malea: and the violent winds and currents which modern experience attests to prevail around that formidable promontory, are quite sufficient to justify the apprehensions of the ancient Greek merchant, with his imperfect apparatus for navigation.

It will thus appear that there was no part of Greece Proper which could be considered as out of reach of the sea, while most parts of it were con-

1 Pliny, N. H. iv. 5, about the Isthmus of Corinth: "Lechaum hinc, Cenchrea illinc, augustiorum termini, longo et aequito navium ambitum (i. e. round Cape Malea), quia magnitudo planis terrae prohibet: quam ob causam peridere navigabili alveo angustisside tentavere Demetrius rex, dictator Caesar, caudis princeps, Domitiae Nero—infamato (ut omnium existi patuit) incepto."

The ὧδαλκή, less than four miles across, where ships were drawn across, if their side permitted, stretched from Lechaum on the Corinthian Gulf, to Sicyon, a little eastward of Cenchrea, on the Saronic Gulf (Strabo, viii. p. 380). Strabo (viii. p. 335) reckons the breadth of the ὧδαλκή at forty stadia (about 4½ English miles); the reality, according to Leake, is 3½ English miles (Travels in Morea, vol. iii. ch. xxix. p. 297).

2 The north wind, the Etesian wind of the ancients, blows strong in the Εὔγεια, nearly the whole summer, and with especially dangerous violence at three points—under Karyatos, the southern cape of Euboea, near Cape Malea, and in the narrow strait between the islands of Ténos, Μύκονος, and Délos (Ross, Reisen auf den Grieschischen Inseln, vol. i. p. 20). See also Colonel Leake's account of the terror of the Greek boatmen from the gales and currents round Mount Athos; the canal cut by Néraxes through the isthmus was justified by sound reasons (Travels in Northern Greece, vol. iii. c. 24, p. 145).
venient and easy of access: in fact, the Arcadians were the only large section of the Hellenic name (we may add the Doric Tetrapolis and the mountainers along the chain of Pindus and Tymphræstus) who were altogether without a seaport. But Greece Proper constituted only a fraction of the entire Hellenic world, during the historical age: there were the numerous islands, and still more numerous continental colonies, all located as independent intruders on distinct points of the coast; in the Euxine, the Ægean, the Mediterranean and the Adriatic; and distant from each other by the space which separates Trebizond from Marseilles. All these various cities were comprised in the name Hellas, which implied no geographical continuity:

1 The Periplus of Skylax enumerates every section of the Greek name, with the insignificant exceptions noticed in the text, as partaking of the line of coast; it even mentions Arcadia (c. 45), because at that time Lepreum had shaken off the supremacy of Elys, and was confederated with the Arcadians (about 360 B.C.); Lepreum possessed about twelve miles of coast, which therefore count as Arcadian.

2 Cicero (De Republica, ii. 2-4, in the Fragments of that lost treatise, ed. Man) notices emphatically both the general maritime accessibility of Greek towns, and the effect of that circumstance on Greek character:—"Quod de Corinthio dixi, id haud seco ad locatam de cuncta Greciæ verissimè dicere. Nam et ipsa Peloponnesus fuerat tota in mari est: nec praeter Phlinitis siliam, quorum agri num exstante mare: et extra Peloponnesum, Euboeas et Doreas et Dolopes soli abaining a mari. Quid dicas insulas Græcis, quæ fluctibus exsecta sustant passa ipsa simul cum civitatis institutiis et mores? Atque haec quidem, ut supra dixi, veteres sunt Græcis. Coloniam vero quæ est deducta a Grais in Asiæ, Thraciæ, Italiam, Siciliam, Africam, praeter maris Magnesianum, quam unde iam alius? Et barbarorum agris quæsibus adhibitis valor esse Graeciam." Compare Cicero, Epistol. ad Attic. vi. 2, with the reference to Dikæarchus, who agreed to a great extent in Plato's objections against a maritime site (De Legg. iv. p. 705); also Aristotle, Politeia, vii. 5-6). The sea (says Plato) is indeed a salt and bitter neighbour (μετα καὶ μη κρέας Μιναηος καὶ Μηναηον χερσον), though convenient for purposes of daily use.
all prided themselves on Hellenic blood, name, religion and mythical ancestry. As the only communication between them was maritime, so the sea, important even if we look to Greece Proper exclusively, was the sole channel for transmitting ideas and improvements, as well as for maintaining sympathies, social, political, religious, and literary, throughout these outlying members of the Hellenic aggregate.

The ancient philosophers and legislators were deeply impressed with the contrast between an inland and a maritime city: in the former, simplicity and uniformity of life, tenacity of ancient habits and dislike of what is new or foreign, great force of exclusive sympathy and narrow range both of objects and ideas; in the latter, variety and novelty of sensations, expansive imagination, toleration and occasional preference for extraneous customs, greater activity of the individual and corresponding mutability of the state. This distinction stands prominent in the many comparisons instituted between the Athens of Perikles and the Athens of the earlier times down to Solon. Both Plato and Aristotle dwell upon it emphatically—and the former especially, whose genius conceived the comprehensive scheme of prescribing beforehand and ensuring in practice the whole course of individual thought and feeling in his imaginary community, treats maritime communication, if pushed beyond the narrowest limits, as fatal to the success and permanence of any wise scheme of education. Certain it is that a great difference of character existed between those Greeks who mingled much in maritime affairs,
and those who did not. The Arcadian may stand as a type of the pure Grecian landsman, with his rustic and illiterate habits—his diet of sweet chestnuts, barley-cakes and pork (as contrasted with the fish which formed the chief seasoning for the bread of an Athenian)—his superior courage and endurance—his reverence for Lacedaemonian headship as an old and customary influence—his sterility of intellect and imagination as well as his slackness in enterprise—his unchangeable rodeness of relations with the gods, which led him to scourge and prick Pan if he came back empty-handed from the chase; while the inhabitant of Phōkēa or Mīlētus exemplifies the Grecian mariner, eager in search of gain—active, skilful, and daring at sea, but inferior in steadfast bravery on land—more excitable in imagination as well as more mutable in character—full of pomp and expense in religious manifestations towards the Ephesian Artemis or the Apollo of Branchidae; with a mind more open to the varieties of Grecian energy and to the refining influences of Grecian civilization. The Peloponnesians generally, and the Lacedaemonians in particular, approached to the Arcadian type—while the Athenians of the fifth century B.C. stood foremost in the other; superadding to it however a delicacy

1 Hekatennus, Frgm. Ἀρκαδείων δέτωτος..... μάζας καὶ ἔσει σελί. Ἡ-

εροδοτ, i. 66. Βαλανίκας ἀνδρείς. Θουκετ. I. i. 106.——

“The alteration of Χίω, which is obviously out of place, in the scholion on this passage, to Θίω, appears unquestionable.
of taste, and a predominance of intellectual sympathy and enjoyments, which seem to have been peculiar to themselves.

The configuration of the Grecian territory, so like in many respects to that of Switzerland, produced two effects of great moment upon the character and history of the people. In the first place, it materially strengthened their powers of defence; it shut up the country against those invasions from the interior which successively subjugated all their continental colonies; and it at the same time rendered each fraction more difficult to be attacked by the rest, so as to exercise a certain conservative influence in assuring the tenure of actual possessors: for the pass of Thermopylæ between Thessaly and Phokis, that of Kitharôn between Bœotia and Attica, or the mountainous range of Oenion and Geraneia along the Isthmus of Corinth, were positions which an inferior number of brave men could hold against a much greater force of assailants. But, in the next place, while it tended to protect each section of Greeks from being conquered, it also kept them politically disunited and perpetuated their separate autonomy. It fostered that powerful principle of repulsion, which disposed even the smallest township to constitute itself a political unit apart from the rest, and to resist all idea of coalescence with others, either amicable or compulsory. To a modern reader, accustomed to large political aggregations, and securities for good government through the representative system, it requires a certain mental effort to transport himself back to a time when even the smallest town clung so tena-
ciously to its right of self-legislation. Nevertheless such was the general habit and feeling of the ancient world, throughout Italy, Sicily, Spain, and Gaul. Among the Hellenes it stands out more conspicuously, for several reasons—first, because they seem to have pushed the multiplication of autonomous units to an extreme point, seeing that even islands not larger than Peparèthos and Amorgos had two or three separate city communities; secondly, because they produced, for the first time in the history of mankind, acute systematic thinkers on matters of government, amongst all of whom the idea of the autonomous city was accepted as the indispensable basis of political speculation; thirdly, because this incurable subdivision proved finally the cause of their ruin, in spite of pronounced intellectual superiority over their conquerors; and lastly, because incapacity of political coalescence did not preclude a powerful and extensive sympathy between the inhabitants of all the separate cities, with a constant tendency to fraternise for numerous purposes, social, religious, recreative, intellectual and æsthetical. For these reasons, the indefinite multiplication of self-governing towns, though in truth a phenomenon common to ancient Europe as contrasted with the large monarchies of Asia, appears more marked among the ancient Greeks than elsewhere; and there cannot be any doubt that they owe it, in a considerable degree, to the multitude of insulating boundaries which the configuration of their country presented.

Nor is it rash to suppose that the same causes

may have tended to promote that unborrowed intellectual development for which they stand so conspicuous. General propositions respecting the working of climate and physical agencies upon character are indeed treacherous; for our knowledge of the globe is now sufficient to teach us that heat and cold, mountain and plain, sea and land, moist and dry atmosphere, are all consistent with the greatest diversities of resident men; moreover the contrast between the population of Greece itself, for the seven centuries preceding the Christian era, and the Greeks of more modern times, is alone enough to inculcate reserve in such speculations. Nevertheless we may venture to note certain improving influences, connected with their geographical position, at a time when they had no books to study, and no more advanced predecessors to imitate. We may remark, first, that their position made them at once mountaineers and mariners, thus supplying them with great variety of objects, sensations, and adventures; next, that each petty community, nestled apart amidst its own rocks, was sufficiently severed from the rest to possess an individual life and attributes of its own, yet not so far as to subtract it from the sympathies of the remainder; so that an observant Greek, commencing with a great diversity of half-countrymen, whose language he understood, and whose idiosyncrasies he could appreciate, had access to a larger mass of social and political experience than any other man in so unadvanced an age could personally obtain.

1 Creero, de Omnior. i. 44. "Ithaeam illem in sequarem sese, seque nihilam, affixa."
The Phœnician, superior to the Greek on shipboard, traversed wider distances and saw a greater number of strangers, but had not the same means of intimate communion with a multiplicity of fellows in blood and language. His relations, confined to purchase and sale, did not comprise that mutuality of action and reaction which pervaded the crowd at a Grecian festival. The scene which here presented itself was a mixture of uniformity and variety highly stimulating to the observant faculties of a man of genius,—who at the same time, if he sought to communicate his own impressions, or to act upon this mingled and diverse audience, was forced to shake off what was peculiar to his own town or community, and to put forth matter in harmony with the feelings of all. It is thus that we may explain in part that penetrating apprehension of human life and character, and that power of touching sympathies common to all ages and nations, which surprises us so much in the unlettered authors of the old epic. Such periodical intercommunion, of brethren habitually isolated from each other, was the only means then open of procuring for the bard a diversified range of experience and a many-coloured audience; and it was to a great degree the result of geographical causes. Perhaps among other nations such facilitating causes might have been found, yet without producing any result comparable to the Iliad and Odyssey. But Homer was nevertheless dependent upon the conditions of his age, and we can at least point out those peculiarities in early Grecian society without which Homeric excellence would never have ex-
isted,—the geographical position is one, the language another.

In mineral and metallic wealth Greece was not distinguished. Gold was obtained in considerable abundance in the island of Siphnos, which, throughout the sixth century B.C., was among the richest communities of Greece, and possessed a treasure-chamber at Delphi distinguished for the richness of its votive offerings. At that time gold was so rare in Greece, that the Lacedæmonians were obliged to send to the Lydian Cræsus in order to provide enough of it for the gilding of a statue. It appears to have been more abundant in Asia Minor, and the quantity of it in Greece was much multiplied by the opening of mines in Thrace, Macedonia, Epirus, and even some parts of Thessaly. In the island of Thasos, too, some mines were re-opened with profitable result, which had been originally begun, and subsequently abandoned, by Phœnician settlers of an earlier century. From these same districts also was procured a considerable amount of silver; while about the beginning of the fifth century B.C., the first effective commencement seems to have been made of turning to account the rich southern district of Attica, called Laureion. Copper was obtained in various parts of Greece, especially in Cyprus and Eubœa—in which latter island was also found the earth called

1 Herodot. i. 52; iii. 57; vi. 46–123. Bœckh, Public Economy of Athens, B. i. ch. 3.

The gold and silver offerings sent to the Delphian temple, even from the Homeric times (II. ix, 435) downwards, were numerous and valuable; especially those dedicated by Cræsus, who (Herodot. i. 17–52) seems to have surpassed all predecessors.
Cadmia, employed for the purification of the ore. Bronze was used among the Greeks for many purposes in which iron is now employed: and even the arms of the Homeric heroes (different in this respect from the later historical Greeks) are composed of copper, tempered in such a way as to impart to it an astonishing hardness. Iron was found in Euboea, Boeotia, and Melos—but still more abundantly in the mountainous region of the Laconian Taigetus. There is however no part of Greece where the remains of ancient metallurgy appear now so conspicuous, as the island of Seriphos. The excellence and varieties of marble, from Pentelikus, Hymettus, Paros, Karystus, &c., and other parts of the country—so essential for purposes of sculpture and architecture—is well known.

Situated under the same parallels of latitude as the coast of Asia Minor, and the southernmost regions of Italy and Spain, Greece produced wheat, barley, flax, wine, and oil, in the earliest times of which we have any knowledge; though the currants, Indian corn, silk, and tobacco which the country now exhibits, are an addition of more recent times. Theophrastus and other authors amply attest the observant and industrious agriculture prevalent among the ancient Greeks, as well as the care with which its various natural productions,


2 Note to second edition.—In my first edition, I had asserted that cotton grew in Greece in the time of Pausanias—following, though with some doubt, the judgement of some critics that Beosiur meant cotton. I now believe that this was a mistake, and have expunged the passage.
comprehending a great diversity of plants, herbs, and trees, were turned to account. The cultivation of the vine and the olive—the latter indispensable to ancient life not merely for the purposes which it serves at present, but also from the constant habit then prevalent of anointing the body—appears to have been particularly elaborate; and the many different accidents of soil, level, and exposure, which were to be found, not only in Hellas Proper, but also among the scattered Greek settlements, afforded to observant planters materials for study and comparison. The barley-cake seems to have been more generally eaten than the wheaten loaf: but one or other of them, together with vegetables and fish (sometimes fresh, but more frequently salt), was the common food of the population; the Arcadians fed much upon pork, and the Spartans also consumed animal food, but by the Greeks generally fresh meat seems to have been little eaten, except at festivals and sacrifices. The Athenians, the most commercial people in Greece Proper, though their light, dry, and comparatively poor soil produced excellent barley, nevertheless did not grow enough corn for their own consumption: they imported considerable supplies of corn from Sicily, from the coasts of the Euxine, and the Tauric Chersonese, and salt-fish both from the

1 At the repast provided at the public cost for those who dined in the Prytanæum of Athens, Salôn directed barley-cakes for ordinary days, wheaten bread for festivals (Athens, IV. p. 157).

The milk of cows and goats was in ancient Greece preferred to that of cows (Aristot., Hist. Animal, III. 15, 5–7); at present also cow’s milk and butter is considered unwholesome in Greece, and is seldom or never eaten (Kruse, Hellas, Vol. I. ch. 4, p. 368).
Propontis and even from Gades: the distance from whence these supplies came, when we take into consideration the extent of fine corn-land in Boeotia and Thessaly, proves how little internal trade existed between the various regions of Greece Proper. The exports of Athens consisted in her figs and other fruit, olives, oil—for all of which she was distinguished—together with pottery, ornamental manufactures, and the silver from her mines at Laureion. Salt-fish doubtless found its way more or less throughout all Greece; but the population of other states in Greece lived more exclusively upon their own produce than the Athenians, with less of purchase and sale—a mode of life assisted by the simple domestic economy universally prevalent, in which the women not only carded and spun all the wool, but also wove out of it the clothing and bedding employed in the family.

1 Theophrast. Caus. Pl. ii. 2; Demosthen. adv. Leptin. c. 9. That salt-fish from the Propontis and from Gades was sold in the markets of Athens during the Peloponnesian war, appears from a fragment of the Marilas of Ephesia (Fr. 23, ed. Meineke; Stephan. Byz. v. 93.

2 Ποιητής ἐν τη τάξει, Φιλόχωρη διὰ Βολτωταν;

3 The Phoenician merchants who brought the salt-fish from Gades, took back with them Attic pottery for sale among the African tribes of the coast of Morocco (Skylax, Peripl. c. 100).

4 Simonides, Frugel. 109, Guizford.

5 Προσέθε μὲν αὐτῷ ἄμμονικον ἄμμονικον ἄμμονικον ἄμμονικον

6 θάλασσα, ἀκραῖος θάλασσα, ἀκραῖος θάλασσα, ἀκραῖος

The Odyssey mentions certain inland people who knew nothing either of the sea, or of ships, or the taste of salt: Pausanias looks for them in Epirus (Odys. xli. 121; Pausan. i. 12, 3).

7 Αἰτωλοί ότι γοργὸς Πελοποννήσιος (says Pericles in his speech to the Athenians at the commencement of the Peloponnesian war, Thucyd. i. 141) και οὖν οὗτος ὅππος ἐν σωφρόνι κρατάτω ἑαυτῷ πέπεσκε, ἀκραῖος γενατός καὶ συν δηλησίων, ἀκραῖος. (ib. c. 142.)
Weaving was then considered as much a woman's business as spinning, and the same feeling and habits still prevail to the present day in modern Greece, where the loom is constantly seen in the peasants' cottages, and always worked by women.¹

The climate of Greece appears to be generally described by modern travellers in more favourable terms than it was by the ancients, which is easily explicable from the classical interest, picturesque beauties, and transparent atmosphere, so vividly appreciated by an English or a German eye. Herodotus,² Hippocrates, and Aristotle, treat the climate of Asia as far more genial and favourable both to animal and vegetable life, but at the same time more enervating than that of Greece: the latter they speak of chiefly in reference to its changeful character and diversities of local temperature, which they consider as highly stimulant to the energies of the inhabitants. There is reason to conclude that ancient Greece was much more healthy than the same territory is at present, inasmuch as it was more industriously cultivated, and the towns both more carefully administered and better supplied with water. But the differences in respect of healthiness, between one portion of Greece and another, appear always to have been

¹ In Egypt the men sat at home and wore, while the women did outdoor business: both the one and the other excite the surprise of Herodotus and Sophokles (Herod. ii. 35; Soph. (Ed. Col. 340).

² For the spinning and weaving of the modern Greek peasant women, see Leake, Trav. Morea, vol. i. pp. 13, 18, 223, &c.; Strong, Stat. p. 185.
considerable, and this, as well as the diversities of climate, affected the local habits and character of the particular sections. Not merely were there great differences between the mountaineers and the inhabitants of the plains—between Lokrians, Aetolians, Phokians, Dorian, Oetæans and Arcadians, on one hand, and the inhabitants of Attica, Boeotia, and Elis, on the other—but each of the various tribes which went to compose these categories had its peculiarities; and the marked contrast between Athenians and Boeotians was supposed to be represented by the light and heavy atmosphere which they respectively breathed. Nor was this all: for even among the Boeotian aggregate, every town had its own separate attributes, physical as well as moral and political*: Orôpus, Tanagra, Thestie, Thebes, Anthédon, Haliartos, Korónæa, Onchéstus, and Platæa, were known to Boeotians each by its own characteristic epithet: and Dikearchus even notices a marked distinction between the inhabitants of the city of Athens and those in the country of Attica. Sparta, Argos, Corinth, and Sikyôn, though all called Doric, had each its own dialect and peculiarities. All these differences, depending

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1 The mountaineers of Aetolia are, at this time, unable to come down into the marshy plain of Wenchiri, without being taken ill after a few days (Fiedler, Reise in Griech. I. p. 184).

2 Dikearch, Fragm. p. 145, ed. Fühn—δόες Ἐλλάδος, Ἱστορίαι 2 ολ. Βοιωτα τι καὶ τοι τινες οὐ δεξόγονοι δια δεληρίων λέγοντες τινος. Τῆς μὲν πολύχρωδους κατασκευῆς ἐς Ομηρίαν, τῆς δὲ φήμης ἐς Τανάγρα, τῆς φιλοσοφοῦς ἐς Θεσσαλίαν, τῆς ἐπιρρήσεως ἐς Θηβαίαν, τῆς πλημμυρᾶς ἐς Αἰγίνην, τῆς πανηγυρίου ἐς Κοροστίαν, ἐς Μαυρίαν, τῆς Ἰλίσσιαν, τῆς περίπετῶν ἐς Ὀχυρωτῆς, τῆς ἰσιδορίας ἐς Αἴατρως.

About the distinction between Ἀθηναῖοι and Ἀρρασίαι, see the same work, p. 11.
in part upon climate, site, and other physical considerations, contributed to nourish antipathies, and to perpetuate that imperfect cohesion, which has already been noticed as an indefible feature in Hellas.

The Epirotic tribes, neighbours of the Ætolians and Akarnanians, filled the space between Pindus and the Ionian Sea until they joined to the northward the territory inhabited by the powerful and barbarous Illyrians. Of these Illyrians the native Macedonian tribes appear to have been an outlying section, dwelling northward of Thessaly and Mount Olympus, eastward of the chain by which Pindus is continued, and westward of the river Axius. The Epirots were comprehended under the various denominations of Chaonians, Molossians, Thesprotians, Kassopæans, Amphitochians, Athamanæs, the Æthikes, Tymphaei, Orestæ, Paroræi, and Atintænes—most of the latter being small communities dispersed about the mountainous region of Pindus. There was however much confusion in the application of the comprehensive name Epirot, which was a title given altogether by the Greeks, and given purely upon geographical, not upon ethnical considerations. Epirus seems at first to have stood opposed to Peloponnesus, and to have signified the general region northward of the Gulf of Corinth; and in this primitive sense it comprehended the Ætolians and Akarnanians, portions of whom spoke a dialect difficult to understand, and were not less widely removed than the Epirots.

1 Strabo, vii. pp. 323, 324, 326; Thucydid. ii. 68. Thucypomus (op. Strab. i. c.) reckoned 14 Epirotic ἰδία &c.
from Hellenic habits. The oracle of Dodona forms the point of ancient union between Greeks and Epirots, which was superseded by Delphi as the civilization of Hellas developed itself. Nor is it less difficult to distinguish Epirots from Macedomans on the one hand than from Hellenes on the other; the language, the dress, and the fashion of wearing the hair being often analogous, while the boundaries, amidst rude men and untravelled tracts, were very inaccurately understood.

In describing the limits occupied by the Hellen in 776 B.C., we cannot yet take account of the important colonies of Leukas and Ambrakia, established by the Corinthians subsequently on the western coast of Epirus. The Greeks of that early time seem to comprise the islands of Kephallenia, Zakythhus, Ithaka, and Dulichium, but no settlement, either inland or insular, farther northward.

They include farther, confining ourselves to 776 B.C., the great mass of islands between the coast of Greece and that of Asia Minor, from Tenedos on the north, to Rhodes, Krete, and Kythira southward; and the great islands of Lesbos, Chios, Samos, and Euboea, as well as the groups called the Sporades and the Cyclades. Respecting the four considerable islands nearer to the coasts of Macedonia and Thrace—Lemnos, Imbros, Samothrace, and Thasos—it may be doubted whether

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1 Herodot. i. 146, ii. 56, vi. 127.
2 Strabo, vii. p. 327.

Several of the Epirotic tribes were άγλατον,—spoke Greek in addition to their native tongue.

See on all the inhabitants of these regions, the excellent dissertation of O. Müller above quoted, Ueber die Makedonier, appended to the first volume of the English translation of his History of the Dorians.
they were at that time hellenised. The Catalogue of the Iliad includes under Agamemnon contingents from Ægina, Euboea, Crete, Karpathus, Kasus, Kôs, and Rhodes: in the oldest epical testimony which we possess, these islands thus appear inhabited by Greeks; but the others do not occur in the Catalogue, and are never mentioned in such manner as to enable us to draw any inference. Euboea ought perhaps rather to be looked upon as a portion of Grecian mainland (from which it was only separated by a strait narrow enough to be bridged over) than as an island. But the last five islands named in the Catalogue are all either wholly or partially Doric: no Ionic or Æolic island appears in it: these latter, though it was among them that the poet sung, appear to be represented by their ancestral heroes who come from Greece Proper.

The last element to be included, as going to make up the Greece of 776 B.C., is the long string of Doric, Ionic and Æolic settlements on the coast of Asia Minor—occupying a space bounded on the north by the Troad and the region of Ida, and extending southward as far as the peninsula of Knidos. Twelve continental cities, over and above the islands of Lesbos and Tenedos, are reckoned by Herodotus as ancient Æolic foundations—Smyrna, Kymê, Larissa, Neon-Teichos, Têmnos, Killa, Notium, Ægirôessa, Pitana, Ægæ, Myrina, and Gryneia. Smyrna, having been at first Æolic, was afterwards acquired through a stratagem by Ionic inhabitants, and remained permanently Ionic. Phokaea, the northernmost of the Ionic settlements, bordered upon Æolis: Klazomena, Erythrae, Teôs,
Lebedos, Kolophon, Priene, Myus, and Milétus, continued the Ionic name to the southward. These, together with Samos and Chios, formed the Pan-ionic federation. To the south of Milétus, after a considerable interval, lay the Doric establishments of Myndus, Halikarnassus, and Knidus: the two latter, together with the island of Kós and the three townships in Rhodes, constituted the Doric Hexapolis, or communion of six cities, concerted primarily with a view to religious purposes, but producing a secondary effect analogous to political federation.

Such then is the extent of Hellas, as it stood at the commencement of the recorded Olympiads. To draw a picture even for this date, we possess no authentic materials, and are obliged to ante-date statements which belong to a later age: and this consideration might alone suffice to show how uncertified are all delineations of the Greece of 1183 B.C., the supposed epoch of the Trojan war, four centuries earlier.

1 Herodot. l. 143-150.
CHAPTER II.

THE HELLENIC PEOPLE GENERALLY, IN THE EARLY HISTORICAL TIMES.

The territory indicated in the last chapter—south of Mount Olympus, and south of the line which connects the city of Ambrakia with Mount Pindus,—was occupied during the historical period by the central stock of the Hellens or Greeks, from which their numerous outlying colonies were planted out.

Both metropolitans and colonists styled themselves Hellens, and were recognised as such by each other; all glorying in the name as the prominent symbol of fraternity,—all describing non-Hellenic men or cities by a word which involved associations of repugnance. Our term barbarian, borrowed from this latter word, does not express the same idea; for the Greeks spoke thus indiscriminately of the extra-Hellenic world with all its inhabitants¹, whatever might be the gentleness of their character, and whatever might be their degree of civilization. The rulers and people of Egyptian Thebes with their ancient and gigantic monuments, the wealthy Tyrians and Carthaginians, the phil-Hellene Arganthonius of Tartessus, and the well-disciplined patricians of Rome (to the indignation

¹ See the protest of Eustathius against the continuance of the classification into Greek and Barbarian, after the latter word had come to imply rudeness (ap. Strabo, ii. p. 56; Eustath. Pragm. Seidel, p. 85).
of old Cato⁷), were all comprised in it. At first it seemed to have expressed more of repugnance than of contempt, and repugnance especially towards the sound of a foreign language⁸. Afterwards a feeling of their own superior intelligence (in part well-justified) arose among the Greeks, and their term barbarian was used so as to imply a low state of the temper and intelligence; in which sense it was retained by the semi-hellenised Romans, as the proper antithesis to their state of civilization. The want of a suitable word, corresponding to barbarian as the Greeks originally used it, is so inconvenient in the description of Grecian phenomena and sentiments, that I may be obliged occasionally to use the word in its primitive sense.

The Hellens were all of common blood and parentage,—were all descendants of the common patriarch Hellen. In treating of the historical Greeks, we have to accept this as a datum: it represents the sentiment under the influence of which they

¹ Cato, Fragment ed. Lioni, p. 46; sp. Plin. H. N. xxi. 1. A remarkable extract from Cato’s letter to his son, intimating his strong antipathy to the Greeks: he prescribes their medicine altogether, and admits only a slight taste of their literature:—“quod bonum ni curam litterarum inspicere, non perdisce... Juratit inter se, Barbaros necare omnes medicinam, sed hoc ipsum mercede faciunt, ut fides in uterum facile disperdant. Nos quoque dietitam Barbaros et sparios, nunc magis quam alios. Opes ne appellatione fœdant.”

² Ἐπίκειται γεγονός ἄπιστασιν, Homer, Iliad, ii. 867. Homer does not use the word ἄπιστασιν or any words signifying either a Hellen generally or a non-Hellen generally (Thucyd. i. 3). Compare Strabo, vii. p. 378; and xiv. p. 662.

Ovid reproduces the primitive sense of the word ἄπιστασιν when he speaks of himself as an exile at Tomi (Triss. v. 16-37):—

“Barbarus hic ego sum, quis non intelligor ulii.”

The Egyptians had a word in their language the exact equivalent of ἄπιστασιν in this sense (Herod. ii. 135).
moved and acted. It is placed by Herodotus in the front rank, as the chief of those four ties which bound together the Hellenic aggregate: 1. Fellowship of blood; 2. Fellowship of language; 3. Fixed domiciles of gods, and sacrifices, common to all; 4. Like manners and dispositions.

These (say the Athenians in their reply to the Spartan envoys, in the very crisis of the Persian invasion) "Athens will never disgrace herself by betraying." And Zeus Hellenius was recognised as the god watching over and enforcing the fraternity thus constituted.

Hekataeus, Herodotus, and Thucydides, all believed that there had been an ante-Hellenic period, when different languages, mutually unintelligible, were spoken between Mount Olympus and Cape Malea. However this may be, during the historical times the Greek language was universal throughout these limits—branching out however into a great variety of dialects, which were roughly classified by later literary men into Ionic, Doric, Æolic, and Attic. But the classification presents a semblance

1 Herod. v. i. 144. ...το Ελληνικόν των ἄνθρωπων καὶ ὀνομασίας, καὶ ἐκείνη ἑωράματα των κατὰ καὶ διότι, ἐδώ ἢ ἐπίστρωσαν τῶν προδότων γενεσθαι Ἀθηναίως, ὡς δὲ καὶ ἐν Σπάρτῃ. (Th. ix. 7.) Ἡρωδ., δὲ Δία τὸν Ἐλληνικόν ἀδοσθήνει, καὶ τὸν Ἑλλάδα δεσπότην ἐπικείμενα προδότην, &c.

Compare Thuk. fragm. p. 147, ed. Fuhr; and Thucyd. ii. 59—τα καὶ τῶν Ἐλλήνων τῶν μιμῶν των τῶν ἀρχικῶν καὶ καινῶν τῶν Ἐλλήνων: also the provision about the καίνι ἱπατικα in the treaty between Sparta and Athens (Thuc. v. 18; Strabo, ix. p. 419).

It was a part of the proclamation solemnly made by the Eumolpides, prior to the celebration of the Eleusinian mysteries, "All non-Hellens to keep away"—περικείμενα τῶν ἱπατικῶν (Ierocles, Hist. iv. Panegy. p. 74).

1 Hekat. fragm. 326, ed. Klanssen; compare Strabo, vii. p. 391; Herod. i. 57; Thucyd. i. 3—καὶ πόλεις τα, ὅσι οἱ ἐλλήνες συνεχεῖς, &c.
of regularity, which in point of fact does not seem to have been realised; each town, each smaller subdivision of the Hellenic name, having peculiarities of dialect belonging to itself. Now the lettered men who framed the quadruple division took notice chiefly, if not exclusively, of the written dialects,—those which had been enobled by poets or other authors; the mere spoken idioms were for the most part neglected. That there was no such thing as one Ionic dialect in the speech of the people called Ionic Greeks, we know from the indisputable testimony of Herodotus, who tells us that there were four capital varieties of speech among the twelve Asiatic towns especially known as Ionic. Of course the varieties would have been much more numerous if he had given us the impressions of his ear in Euboea, the Cyclades, Massalia, Rhegium, and Olbia,—all numbered as Greeks and as Ionians. The Ionic dialect of the grammarians was an extract from Homer, Hekataeus, Herodotus, Hippocrates, &c.; to what living speech it made the nearest approach, amidst those divergences which the historian has made known to us, we cannot tell. Sappho and Alkæus in Lesbos, Myrtis and Korinna in Boetia, were the great sources of reference for the Lesbian and Boetian varieties of the Æolic dialect,—of which there was a third variety, un-

*Antiqui grammatici eas tantum dialectos spectabant, quibus scriptores se casuerat; caeteras, quae non vegerant nisi in one populi, non notabant.* [Ahrens, De Dialecto Æoleó, p. 2.] The same has been the case, to a great degree, even in the linguistic researches of modern times, though printing now affords such increased facility for the registration of popular dialects.

1 Herod. i. 142.
touched by the poets, in Thessaly. The analogy between the different manifestations of Doric and Æolic, as well as that between the Doric generally and the Æolic generally, contrasted with the Attic, is only to be taken as rough and approximative.

But all these different dialects are nothing more than dialects, distinguished as modifications of one and the same language, and exhibiting evidence of certain laws and principles pervading them all. They seem capable of being traced back to a certain ideal mother-language, peculiar in itself and distinguishable from, though cognate with, the Latin; a substantive member of what has been called the Indo-European family of languages. This truth has been brought out in recent times by the comparative examination applied to the Sanscrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, German, and Lithuanian languages, as well as by the more accurate analysis of the Greek language itself to which such studies have given rise, in a manner much more clear than could have been imagined by the ancients themselves. It is needless to dwell upon the importance of this uniformity of language in holding together the race, and in rendering the genius of its most favoured members available to the civilization of all. Except in the rarest cases, the divergences of dialect were not such as to prevent every Greek from understanding, and being understood by, every other

1 Respecting the three varieties of the Æolic dialect, differing considerably from each other, see the valuable work of Ahrens, De Dial. Æol. sect. 2, 32, 59.

2 The work of Albert Giese, Ueber den Æolischen Dialekt (unhappily not finished, on account of the early death of the author), presents an ingenious specimen of such analysis.
Greek,—a fact remarkable when we consider how many of their outlying colonists, not having taken out women in their emigration, intermarried with non-Hellenic wives. And the perfection and popularity of their early epic poems was here of inestimable value for the diffusion of a common type of language, and for thus keeping together the sympathies of the Hellenic world. The Homeric dialect became the standard followed by all Greek poets for the Hexameter, as may be seen particularly from the example of Hesiod—who adheres to it in the main, though his father was a native of the Æolic Kynê, and he himself resident at Askra in the Æolic Boeotia—and the early Iambic and Elegiac compositions are framed on the same model. Intellectual Greeks in all cities, even the most distant outcasts from the central hearth, became early accustomed to one type of literary speech, and possessors of a common stock of legends, maxims, and metaphors.

That community of religious sentiments,localities, and sacrifices, which Herodotus names as the third bond of union among the Greeks, was a phenomenon not (like the race and the language) interwoven with their primitive constitution, but of gradual growth. In the time of Herodotus, and even a century earlier, it was at its full maturity; but there had been a period when no religious meetings common to the whole Hellenic body ex-

1 See the interesting remarks of Dio Chrysostom on the attachment of the inhabitants of Olbia (or Borysthenes) to the Homeric poems: most of them, he says, could repeat the Iliad by heart, though their dialect was partially barbarised, and the city in a sad state of ruin (Dio Chrysost. Orat. xxxvi. p. 78. Reisk).
isted. What are called the Olympic, Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian games (the four most conspicuous amidst many others analogous) were in reality great religious festivals—for the gods then gave their special sanction, name, and presence, to recreative meetings—the closest association then prevailed between the feelings of common worship and the sympathy in common amusement. Though this association is now no longer recognised, it is nevertheless essential that we should keep it fully before us, if we desire to understand the life and proceedings of the Greeks. To Herodotus and his contemporaries, these great festivals, then frequented by crowds from every part of Greece, were of overwhelming importance and interest; yet they had once been purely local, attracting no visitors except from a very narrow neighbourhood. In the Homeric poems much is said about the common gods, and about special places consecrated to and occupied by several of them; the chiefs celebrate funeral games in honour of a deceased father, which are visited by competitors from different parts of Greece, but nothing appears to manifest public or town


Apollo, the Muses, and Dionysus are θυεραρχοῦσαι καὶ θυγαρευτοί (Homer, Hymn to Apollo. 146). The same view of the sacred games is given by Livy in reference to the Romans and the Volsci (ii. 36-37): "Sec. ut concelebratos contaminatosque; ab iudicis, festis diebus, certa quadammodo hominum Deorumque, abiectos esse......inde non ab sole pietate, creitu...cum silvique cuberr. It is curious to contrast this with the dislike and repugnance of Tertullian: "Hisolatria omnium ludorum mater est—quod sum spectaculum sine idolo, quia ludus sine sacrificio?" (De Spectaculis, p. 369.)

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festivals open to Grecian visitors generally. And though the rocky Pytho with its temple stands out in the Iliad as a place both venerated and rich—the Pythian games, under the superintendence of the Amphiktyons, with continuous enrolment of victors and a Pan-Hellenic reputation, do not begin until after the Sacred War, in the 48th Olympiad, or 586 B.C.

The Olympic games, more conspicuous than the Pythian as well as considerably older, are also remarkable on another ground, inasmuch as they supplied historical computers with the oldest backward record of continuous time. It was in the year 776 B.C. that the Eleians inscribed the name of their countryman Korēbus as victor in the competition of runners, and that they began the practice of inscribing in like manner, in each Olympic or fifth recurring year, the name of the runner who won the prize. Even for a long time after this, however, the Olympic games seem to have remained a local festival; the prize being uniformly carried off, at the first twelve Olympiads, by some com-

1. Iliad. xxiii. 630-679. The games celebrated by Acastus in honour of Pelias were famed in the old epic (Pausan. v. 17, 4; Apollod. i. 9, 28).

2. Strabo, ix. p. 421; Pausan. x. 7, 3. The first Pythian games celebrated by the Amphiktyons after the Sacred War carried with them a substantial reward to the victor (an αὐτὸς θυσίασις); but in the next or second Pythian games nothing was given but an honorary reward or wreath of laurel leaves (αὐτὸς στέφανος); the first coincide with Olympiad 48, 3; the second with Olympiad 49, 3.


The Hymn to Apollo is composed at a time earlier than the Sacred War, when Kenea is flourishing; earlier than the Pythian games as celebrated by the Amphiktyons.
petitor either of Elis or its immediate neighbourhood. The Nemean and Isthmian games did not become notorious or frequented until later even than the Pythian. Solon in his legislation proclaimed the large reward of 500 drachms for every Athenian who gained an Olympic prize, and the lower sum of 100 drachms for an Isthmian prize. He counts the former as Pan-Hellenic rank and renown, an ornament even to the city of which the victor was a member—the latter as partial and confined to the neighbourhood.

Of the beginnings of these great solemnities we cannot presume to speak, except in mythical language: we know them only in their comparative maturity. But the habit of common sacrifice, on a small scale and between near neighbours, is a part of common sacrifice an early feature of the Hellenic mind—began on a small scale.

1 Plutarch, Solon, 23. The Isthmian Argon was to a certain extent a festival of old Athenian origin; for among the many legends respecting its first institution, one of the most notorious represented it as having been founded by Theseus after his victory over Sinis at the Isthmus (see Schol. ad Pindar. Isthm. Argum.; Pausan. ii. 1, 4), or over Skeror (Plutarch, Theseus, c. 25). Plutarch says that they were first established by Theseus as funeral games for Skeror, and Pliny gives the same story (H. N., vi. 57). According to Hellanikus, the Athenian Thomos at the Isthmian games had a privileged place (Plutarch, I. e.).

There is therefore good reason why Solon should single out the Isthmian as persons to be specially rewarded, not mentioning the Pythianikae and Neunonikae—the Neunon and Pythian games not having then acquired Hellenic importance. Diogenes Laërt. (i. 55) says that Solon provided rewards, not only for victories at the Olympic and Isthmian, but also ἀνδραρχαὶ ἐν τῷ Ἱλίῳ, which Kennic (Pythian, Neunon and Isthmian, sect. 3, p. 13) supposes to be the truth; I think, very improbably. The sharp invective of Timokreon against Theomistocles, charging him among other things with providing nothing but cold meat at the Isthmian games (Ἰδρομοεὶς ἐκεῖνος ψιθύρας φάγεται καὶ σφαγῶν, Plutarch, Themistoc. c. 21), seems to imply that the Athenian victors, whom the Thebes were called upon to take care of at those games, were famished.

Y 2
of the earliest habits of Greece. The sentiment of fraternity, between two tribes or villages, first manifested itself by sending a sacred legation or Theôria to offer sacrifices at each other's festivals and to partake in the recreations which followed; thus establishing a truce with solemn guarantee, and bringing themselves into direct connection each with the god of the other under his appropriate local surname. The pacific communion so fostered, and the increased assurance of intercourse, as Greece gradually emerged from the turbulence and pugnacity of the heroic age, operated especially in extending the range of this ancient habit: the village festivals became town festivals, largely frequented by the citizens of other towns, and sometimes with special invitations sent round to attract Theôrs from every Hellenic community,—and thus these once humble assemblages gradually swelled into the pomp and immense confluence of the Olympic and Pythian games. The city administering such holy ceremonies enjoyed inviolability of territory during the month of their occurrence, being itself under obligation at that time to refrain from all aggression, as well as to notify by heralds the

1 In many Grecian states (as at Áegina, Mantinea, Troezen, Thasos, &c.) these Theôrs formed a permanent college, and seem to have been invested with extensive functions in reference to religious ceremonies: at Athens they were chosen for the special occasion (see Thucyd. v. 47; Aristotel. Polt. v. 8, 3; O. Müller, Æginitica, p. 135; Demosthen. de Fals. Leg. p. 380).

2 About the sacred truce, Olympian, Isthmian, &c., formally announced by two heralds crowned with garlands sent from the administering city, and with respect to which many tricks were played, see Thucyd. v. 49; Xenophon, Hellen. iv. 7, 1-7; Plutarch, Lycurg. 23; Pindar, Isthm. ii. 35.—σπομμός—σύμπαθημένος—Θουκυδ. viii. 9-10 is also peculiarly instructive in regard to the practice and the feeling.
commencement of the truce to all other cities not in avowed hostility with it. Elis imposed heavy fines upon other towns—even on the powerful Lacedaemon—for violation of the Olympic truce, on pain of exclusion from the festival in case of non-payment.

Sometimes this tendency to religious fraternity took a form called an Amphiktyony, different from the common festival. A certain number of towns entered into an exclusive religious partnership, for the celebration of sacrifices periodically to the god of a particular temple, which was supposed to be the common property and under the common protection of all, though one of the number was often named as permanent administrator; while all other Greeks were excluded. That there were many religious partnerships of this sort, which have never acquired a place in history, among the early Grecian villages, we may perhaps gather from the etymology of the word (Amphiktyons) designates residents around, or neighbours, considered in the point of view of fellow-religionists), as well as from the indications preserved to us in reference to various parts of the country. Thus there was an Amphiktyony* of seven cities at the holy island of Kalauria, close to the harbour of Troæzen. Hermione, Epidaurus, Ægina, Athens, Prasiaë, Nauplia, and Orchomenus, jointly maintained the temple and sanctuary of Poseidôn in that island (with which it would seem that the city of Troæzen, though close at hand, had no connection), meeting there at stated periods.

* Pindar, Isthm. iii. 26 (fr. 14); Nem. vi. 40.
* Strabo, viii. p. 374.
to offer formal sacrifices. These seven cities indeed were not immediate neighbours, but the speciality and exclusiveness of their interest in the temple is seen from the fact, that when the Argeians took Nauplia, they adopted and fulfilled these religious obligations on behalf of the prior inhabitants; so also did the Lacedaemonians when they had captured Prasia. Again in Triphylia, situated between the Pisatid and Messenia in the western part of Peloponnesus, there was a similar religious meeting and partnership of the Triphylians on Cape Samikon, at the temple of the Samian Poseidon. Here the inhabitants of Makiston were entrusted with the details of superintendence, as well as with the duty of notifying beforehand the exact time of meeting (a precaution essential amidst the diversities and irregularities of the Greek calendar), and also of proclaiming what was called the Samian truce—a temporary abstinence from hostilities which bound all Triphylians during the holy period. This latter custom discloses the salutary influence of such institutions in presenting to men’s minds a common object of reverence, common duties, and common enjoyments; thus generating sympathies and feelings of mutual obligation amidst petty communities not less fierce than suspicious.

1 Strabo, viii. p. 343; Pansen. v. 6, 1.
2 At folkos, on the north coast of the Gulf of Pagasae, and at the borders of the Magnesia, Thessalia, and Achaea of Phthisa, was celebrated a periodical religious festival or panegyria, the title of which we are prevented from making out by the imperfection of Strabo’s text (Strabo, ix. 436). It stands in the text as printed in Tischendorf’s edition, Ρεύμα τε και τῆς Ἀθηναίας πανεγυρίων συνεργίας. The mention of Ἀθηναίων πανεγυρίων, which conduces us only to the Amphictyonic concordat of Thermopylae and Delphi, is here unsuitable; and the
chief Ionic cities in and near Asia Minor had their Pan-Ionic Amphiktyony peculiar to themselves: the six Doric cities, in and near the southern corner of that peninsula, combined for the like purpose at the temple of the Triopian Apollo; and the feeling of special partnership is here particularly illustrated by the fact, that Halikarnassus, one of the six, was formally extruded by the remaining five in consequence of a violation of the rules. There was also an Amphiktyonic union at Onchæstus in Boeotia, in the venerated grove and temple at Poseidôn: of whom it consisted we are not informed. These are some specimens of the sort of special religious conventions and assemblies which seem to have been frequent throughout Greece. Nor ought we to omit those religious meetings and sacrifices which were common to all the members of one Hellenic subdivision, such as the Pam-Boeotia to all the Boeotians, celebrated at the temple of the Itonian Athénè near Korôncia—the common observances, rendered to the temple of Apollo Pythæus at Argos, by all those neighbouring towns which had once been attached by this religious thread to the

best of Pariscian MS. of Strabo presents a gap (one among the many which embarrass the ninth book) in the place of the word Πελαῖας. Duhn conjectures τὰς Πελαῖας, εὐεργετὰς, deriving the name from the celebrated funeral games of the old epic celebrated by Akastus in honour of his father Pelias. Grosskord (in his note on the passage) approves the conjecture, but it seems to me not probable that a Grecian panegyris would be named after Pelias. Πελαῖας, in reference to the neighbouring mountain and town of Pelion, might perhaps be less objectionable (see Dikaiarch. Fragm. p. 407—409, ed. PLHr.), but we cannot determine with certainty.

1 Herod. i. 1 Dionys. Hal. iv. 25.
3 Strabo, ii. p. 471.
Argei—-the similar periodical ceremonies, frequented by all who bore the Achaean or Ætolian name—and the splendid and exhilarating festivals, so favourable to the diffusion of the early Grecian poetry, which brought all Ionians at stated intervals to the sacred island of Delos¹. This latter class of festivals agreed with the Amphiktyony in being of a special and exclusive character, not open to all Greeks.

But there was one amongst these many Amphiktyonies, which though starting from the smallest beginnings, gradually expanded into so comprehensive a character, and acquired so marked a predominance over the rest, as to be called The Amphiktyonic assembly, and even to have been mistaken by some authors for a sort of federal Hellenic Diet. Twelve sub-races, out of the number which made up entire Hellas, belonged to this ancient Amphiktyony, the meetings of which were held twice in every year: in spring at the temple of Apollo at Delphi; in autumn at Thermopylae, in the sacred precinct of Démétër Amphiktyonis. Sacred deputies, including a chief called the Hieromnémôn and subordinates called the Pylagoræ, attended at these meetings from each of the twelve races: a crowd of volunteers seem to have accompanied them, for

¹ Thucyd. i. 104; v. 55. Pausan. vii. 7, 1, 24, 3. Polyb. v. 8; ii. 54. Homer, Hymn. Apoll. 146.

According to what seems to have been the ancient and sacred tradition, the whole of the month Karneis was a time of peace among the Dorians; though this was often neglected in practice at the time of the Peloponnesian war (Thuc. v. 54). But it may be doubted whether there was any festival of Karneis common to all the Dorians: the Karneis of Sparta seems to have been a Lacedæmonian festival.
purposes of sacrifice, trade, or enjoyment. Their special, and most important function, consisted in watching over the Delphian temple, in which all the twelve sub-races had a joint interest, and it was the immense wealth and national ascendency of this temple which enhanced to so great a pitch the dignity of its acknowledged administrators.

The twelve constituent members were as follow:—Thessalians, Bœotians, Doriens, Ionians, Perrhaebians, Magnètes, Lokrians, Ætæans, Achæans, Phokians, Dolopes, and Malians. All are counted as races (if we treat the Hellenes as a race, we must call these sub-races), no mention being made of cities: all count equally in respect to voting, two votes being given by the deputies from each of the twelve: moreover, we are told that in determining the deputies to be sent, or the manner in which the votes of each race should be given, the powerful Athens, Sparta, and Thebes, had no more influence than the humblest Ionian, Dorian, or Bœotian city. This latter fact is distinctly stated by Eschines, himself a Pylaore sent to Delphi by Athens. And so, doubtless, the theory of the case stood: the votes of the Ionic races counted for neither more nor less than two, whether given by deputies from Athens, or from the small towns of Erythrae and Priene; and in like manner the Dorian

1 The list of the Amphiktyonic constituency is differently given by Eschines, by Harpokration, and by Pausanias. Tittmann (Ueber den Amphiktyonischen Bund, sect. 3, 4, 5) analyses and compares their various statements, and criticizes the catalogue given in the text.

2 Eschines, De Fals. Legat. p. 280, c. 36.—Καρπασίονε ἄριστη Ἀρεία, τὸ μέγατρον τοῦ ἱεροῦ, ....καὶ τοῦτον Πειγὴ ἱερὸς Ἰθέαν ἱερόν ἴσον ἐστὶν, τὸ μέγατρον τοῦ Χαλκείου, κτ.
votes were as good in the division, when given by deputies from Boeon and Kytinion in the little territory of Doris, as if the men delivering them had been Spartans. But there can be as little question that in practice the little Ionic cities and the little Doric cities pretended to no share in the Amphiktyonic deliberations. As the Ionic vote came to be substantially the vote of Athens, so, if Sparta was ever obstructed in the management of the Doric vote, it must have been by powerful Doric cities like Argos or Corinthus, not by the insignificant towns of Doris. But the theory of Amphiktyonic suffrage as laid down by Æschines, however little realised in practice during his day, is important inasmuch as it shows in full evidence the primitive and original constitution. The first establishment of the Amphiktyonic convocation dates from a time when all the twelve members were on a footing of equal independence, and when there were no overwhelming cities (such as Sparta and Athens) to cast in the shade the humbler members—when Sparta was only one Doric city, and Athens only one Ionic city, among various others of consideration not much inferior.

There are also other proofs which show the high antiquity of this Amphiktyonic convocation. Æschines gives us an extract from the oath which had been taken by the sacred deputies who attended on behalf of their respective races, ever since its first establishment, and which still apparently continued to be taken in his day. The antique simplicity of this oath, and of the conditions to which the members bind themselves, betrays the early age in
which it originated, as well as the humble resources of those towns to which it was applied. We will not destroy any Amphiktyonic town—we will not cut off any Amphiktyonic town from running water"—such are the two prominent obligations which Æschines specifies out of the old oath. The second of the two carries us back to the simplest state of society, and to towns of the smallest size, when the maidens went out with their basins to fetch water from the spring, like the daughters of Keleos at Eleusis, or those of Athens from the fountain Kallirrhoë. We may even conceive that the special mention of this detail, in the covenant between the twelve races, is borrowed literally from agreements still earlier, among the villages or little towns in which the members of each race were distributed. At any rate, it proves satisfactorily the very ancient date to which the commencement of the Amphiktyonic convocation must be referred. The belief of Æschines (perhaps also the belief general in his time) was, that it commenced simultaneously with the first foundation of the Delphian temple—an event of which we have no historical knowledge; but there seems reason to suppose that its original establishment is connected with Thermopylae and Déméter Amphiktyonis, rather than with Delphi and Apollo. The special surname by which Déméter

1 Æschin. Fals. Legat. p. 279, c. 35:—"Αμο πρόκειται διεξάγων τὴν αἰτίαν τῆς θεσπίσεως ταύτης, καὶ τὴν προέκυψεν γενέτευρος τῶν 'Αμφικτυῶν, καὶ τὰς ἱστορίας αὐτῶν ἱστορίας, εἰ σὲ ἔσχατα ἴνα τὰς ἱστορίας μυθελών μάλις τῶν 'Αμφικτυων ἱστορίας παραστῆσαι μὴ θέλων οὕτως εἴδες, &c.

and her temple at Thermopylae was known—the temple of the hero Amphiktyon which stood at its side—the word Pylæa, which obtained footing in the language to designate the half-yearly meeting of the deputies both at Thermopylae and at Delphi—these indications point to Thermopylae (the real central point for all the twelve) as the primary place of meeting, and to the Delphian half-year as something secondary and superadded. On such a matter, however, we cannot go beyond a conjecture.

The hero Amphiktyon, whose temple stood at Thermopylae, passed in mythical genealogy for the brother of Hellèn. And it may be affirmed, with truth, that the habit of forming Amphiktyonic unions, and of frequenting each other’s religious festivals, was the great means of creating and fostering the primitive feeling of brotherhood among the children of Hellèn, in those early times when rudeness, insecurity, and pugnacity did so much to isolate them. A certain number of salutary habits and sentiments, such as that which the Amphiktyonic oath embodies, in regard to abstinence from injury as well as to mutual protection, gradually found their way into men’s minds: the obligations thus brought into play acquired a substantive efficacy of their own, and the religious feeling which

1 Herodot. vi. 200; Livy, xxxi. 32.
2 The festival of the Amarynthia in Eubœa, held at the temple of Artemis of Amarynthus, was frequented by the Ionic Chalcis and Eretria as well as by the Dryopic Karystus. In a combat proclaimed between Chalcis and Eretria, to settle the question about the possession of the plain of Lelantum, it was stipulated that no missile weapons should be used by either party; this agreement was inscribed and recorded in the temple of Artemis (Strabo, x. p. 448; Livy, xxxv. 38).
always remained connected with them, came afterwards to be only one out of many complex agencies by which the later historical Greek was moved. Athens and Sparta in the days of their might, and the inferior cities in relation to them, played each their own political game, in which religious considerations will be found to bear only a subordinate part.

The special function of the Amphiktyonic council, so far as we know it, consisted in watching over the safety, the interests, and the treasures of the Delphian temple. "If any one shall plunder the property of the god, or shall be cognizant thereof, or shall take treacherous counsel against the things in the temple, we will punish him with foot, and hand, and voice, and by every means in our power." So ran the old Amphiktyonic oath, with an energetic imprecation attached to it. And there are some examples in which the council construes its functions so largely as to receive and adjudicate upon complaints against entire cities, for offences against the religious and patriotic sentiment of the Greeks generally. But for the most part its inter-

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2. See the charge which Echecines alleges to have been brought by the Lokrians of Amphissas against Athena in the Amphiktyonic Council (adv. Ktesiphont. c. 38, p. 409). Demosthenes contradicts his rival as to the fact of the charge having been brought, saying that the Amphissians had not given the notice, customary and required, of their intention to bring it: a reply which admits that the charge might be brought (Demosth. de Coron., c. 43, p. 277).

The Amphiktyons offer a reward for the life of Ephialtes, the betrayer of the Greeks at Thermopylae; they also erect columns to the memory of the fallen Greeks in that memorable strait, the place of their half-yearly meeting (Herod. vii. 213-228).
ference relates directly to the Delphian temple. The earliest case in which it is brought to our view, is the Sacred War against Kirha, in the 46th Olympiad or 595 B.C., conducted by Eurylochos the Thessalian and Kleisthenes of Sikyōn, and proposed by Solon of Athens: we find the Amphiktyons also about half a century afterwards undertaking the duty of collecting subscriptions throughout the Hellenic world, and making the contract with the Alkmeonids for rebuilding the temple after a conflagration. But the influence of this council is essentially of a fluctuating and intermittent character. Sometimes it appears forward to decide, and its decisions command respect; but such occasions are rare, taking the general course of known Grecian history; while there are other occasions, and those too especially affecting the Delphian temple, on which we are surprised to find nothing said about it. In the long and perturbed period which Thucydidēs describes, he never once mentions the Amphiktyons, though the temple and the safety of its treasures form the repeated subject as well of dispute as of express stipulation between Athens and Sparta: moreover, among the twelve

1 Eschin. adv. Kresiph. l. c. Plutarch, Solon, c. 31, who refers to Aristotle ἐν τῇ τῶν Πολιτειών ἀναγραφῇ—Pausan. x. 37, 4: Schol. ad Pindar. Nem. ix. 2. Τοῖς Ἀμφικτυώνοις τίς ἦν, ὅταν πῦρ ἐπὶ πόλιν κατέστη (Strabo, iv. p. 420). These Amphiktyonic arbitrations, however, are of rare occurrence in history, and very commonly abused.

2 Herodot. i. 180, v. 62.

3 Thucyd. i. 112, iv. 118, v. 18. The Phocians in the Sacred War (B.C. 554) pretended that they had an ancient and prescriptive right to the administration of the Delphian temple, under accountability to the general body of Greeks for the proper employment of its possessions—thus setting aside the Amphiktyons altogether (Diodor. xvi. 27).
constituent members of the council, we find three—the Perrhaebians, the Magnêtes, and the Achaæans of Phthia—who were not even independent, but subject to the Thessalians, so that its meetings, when they were not matters of mere form, probably expressed only the feelings of the three or four leading members. When one or more of these great powers had a party purpose to accomplish against others—when Philip of Macedon wished to extrude one of the members in order to procure admission for himself—it became convenient to turn this ancient form into a serious reality, and we shall see the Athenian Æschines providing a pretext for Philip to meddle in favour of the minor Boeotian cities against Thebes, by alleging that these cities were under the protection of the old Amphiktyonic oath.

It is thus that we have to consider the council as an element in Grecian affairs—an ancient institution, one amongst many instances of the primitive habit of religious fraternisation, but wider and more comprehensive than the rest—at first purely religious, then religious and political at once, lastly more the latter than the former—highly valuable in the infancy, but unsuited to the maturity of Greece, and called into real working only on rare occasions when its efficiency happened to fall in with the views of Athens, Thebes, or the king of Macedon. In such special moments it shines with a transient light which affords a partial pretence for

1 Æschin. de Fals. Legat. p. 230. c. 36. The party intrigues which moved the council in regard to the sacred War against the Phocians (A.D. 355) may be seen in Diakurea. xvi. 23-28 sqq.
the imposing title bestowed on it by Cicero—"commune Graeciae concilium"—but we should completely misinterpret Grecian history if we regarded it as a federal council habitually directing or habitually obeyed. Had there existed any such "commune concilium" of tolerable wisdom and patriotism, and had the tendencies of the Hellenic mind been capable of adapting themselves to it, the whole course of later Grecian history would probably have been altered; the Macedonian kings would have remained only as respectable neighbours, borrowing civilization from Greece and expending their military energies upon Thracians and Illyrians; while united Hellas might even have maintained her own territory against the conquering legions of Rome.

The twelve constituent Amphiktyonic races remained unchanged until the Sacred War against the Phokians (B.C. 355), after which, though the number twelve was continued, the Phokians were disfranchised, and their votes transferred to Philip of Macedon. It has been already mentioned that these twelve did not exhaust the whole of Hellas. Arcadians, Eleans, Pisans, Minyæ, Dryopes, Ætolians, all genuine Hellens, are not comprehended in it; but all of them had a right to make use of the temple of Delphi, and to contend in the Pythian and Olympic games. The Pythian games, celebrated near Delphi, were under the superintendence of the

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1 Cicero, De Inventioni, ii. 23. The representation of Dionysius of Halikarnassus (Ant. Rom, iv. 25) overstates the reality still more.

Amphiktyons, or of some acting magistrate chosen by and presumed to represent them; like the Olympic games, they came round every four years (the interval between one celebration and another being four complete years, which the Greeks called a Pentactês): the Isthmian and Nemean games recurred every two years. In its first humble form of a competition among bards to sing a hymn in praise of Apollo, this festival was doubtless of immemorial antiquity; but the first extension of it into Pan-Hellenic notoriety (as I have already remarked), the first multiplication of the subjects of competition, and the first introduction of a continuous record of the conquerors, date only from the time when it came under the presidency of the

1 Plutarch, Sympos. vii. 5, 1.

2 In this early phase of the Pythian festival, it is said to have been celebrated every eight years, marking what we should call an Octactês; and what the early Greeks called an Eunactês (Censorinus, De Die Natali, c. 18). This period is one of considerable importance in reference to the principle of the Grecian calendar, for 29 lunar months coincide very nearly with eight solar years. The discovery of this coincidence is ascribed by Censorinus to Kleostratus of Tenedos, whose age is not directly known; he must be anterior to Meton, who discovered the cycle of nineteen solar years, but (I imagine) not much anterior. In spite of the authority of Isidore, it seems to me not proved; nor can I believe, that this octennial period with its solar and lunar coincidence was known to the Greeks in the earliest times of their mythical antiquity, or before the year 490 B.C. See Isidore, Handbuch der Chronologie, vol. i. p. 366; vol. ii. p. 697. The practice of the Eleians to celebrate the Olympic games alternately after forty-nine and fifty lunar months, though attested for a later time by the Scholiast on Pindar, is not proved to be old. The fact that there were ancient octennial recurring festivals does not establish a knowledge of the properties of the octactês or eunactês period; nor does it seem to me that the details of the Boeotian superophoria, described in Proclus ap. Plutarch, sect. 239, are very ancient. See on the old mythical Octactês, O. Müller, Orchomenus, p. 210 n. 597, and Krause, Die Pythien, Nemeia, and Isthmien, sect. 4, p. 22.
Amphiktyons, at the close of the Sacred War against Kirrha. What is called the first Pythian contest coincides with the third year of the 48th Olympiad, or 585 B.C. From that period forward the games become crowded and celebrated: but the date just named, nearly two centuries after the first Olympiad, is a proof that the habit of periodical frequentation of festivals, by numbers and from distant parts, grew up but slowly in the Grecian world.

The foundation of the temple of Delphi itself reaches far beyond all historical knowledge, forming one of the aboriginal institutions of Hellas. It is a sanctified and wealthy place even in the Iliad: the legislation of Lykurgus at Sparta is introduced under its auspices, and the earliest Grecian colonies, those of Sicily and Italy in the eighth century B.C., are established in consonance with its mandate. Delphi and Dodona appear, in the most ancient circumstances of Greece, as universally venerated oracles and sanctuaries: and Delphi not only receives honours and donations, but also answers questions, from Lydians, Phrygians, Etruscans, Romans, &c.: it is not exclusively Hellenic. One of the valuable services which a Greek looked for from this and other great religious establishments was, that it should resolve his doubts in cases of perplexity—that it should advise him whether to begin a new, or to persist in an old project—that it should foretell what would be his fate under given circumstances, and inform him, if suffering under distress, on what conditions the gods would grant him relief. The three priestesses of Dodona
with their venerable oak, and the priestess of Delphi sitting on her tripod under the influence of a certain gas or vapour exhaling from the rock, were alike competent to determine these difficult points: and we shall have constant occasion to notice in this history, with what complete faith both the question was put and the answer treasured up—what serious influence it often exercised both upon public and private proceeding. The hexameter verses in which the Pythian priestess delivered herself were indeed often so equivocal or unintelligible, that the most serious believer, with all anxiety to interpret and obey them, often found himself ruined by the result; yet the general faith in the oracle was noway shaken by such painful experience. For as the unfortunate issue always admitted of being explained upon two hypotheses—either that the god had spoken falsely, or that his meaning had not

1 See the argument of Cicero in favour of divination, in the first book of his valuable treatise De Divinatione. Chrysippus and the ablest of the stoic philosophers both set forth a plausible theory demonstrating a priori the probability of prophetic warnings deduced from the existence and attributes of the gods: if you deny altogether the occurrence of such warnings, so essential to the welfare of man, you must deny either the existence, or the foreknowledge, or the beneficence, of the gods (c. 38). Then the veracity of the Delphian oracle had been demonstrated in innumerable instances, of which Chrysippus had made a large collection: and upon what other supposition could the immense credit of the oracle be explained (c. 19)? "Colliget innumeralia oracula Chrysippus, et nullum sine locupletis testibus et actore: quae quae vel nota tibi sunt, reliqua. Defendo unum hoc: nuncquam illud oraculum Delphi tam celebre clarumque fuisse, neque tantis domis referunt omnium populorum et regum, nisi omnis istas oracula tum illorum veritatem esse expertus.....Maneat id, quod negari non potest, nisi omnem. historian perverterimus, multis accedis verax fuisse id oraculum." Cicero admits that it had become less trustworthy in his time, and tries to explain this decline of prophetic power: compare Plutarch, De Defect. Oracul.
been correctly understood—no man of genuine piety ever hesitated to adopt the latter. There were many other oracles throughout Greece besides Delphi and Dodona: Apollo was open to the inquiries of the faithful at Ptoon in Boeotia, at Abae in Phocis, at Branchidæ near Miletus, at Patara in Lykia, and other places: in like manner Zeus gave answers at Olympia, Poseidôn at Tæmarus, Amphiaraus at Thebes, Amphilochos at Mallus, &c. And this habit of consulting the oracle formed part of the still more general tendency of the Greek mind to undertake no enterprise without having first ascertained how the gods viewed it, and what measures they were likely to take. Sacrifices were offered, and the interior of the victim carefully examined, with the same intent: omens, prodigies, unlooked-for coincidences, casual expressions, &c. were all construed as significant of the divine will. To sacrifice with a view to this or that undertaking, or to consult the oracle with the same view, are familiar expressions embodied in the language. Nor could any man set about a scheme with comfort until he had satisfied himself in some manner or other that the gods were favourable to it.

The disposition here adverted to is one of those mental analogies pervading the whole Hellenic nation, which Herodotus indicates. And the common habit among all Greeks of respectfully listening to the oracle of Delphi will be found on many occa-

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sions useful in maintaining unanimity among men not accustomed to obey the same political superior. In the numerous colonies especially, founded by mixed multitudes from distant parts of Greece, the minds of the emigrants were greatly determined towards cordial co-operation by their knowledge that the expedition had been directed, the Ækist indicated, and the spot either chosen or approved, by Apollo of Delphi. Such in most cases was the fact: that god, according to the conception of the Greeks, "takes delight always in the foundation of new cities, and himself in person lays the first stone."  

These are the elements of union—over and above the common territory, described in the last chapter—with which the historical Hellenes take their start: community of blood, language, religious point of view, legends, sacrifices, festivals, and also (with certain allowances) of manners and character. The analogy of manners and character between the rude inhabitants of the Arcadian Kynætha and the polite Athens, was indeed accompanied with wide differences: yet if we compare the two with foreign contemporaries, we shall find certain negative characteristics, of much importance, common to both. In no city of historical Greece did there prevail either human sacrifices—or deliberate mu-

2. See this point strikingly illustrated by Plato, Repub. v. p. 470-471 (c. 16), and Isocrates, Panegyr. p. 102.  
3. Respecting the Arcadian Kynætha, see the remarkable observations of Polyb. iv. 17-23.  
4. See above, vol. i. ch. vi. p. 172 of this History.
tilation, such as cutting off the nose, ears, hands, feet, &c.—or castration—or selling of children into slavery—or polygamy—or the feeling of unlimited obedience towards one man: all customs which might be pointed out as existing among the contemporary Carthaginians, Egyptians, Persians, Thracians¹, &c. The habit of running, wrestling, boxing, &c. in gymnastic contests, with the body perfectly naked—was common to all Greeks, having been first adopted as a Lacedaemonian fashion in the fourteenth Olympiad: Thucydides and Herodotus remark, that it was not only not practised, but even regarded as unseemly, among Non-Hellens². Of such customs, indeed, at once common to all the Greeks, and peculiar to them as distinguished from others, we cannot specify a great number; but we may see enough to convince ourselves that

¹ For examples and evidences of these practices, see Herodot. ii. 162; the amputation of the nose and ears of Patarbëmus by Apries king of Egypt (Xenophon, Anab. i. 9–13). There were a large number of men deprived of hands, feet, or eyesight, in the satrapy of Cyrus the younger, who had inflicted all these severe punishments for the prevention of crime—he did not (says Xenophon) suffer criminals to scoff at him (ὅσα ἔστω ἡ ἀπειθεία). The χειρομοείς was carried on at Sardis (Herodot. iii. 49)—500 χειρομοείς χρόνια formed a portion of the yearly tribute paid by the Babylonians to the court of Susa (Herod. iii. 92). Selling of children for exportation by the Thracians (Herod. v. 6); there is some trace of this at Athens prior to the Solomian legislation (Plutarch, Solon, 23), arising probably out of the cruel state of the law between debtor and creditor. For the sacrifice of children to Kronus by the Carthaginians, in troubled times, (according to the language of Eunias, "Perni soliti suas sacrificare puellae," Diodor. xx. 14; xiii. 66. Porphyry. de Abstinent. ii. 56) the practice is abundantly illustrated in Möser’s Die Religion der Phönizier, p. 298–304.

² Arrian blames Alexander for cutting off the nose and ears of the satrap Bessus, saying that it was an act altogether ἄθροισθε (i. e. non-Hellenic), (Exp. Al. iv. 7, 6). About the ἰδραματίς ἐναποκάθαρσις ἐπὶ τὸ ἱστόλον in Asia, see Strabo, xi. p. 526.

³ Thuryd. i. 6; Herodot 1. 10.
there did really exist, in spite of local differences, a general Hellenic sentiment and character, which counted among the cementing causes of an union apparently so little assured.

For we must recollect, that in respect to political sovereignty, complete disunion was among their most cherished principles. The only source of supreme authority to which a Greek felt respect and attachment, was to be sought within the walls of his own city. Authority seated in another city might operate upon his fears—might procure for him increased security and advantages, as we shall have occasion hereafter to show with regard to Athens and her subject allies—might even be mildly exercised, and inspire no special aversion: but still the principle of it was repugnant to the rooted sentiment of his mind, and he is always found gravitating towards the distinct sovereignty of his own Boulê or Ekklêsia. This is a disposition common both to democracies and oligarchies, and operative even among the different towns belonging to the same subdivision of the Hellenic name—Achaéans, Phokians, Bœotians, &c. The twelve Achaean cities are harmonious allies, with a periodical festival which partakes of the character of a congress,—but equal and independent political communities: the Bœotian towns, under the presidency of Thebes, their reputed metropolis, recognise certain common obligations, and obey, on various particular matters, chosen officers named Bœotarchs,—but we shall see, in this as in other cases, the centrifugal tendencies constantly manifesting themselves, and resisted chiefly by the interests and power of Thebes. That
great, successful, and fortunate revolution which merged the several independent political communities of Attica into the single unity of Athens, took place before the time of authentic history: it is connected with the name of the hero Theseus, but we know not how it was effected, while its comparatively large size and extent render it a signal exception to Hellenic tendencies generally.

Political disunion—sovereign authority within the city-walls—thus formed a settled maxim in the Greek mind. The relation between one city and another was an international relation, not a relation subsisting between members of a common political aggregate. Within a few miles from his own city-walls, an Athenian found himself in the territory of another city, wherein he was nothing more than an alien,—where he could not acquire property in house or land, nor contract a legal marriage with any native woman, nor sue for legal protection against injury except through the mediation of some friendly citizen. The right of intermarriage and of acquiring landed property was occasionally granted by a city to some individual non-freeman, as matter of special favour, and sometimes (though very rarely) reciprocated generally between two separate cities. Both the obligations between one city and another, or between the citizen of the one and the citizen of the other, are all matters of special covenant, agreed to by the sovereign authority in each. Such coexistence of

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1 Aristotle, Polit. iii. 6, 12. It is unnecessary to refer to the many inscriptions which confer upon some individual non-freeman the right of ἐναντία and ἐνεργεῖα.
entire political servitude with so much fellowship in other ways, is perplexing in modern ideas, and modern language is not well furnished with expressions to describe Greek political phenomena. We may say that an Athenian citizen was an alien when he arrived as a visitor in Corinth, but we can hardly say that he was a foreigner; and though the relations between Corinth and Athens were in principle international, yet that word would be obviously unsuitable to the numerous petty autonomies of Hellas, besides that we require it for describing the relations of Hellenes generally with Persians or Carthaginians. We are compelled to use a word such as interpolitical, to describe the transactions between separate Greek cities, so numerous in the course of this history.

As, on the one hand, a Greek will not consent to look for sovereign authority beyond the limits of his own city, so, on the other hand, he must have a city to look to: scattered villages will not satisfy in his mind the exigencies of social order, security, and dignity. Though the coalescence of smaller towns into a larger is repugnant to his feelings, that of villages into a town appears to him a manifest advance in the scale of civilization. Such at least is the governing sentiment of Greece throughout the historical period; for there was always a certain portion of the Hellenic aggregate—the rudest and least advanced among them—who dwelt in unfortified villages, and upon whom the citizen of Athens, Corinth, or Thebes looked down as inferiors. Such village residence was the cha-
raeter of the Epirots1 universally, and prevailed throughout Hellas itself in those very early and even ante-Homeric times upon which Thucydidès looked back as deplorably barbarous;—times of universal poverty and insecurity,—absence of pacific intercourse,—petty warfare and plunder, compelling every man to pass his life armed,—endless migration without any local attachments. Many of the considerable cities of Greece are mentioned as aggregations of pre-existing villages, some of them in times comparatively recent. Tegea and Mantinea in Arcadia represent in this way the confluence of eight villages and five villages respectively; Dymé in Achaia was brought together out of eight villages, and Elis in the same manner, at a period even later than the Persian invasion2; the like seems to have happened with Megara and Tanagra. A large proportion of the Arcadians continued their village life down to the time of the battle of Leuktra, and it suited the purposes of Sparta to keep them thus disunited; a policy which we shall see hereafter illustrated by the dismemberment of Mantinea (into its primitive component villages) which the Spartan contemporaries of Agesilaus carried into effect, but which was reversed as soon as the power of Sparta was no longer paramount,—as well as by the foundation of Megalopolis out of a large number of petty Arcadian

2 Strabo, viii. p. 337, 342, 386; Pausan. viii. 45, 1; Plutarch, Quest. Graec. c. 17–37.
towns and villages, one of the capital measures of Epameinondas. As this measure was an elevation of Arcadian importance, so the reverse proceeding—the breaking up of a city into its elementary villages—was not only a sentence of privation and suffering, but also a complete extinction of Grecian rank and dignity.

The Ozolian Lokrians, the Ætolians, and the Akarnanians maintained their separate village residence down to a still later period, preserving along with it their primitive rudeness and disorderly pugnacity. Their villages were unfortified, and defended only by comparative inaccessibility; in case of need they fled for safety with their cattle into the woods and mountains. Amidst such inauspicious circumstances, there was no room for that expansion of the social and political feelings to which protected intra-mural residence and increased numbers gave birth; there was no consecrated acropolis or agora—no ornamented temples and porticos, exhibiting the continued offerings of

1 Pausan. viii. 27, 2-5; Diod. xvi. 72; compare Arist. Polit. ii. 1, 5.

The description of the ὕδαιμον of Mantinea is in Xenophon. Hel- len. v. 2, 6-8; it is a flagrant example of his philo-Laconian bias. We see by the case of the Phokians after the Sacred War (Diodor. xvi. 60; Pausan. x. 3, 2) how heavy a punishment this ὕδαιμον was. Compare also the instructive speech of the Akarnanian envoy Kleidias at Sparta, when he invoked the Lacedæmonian interference for the purpose of crushing the incipient federation, or junction of towns into a common political aggregate, which was growing up round Olynthus (Xen. Helen. v. 2, 11-2). The wise and admirable conduct of Olynthus, and the reluctance of the lesser neighbouring cities to merge themselves in this union, are forcibly set forth; also the interest of Sparta in keeping all the Greek towns distinct. Compare the description of the treatment of Capua by the Romans (Livy, xxvi. 16).

2 Thucyd. i. 5; ii. 94. Xenoph. Helen. iv. 6, 5.
successive generations—no theatre for music or recitation, no gymnasium for athletic exercises—none of those fixed arrangements, for transacting public business with regularity and decorum, which the Greek citizen, with his powerful sentiment of locality, deemed essential to a dignified existence. The village was nothing more than a fraction and a subordinate, appertaining as a limb to the organised body called the City. But the City and the State are in his mind and in his language one and the same. While no organisation less than the City can satisfy the exigences of an intelligent free-man, the City is itself a perfect and self-sufficient whole, admitting no incorporation into any higher political unity. It deserves notice that Sparta even in the days of her greatest power was not (properly speaking) a city, but a mere agglutination of five adjacent villages, retaining unchanged its old-fashioned trim: for the extreme defensibility

1 Panomias, ο. 4. 1; his remarks on the Phokian πόλει Panopeos indicate that he included in the idea of a πόλις:—τὴν ὅμοιαν τις πόλιν καὶ τοίχον, ὁς γε ὁκ ἄρχει, ὃ ὡμοιούσιν ὅτινε ὅδε τοῖς ὁθέατρον, ὃς ἀγοράν ἰχνον, ὃς ὑδωρ κατερχόμενον ἐκ κρήνης ἄλλο ἐκ στέγας καὶ χώρον εὐθείας ἐν ταῖς καλύβαις ραδιατα ταῖς ἐν τοῖς ὀρεσίς, ὑποφθα ὀνομάζων εἰς χωρίον. ὁμω δὲ ὅρος γε τῆς χώρας εἰσὶν κατὰ τὸν ἄριστον, καὶ ἐν τῶν συνεδρίων συνέδρους καὶ ὦτοι πίπτουσι τῆς Θεοκρίου.

The μεγάλη πόλις of the Pelasgians on the peninsula of Mount Athos (Thucyd. iv. 109) seem to have been something between villages and cities. When the Phokians, after the Sacred War, were deprived of their cities and forced into villages by the Amphiktyons, the order was that no village should contain more than fifty houses, and that no village should be within the distance of a furlong of any other (Diod. xvi. 60).

2 Arist. Polit. i. 4, 6, 7 ὡς ὑπὸ πολιοῦχον καὶ ὑπὸ κοινοῦ τιλαστοῦ πόλεως μέρους ἐκ μνημείων πέρας τῆς πόλεως. Compare also iii. 6. 14; and Plato, Legg. viii. p. 848.
of its frontier and the military prowess of its inhabitants supplied the absence of walls, while the discipline imposed upon the Spartan exceeded in rigour and minuteness anything known in Greece. And thus Sparta, though less than a city in respect to external appearance, was more than a city in respect to perfection of drilling and fixity of political routine. The contrast between the humble appearance and the mighty reality is pointed out by Thucydides. The inhabitants of the small territory of Pisa, wherein Olympia is situated, had once enjoyed the honourable privilege of administering the Olympic festival. Having been robbed of it and subjected by the more powerful Eleians, they took advantage of various movements and tendencies among the larger Grecian powers to try and regain it; and on one of these occasions we find their claim repudiated because they were villagers, and unworthy of so great a distinction. There was nothing to be called a city in the Pisatid territory.

In going through historical Greece, we are compelled to accept the Hellenic aggregate with its constituent elements as a primary fact to start from, because the state of our information does not enable us to ascend any higher. By what circumstances, or out of what pre-existing elements, this aggregate was brought together and modified, we find no evidence entitled to credit. There are indeed various names which are affirmed to designate ante-Hellenic inhabitants of many parts of Greece,—the

1 Thucyd. i. 10. οὔτε ἣποτε ἐκπαιδευθητί τέλεος, οὔτε ἣπατι καὶ κατασκευαζομενι τιτυλίματος, οὔτε παρα ἐν τῷ σαλπε τῆς Εὐδαίμονι τοιούτου ἐκπαιδευθητί τέλεος, οὔτε ἔτωνε τῇ συμβεβεβαια.

2 Xenophon, Helen. iii. 2, 31.
HISTORY OF GREECE.

Pelasgi, the Leleges, the Kurêtes, the Kaukônes, the Aones, the Temmikes, the Hyantes, the Telchines, the Bœotian Thracians, the Teleboæ, the Ephyri, the Phlegyæ, &c. These are names belonging to legendary, not to historical Greece—extracted out of a variety of conflicting legends, by the logographers and subsequent historians, who strung together out of them a supposed history of the past, at a time when the conditions of historical evidence were very little understood. That these names designated real nations, may be true; but here our knowledge ends. We have no well-informed witness to tell us their times, their limits of residence, their acts, or their character; nor do we know how far they are identical with or diverse from the historical Hellens—whom we are warranted in calling, not indeed the first inhabitants of the country, but the first known to us upon any tolerable evidence. If any man is inclined to call the unknown ante-Hellenic period of Greece by the name of Pelasgic, it is open to him to do so; but this is a name carrying with it no assured predicates, noway enlarging our insight into real history, nor enabling us to explain—what would be the real historical problem—how or from whom the Hellens acquired that stock of dispositions, aptitudes, arts, &c., with which they begin their career. Whoever has examined the many conflicting systems respecting the Pelasgi,—from the literal belief of Clavier, Larcher, and Raoul Rochette (which appears to me at least the most consistent way of proceeding), to the interpretative and half-incredulous processes applied by abler men, such as
Niebuhr, or O. Müller, or Dr. Thirlwall—will not be displeased with my resolution to decline so insoluble a problem. No attested facts are now present to us—none were present to Herodotus and Thucydidés even in their age—on which to build trustworthy affirmations respecting the anti-Hellenic Pelasgians. And where such is the case, we may without impropriety apply the remark of Herodotus respecting one of the theories which he had heard for explaining the inundation of the Nile by a supposed connection with the circumfluous Ocean—that “the man who carries up his story into the invisible world, passes out of the range of criticism.”

As far as our knowledge extends, there were no towns or villages called Pelasgian, in Greece Proper.

1 Lachner, Chronologie d'Hérodote, ch. viii. p. 215, 274; Renou Rochette, Histoire des Colonies Grecques, book i. ch. 5; Niebuhr, Römische Geschichte, vol. i. p. 26-64, 2nd ed. (the section entitled Die Oenotri und Pelasger); O. Müller, Die Etrusker, vol. i. (Einleitung, ch. ii. p. 75-100); Dr. Thirlwall, History of Greece, vol. i. ch. ii. p. 26-64. The dissentient opinions of Kruse and Mannert may be found in Kruse, Hellas, vol. i. p. 308-425; Mannert, Geographie der Griechen und Römer, Part viii. introduct. p. 4. sqq.

Niebuhr puts together all the mythical and genealogical traces, many of them in the highest degree vague and equivocal, of the existence of Pelasgi in various localities; and then, summing up their cumulative effect, asserts ("not as an hypothesis, but with full historical conviction," p. 54) "that there was a time when the Pelasgi, perhaps the most extended people in all Europe, were spread from the Po and the Arno to the Rhynadaks" (near Kyzikus), with only an interruption in Thrace. What is perhaps the most remarkable of all, is the contrast between his feeling of disgust, despair, and aversion to the subject, when he begins the inquiry ("the name Pelagi," he says, "is odious to the historian, who hates the spurious philology out of which the pretences to knowledge on the subject of such extinct people arise," p. 23), and the full confidence and satisfaction with which he concludes it.

1 Herodot. ii. 23—"Ο Ψευτίκης τοῦ Ὀσίτου εἶναι, ἐστὶ δὲ τῶν μισθέων ἀνασκομοὶ, ἐν ἴδιῳ δὲ ἔργῳ.
since 776 B.C. But there still existed in two different places, even in the age of Herodotus, people whom he believed to be Pelasgians. One portion of these occupied the towns of Plakia and Skylaké near Kyzikus; on the Propontis; another dwelt in a town called Kréstôn, near the Thermaic Gulf. There were moreover certain other Pelasgian towns which he does not specify—it seems indeed, from Thucydidés, that there were some little Pelasgian towns on the peninsula of Athos. Now Herodotus acquaints us with the remarkable fact, that the people of Kréstôn, those of Plakia and Skylaké, and those of the other unnamed Pelasgian towns, all spoke the same language, and each of them respectively a different language from their neighbours around them. He informs us, moreover, that their language was a barbarous (i.e. a non-Hellenic) language; and this fact he quotes as an evidence to prove that the ancient Pelasgian language was a barbarous language, or distinct from the Hellenic. He at the same time states expressly that he has no positive knowledge what language the ancient Pelasgians spoke—one proof, among others, that no memorials nor means of distinct information concerning that people could have been open to him.

1 That Kréstôn is the proper reading in Herodotus there seems every reason to believe—not Krotôn, as Dionys. Hal. represents it (Ant. Rom. i. 26)—in spite of the authority of Niebuhr in favour of the latter.

2 Thucyd. iv. 109. Compare the new Fragments of Strabo, lib. vii. edited from the Vatican MS. by Kramer, and since by Tafel (Tübingen, 1844), sect. 34, p. 26.—ϕέροντο δὲ τὰς Χαρίσσας τούτος τῶν ἐν Ἀρκαδίᾳ Πελαγίων τινὲς, ἃς πινὰς διαθέατοι πολιτείας Κλεάνθης, Ὀλυμφίου, Ἀχρωδίου, Διον, Θύσσω του,
This is the one single fact; amidst so many conjectures concerning the Pelasgians, which we can be said to know upon the testimony of a competent and contemporary witness; the few townships—scattered and inconsiderable, but all that Herodotus in his day knew as Pelasgian—spoke a barbarous language. And upon such a point he must be regarded as an excellent judge. If then (infers the historian) all the early Pelasgians spoke the same language as those of Krēstōn and Plakin, they must have changed their language at the time when they passed into the Hellenic aggregate, or became Hellens. Now Herodotus conceives that aggregate to have been gradually enlarged to its great actual size by incorporating with itself not only the Pelasgians, but several other nations once barbarians; the Hellens having been originally an inconsiderable people. Among those other nations once barbarian whom Herodotus supposes to have become hellenised, we may probably number the Leleges; and with respect to them as well as to the Pelasgians, we have contemporary testimony proving the existence of barbarian Leleges in later times. Philippus the Karian historian attested the present existence, and believed in the past existence, of Leleges in his country as serfs or dependent cultivators under the Karians, analogous to the Helots in Laconia or the Penestae in Thessaly. We

1 Herod. i. 57. προς τεχνηκουρεται κοινόν καὶ άλλων άθόσων χαράθρων ἀνόητων.
2 Athenae. i. p. 271. Φίλιππος οὖν τῶν περὶ Καράων καὶ Λέλεγων ἀνώγομαι, καταλέξας τοὺς λακηνυρομένους Ελληνας καὶ τοὺς θεταλήσας πενεστας, καὶ Καράω φασὶ τοὺς Λέλεγων ὡς δικεταις χρηματίνως πάλαι τε καὶ πάνω.
may be very sure that there were no Hellenes—no men speaking the Hellenic tongue—standing in such a relation to the Karians. Among those many barbaric-speaking nations whom Herodotus believed to have changed their language and passed into Hellenes, we may therefore fairly consider the Leleges to have been included. For next to the Pelasgians and Pelasgus, the Leleges and Lelex figure most conspicuously in the legendary genealogies, and both together cover the larger portion of the Hellenic soil.

Confining myself to historical evidence, and believing that no assured results can be derived from the attempt to transform legend into history, I accept the statement of Herodotus with confidence as to the barbaric language spoken by the Pelasgians of his day, and I believe the same with regard to the historical Leleges—but without presuming to determine anything in regard to the legendary Pelasgians and Leleges, the supposed ante-Hellenic inhabitants of Greece. And I think this course more consonant to the laws of historical inquiry than that which comes recommended by the high authority of Dr. Thirlwall, who softens and explains away the statement of Herodotus until it is made to mean only that the Pelasgians of Plakia and Krēstōn spoke a very bad Greek. The affirmation of Herodotus is distinct, and twice repeated, that the Pelasgians of these towns and of his own time spoke a barbaric language; and that word appears to me to admit of but one interpretation. To suppose that a man who, like Herodotus,
had heard almost every variety of Greek, in the course of his long travels, as well as Egyptian,

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In the next chapter Herodotus again calls the Pelasgian nation ἡδροιώτα.

Respecting this language heard by Herodotus at Krēstōn and Plakin. Dr. Thirlwall observes (chap. ii. p. 60), "This language Herodotus describes as barbarous, and it is on this fact he grounds his general conclusion as to the ancient Pelasgian tongue. But he has not entered into any details that might have served to ascertain the manner or degree in which it differed from the Greek. Still the expressions he uses would have appeared to imply that it was essentially foreign, had he not spoken quite as strongly in another passage, where it is impossible to ascribe a similar meaning to his words. When he is enumerating the dialects that prevailed among the Ionian Greeks, he observes that the Ionian cities in Lydia agree not at all in their tongue with those of Karia; and he applies the very same terms to those dialects, which he had before used in speaking of the remains of the Pelasgian language. This passage affords a measure by which we may estimate the force of the word barbarian in the former. Nothing more can be safely inferred from it, than that the Pelasgian language which Herodotus heard on the Hellespont, and elsewhere, sounded to him a strange jargon; as did the dialect of Ephesus to a Militesian, and as the Bolognese does to a Florentine. This fact leaves its real nature and relation to the Greek quite uncertain; and we are the less justified in building on it, as the history of Pelasgian settlements is extremely obscure, and the traditions which Herodotus reports on that subject have by no means equal weight with statements made from his personal observation." (Thirlwall, Hist. of Greece, ch. ii. p. 60, 2nd edit.)

In the statement delivered by Herodotus (to which Dr. Thirlwall here refers) about the language spoken in the Ione Greek cities, the historian had said (i. 142),—"Λύδιτοι δὲ ἢ τὴν ἰόνιαν τονθά ἱστορεῖται, διὸ τοῦτος τίτορος ἔκκεις του βιοτεχνίας. Μιλέτοις, Μυκήναις, Μυτιληναίς, τῷ ἴδιῷ δὴ Καρῖς καταγόμενος κατὰ ταῦτα ἀκαθαρσίαν φησί. Ἐφεσικοί, Κολοφοναῖοι, δε.—πάντα τι στόλος τοῖς σπῆροις διέμερις ἐφορεύετο μιλησίαν εἰς τὴν γέλωσιν.
Phœnician, Assyrian, Lydian and other languages, did not know how to distinguish bad Hellenic from non-Hellenic, is in my judgement inadmissible; at

The words γλώσσης χαρακτηρ ("distinctive mode of speech") are common to both these passages, but their meaning in the one and in the other is to be measured by reference to the subject-matter of which the author is speaking, as well as to the words which accompany them, —especially the word Σάμος in the first passage. Nor can I think (with Dr. Thrivall) that the meaning of Σάμος is to be determined by reference to the other two words: the reverse is in my judgement correct. Σάμος is a term definite and unequivocal, but γλώσσης χαρακτηρ varies according to the comparison which you happen at the moment to be making, and its meaning is here determined by its conjunction with Σάμος.

When Herodotus was speaking of the twelve Ionian cities in Asia, he might properly point out the differences of speech among them as so many different χαρακτηρικά γλώσσες: the limits of difference were fixed by the knowledge which his hearers possessed of the persons about whom he was speaking: the Ionians being all notoriously Hellenic. So an author describing Italy might say that Bolognesi, Romans, Neapolitans, Genoese, &c. had different χαρακτηρικά γλώσσες: it being understood that the difference was such as might subsist among persons all Italians.

But there is also a χαρακτηρ γλώσσης of Greek generally (abstraction made of its various dialects and diversities) as contrasted with Persian, Phœnician, or Latin—and of Italian generally, as contrasted with German or English. It is this comparison which Herodotus is taking when he describes the language spoken by the people of Kréstōn and Plakia, and which he notes by the word Σάμος as opposed to Ελλάς: it is with reference to this comparison that χαρακτηρ γλώσσης in the fifty-seventh chapter is to be construed. The word Σάμος is the usual and recognised antithesis of Ελλάς or Ελληνικός.

It is not the least remarkable part of the statement of Herodotus, that the language spoken at Kréstōn and at Plakia was the same, though the places were so far apart from each other. This identity of itself shows that he meant to speak of a substantive language, not of a "strange jargon."

I think it therefore certain that Herodotus pronounces the Pelasgians of his day to speak a substantive language different from Greek, but whether differing from it in a greater or less degree (e.g. in the degree of Latin or of Phœnician) we have no means of deciding.
any rate the supposition is not to be adopted without more cogent evidence than any which is here found.

As I do not presume to determine what were the antecedent internal elements out of which the Hellenic aggregate was formed, so I confess myself equally uninformed with regard to its external constituents. Kadmus, Danaus, Kekrops—the eponyms of the Kadmeians, of the Danaans, and of the Attic Kekropia—present themselves to my vision as creatures of legend, and in that character I have already adverted to them. That there may have been very early settlements in continental Greece from Phœnicia and Egypt, is nowise impossible; but I see neither positive proof, nor ground for probable inference, that there were any such, though traces of Phœnician settlements in some of the islands may doubtless be pointed out. And if we examine the character and aptitudes of Greeks, as compared either with Egyptians or Phœnicians, it will appear that there is not only no analogy, but an obvious and fundamental contrast: the Greek may occasionally be found as a borrower from these ultramarine contemporaries, but he cannot be looked upon as their offspring or derivative. Nor can I bring myself to accept an hypothesis which implies (unless we are to regard the supposed foreign immigrants as very few in number, in which case the question loses most of its importance) that the Hellenic language—the noblest among the many varieties of human speech, and possessing within itself a pervading symmetry and organisation—is a mere confluence of two foreign barbaric languages (Phœ-
nician and Egyptian) with two or more internal barbaric languages—Pelasgian, Lelegian, &c. In the mode of investigation pursued by different historians into this question of early foreign colonies, there is great difference (as in the case of the Pelasgi) between different authors—from the acquiescent Euemerism of Raoul Rochette to the refined distillation of Dr. Thirlwall in the third chapter of his History. It will be found that the amount of positive knowledge which Dr. Thirlwall guarantees to his readers in that chapter is extremely incon siderable; for though he proceeds upon the general theory (different from that which I hold) that historical matter may be distinguished and elicited from the legends, yet when the question arises respecting any definite historical result, his canon of credibility is too just to permit him to overlook the absence of positive evidence, even when all intrinsic incredibility is removed. That which I note as Terra Incognita, is in his view a land which may be known up to a certain point; but the map which he draws of it contains so few ascertained places as to differ very little from absolute vacuity.

The most ancient district called Hellas is affirmed by Aristotle to have been near Dédôna and the river Achelôs—a description which would have been unintelligible (since the river does not flow near Dédôna), if it had not been qualified by the remark, that the river had often in former times changed its course. He states moreover that the deluge of Deukaliôn took place chiefly in this district, which was in those early days inhabited by the Selãi, and by
the people then called Græci, but now Hellenes. The Selli (called by Pindar Helli) are mentioned in the Iliad as the ministers of the Dodonean Zeus—”men who slept on the ground and never washed their feet,” and Hesiod in one of the lost poems (the Eoiai) speaks of the fat land and rich pastures of the land called Hellœopia wherein Dōdôna was situated. On what authority Aristotle made his statement, we do not know; but the general feeling of the Greeks was different,—connecting Deukaliôn, Helen, and the Hellenes, primarily and specially with the territory called Achaia Phthiotis, between Mount Othrys and Æta. Nor can we either affirm or deny his assertion that the people in the neighbourhood of Dōdôna were called Græci before they were called Hellenes. There is no ascertained instance of the mention of a people called Græci in any author earlier than this Aristotelian treatise; for the allusions to Alkman and Sophoklês prove nothing to the point. Nor can we explain how it came to pass that the Hellenes were known to the Romans only under the name of Græci or Graï. But the name

1 Aristotel. Meteorol. i. 14.
2 Homer, Iliad, xvi. 234; Hesiod, Fragm. 149; ed. Markitscheffel; Sophoklês, Trachm. 1174; Strabo, vii. p. 328.
3 Stephan. Byz. v. Græcos.—Γραικοὶ δὲ παρὰ τῆς Ἀκραίας αὐτῆς ἐκ τῆς Ἐθνοῦς γενέσθαι, οὐ γὰρ ἠφοδοκεῖαι ἐν Ποιήσεις, εὐπτὸ δὲ ἡ ἰδιαίτεραι, διὸ τῆς Γραικῆς εἰκονικῆς ἀληθείας εὐτίκειος.

The word Γραικοὶ in Alkman, meaning “the mothers of the Hellenes,” may well be only a dialectic variety of γραῖς, analogous to ἀλέξ, ἀλέσ, ἀλεξ, ἀλεξ, &c. (Athenes, De Dialecto Dunciæ, sect. 11, p. 91; and sect. 31, p. 242), perhaps declined like γυναικεῖς.

The term used by Sophoklês, if we may believe Phœnix, was not Γραῖς, but Πανδυς (Phœnix, p. 460, 15; Dunciæ, Fragment. Soph. 953; compare 455). Euripides (p. 890) seems undecided between the two.
by which a people is known to foreigners is often completely different from its own domestic name, and we are not less at a loss to assign the reason, how the Rasena of Etruria came to be known to the Romans by the name of Tuscans or Etruscans.
CHAPTER III.

MEMBERS OF THE HELLENIC AGGREGATE, SEPARATELY TAKEN.—Greeks North of Peloponnesus.

Having in the preceding chapter touched upon the Greeks in their aggregate capacity, I now come to describe separately the portions of which this aggregate consisted, as they present themselves at the first discernible period of history.

It has already been mentioned that the twelve races or subdivisions, members of what is called the Amphiktyonic convocation, were as follows:

North of the pass of Thermopylae,—Thessalians, Perrhaebians, Magnètes, Achæans, Melians, Æni-annes, Dolopes.

South of the pass of Thermopylae,—Dorians, Ionians, Boeotians, Lokrians, Phokians.

Other Hellenic races, not comprised among the Amphiktyons, were—

The Ætolians and Akarnanians, north of the Gulf of Corinth.

The Arcadians, Eleians, Pisatans, and Triphylians, in the central and western portion of Peloponnesus. I do not here name the Achæans who occupied the southern or Peloponnesian coast of the Corinthian gulf, because they may be presumed to have been originally of the same race as the Phthiot Achæans, and therefore participant in the Amphiktyonic constituency, though their actual connection with it may have been disused.
The Dryopes, an inconsiderable, but seemingly peculiar subdivision, who occupied some scattered points on the sea-coast—Hermioné on the Argolic peninsula; Styrus and Karystus in Euboea; the island of Kythnus, &c.

Though it may be said, in a general way, that our historical discernment of the Hellenic aggregate, apart from the illusions of legend, commences with 776 B.C., yet with regard to the larger number of its subdivisions just enumerated, we can hardly be said to possess any specific facts anterior to the invasion of Xerxes in 480 B.C. Until the year 560 B.C., (the epoch of Croesus in Asia Minor, and of Peisistratus at Athens,) the history of the Greeks presents hardly anything of a collective character; the movements of each portion of the Hellenic world begin and end apart from the rest. The destruction of Kirrha by the Amphiktyons is the first historical incident which brings into play, in defence of the Delphian temple, a common Hellenic feeling of active obligation.

But about 560 B.C., two important changes are seen to come into operation which alter the character of Grecian history—extricating it out of its former chaos of detail, and centralising its isolated phenomena:—1. The subjugation of the Asiatic Greeks by Lydia and by Persia, followed by their struggles for emancipation—wherein the European Greeks became implicated, first as accessories, and afterwards as principals. 2. The combined action of the large mass of Greeks under Sparta, as their most powerful state and acknowledged chief, succeeded by the rapid and extraordinary growth of Athens,
the complete development of Grecian maritime power, and the struggle between Athens and Sparta for the headship. These two causes, though distinct in themselves, must nevertheless be regarded as working together to a certain degree—or rather the second grew out of the first. For it was the Persian invasions of Greece which first gave birth to a wide-spread alarm and antipathy among the leading Greeks (we must not call it Pan-Hellenic, since more than half of the Amphiktyonic constituency gave earth and water to Xerxes) against the barbarians of the East, and impressed them with the necessity of joint active operations under a leader. The idea of a leadership or hegemony of collective Hellas, as a privilege necessarily vested in some one state for common security against the barbarians, thus became current—an idea foreign to the mind of Solon, or any one of the same age. Next came the miraculous development of Athens, and the violent contest between her and Sparta which should be the leader; the larger portion of Hellas taking side with one or the other, and the common quarrel against the Persian being for the time put out of sight. Athens is put down, Sparta acquires the undisputed hegemony, and again the anti-barbaric feeling manifests itself, though faintly, in the Asiatic expeditions of Agesilaus. But the Spartans, too incompetent either to deserve or maintain this exalted position, are overthrown by the Thebans—theirselves not less incompetent, with the single exception of Epameinondas. The death of that single man extinguishes the pretensions of Thebes to the hegemony, and
Hellas is left, like the deserted Penelope in the Odyssey, worried by the competition of several suitors, none of whom is strong enough to stretch the bow on which the prize depends. Such a manifestation of force as well as the trampling down of the competing suitors, is reserved, not for any legitimate Hellenic arm, but for a semi-hellenised Macedonian, "brought up at Pella," and making good his encroachments gradually from the north of Olympus. The hegemony of Greece thus passes for ever out of Grecian hands; but the conqueror finds his interest in rekindling the old sentiment under the influence of which it had first sprung up. He binds to him the discordant Greeks, by the force of their ancient and common antipathy against the Great King, until the desolation and sacrilege once committed by Xerxes at Athens is avenged by annihilation of the Persian empire. And this victorious consummation of Pan-Hellenic antipathy—the dream of Xenophon and the Ten Thousand Greeks after the battle of Kunaxa—the hope of Jason of Pheræ—the exhortation of Isokratès—the project of Philip and the achievement of Alexander,—while it manifests the

1 Xenophon, Hellen. vii. 5, 27; Demosthenes, De Coron. c. 7, p. 231.
2—Αλλα τοι ἐν διερημένο καὶ πάντα τὸν τούτου καὶ παντὶ τοὺς ἄλλους Ἑλλήνων ἤκει καὶ ταραχή.
3 Demosthen. de Coron. c. 21, p. 247.
5 Xenophon, Hellen. vi. 1, 12; Isokratès, Orat. ad Philipp., Orat. v. p. 107. This discourse of Isokratès is composed expressly for the purpose of calling on Philip to put himself at the head of united Greece against the Persians: the Orat. iv., called Panegyrici, recommends a combination of all Greeks for the same purpose, but under the hegemony of Athens, putting aside all intestine differences: see Orat. iv. p. 45-68.
irresistible might of Hellenic ideas and organisation in the then existing state of the world, is at the same time the closing scene of substantive Grecian life. The citizen-feelings of Greece become afterwards merely secondary forces, subordinate to the preponderance of Greek mercenaries under Macedonian order, and to the rudest of all native Hellens—the Ætolian mountaineers. Some few individuals are indeed found, even in the third century B.C., worthy of the best times of Hellas, and the Achaean confederation of that century is an honourable attempt to contend against irresistible difficulties; but on the whole, that free, social, and political march, which gives so much interest to the earlier centuries, is irrevocably banished from Greece after the generation of Alexander the Great.

The foregoing brief sketch will show that, taking the period from Croesus and Peisistratus down to the generation of Alexander (560-300 B.C.), the phenomena of Hellas generally, and her relations both foreign and inter-political, admit of being grouped together in masses, with continued dependence on one or a few predominant circumstances. They may be said to constitute a sort of historical epopee, analogous to that which Herodotus has constructed out of the wars between Greeks and barbarians, from the legends of Io and Eurōpa down to the repulse of Xerxes. But when we are called back to the period between 776 and 560 B.C., the phenomena brought to our knowledge are scanty in number—exhibiting few common feelings or interests, and no tendency towards any one assignable purpose. To impart attraction
to this first period, so obscure and unpromising, we shall be compelled to consider it in its relation with the second; partly as a preparation, partly as a contrast.

Of the extra-Peloponnesian Greeks north of Attica, during these two centuries, we know absolutely nothing; but it will be possible to furnish some information respecting the early condition and struggles of the great Dorian states in Peloponnesus, and respecting the rise of Sparta from the second to the first place in the comparative scale of Grecian powers. Athens becomes first known to us at the legislation of Draco and the attempt of Kylon (620 B.C.) to make himself despot; and we gather some facts concerning the Ionic cities in Babæa and Asia Minor during the century of their chief prosperity, prior to the reign and conquests of Croesus. In this way we shall form to ourselves some idea of the growth of Sparta and Athens,—of the short-lived and energetic development of the Ionic Greeks—and of the slow working of those causes which tended to bring about increased Hellenic intercommunication—as contrasted with the enlarged range of ambition, the grand Pan-Hellenic ideas, the systematised party-antipathies, and the intensified action both abroad and at home, which grew out of the contest with Persia.

There are also two or three remarkable manifestations which will require special notice during this first period of Grecian history:—1. The great multiplicity of colonies sent forth by individual cities, and the rise and progress of these several colonies; 2. The number of despots who arose in
the various Grecian cities; 3. The lyric poetry; 4. The rudiments of that which afterwards ripened into moral philosophy, as manifested in gnomes or aphorisms—or the age of the Seven Wise Men.

But before I proceed to relate those earliest proceedings (unfortunately too few) of the Dorians and Ionians during the historical period, together with the other matters just alluded to, it will be convenient to go over the names and positions of those other Grecian states respecting which we have no information during these first two centuries. Some idea will thus be formed of the less important members of the Hellenic aggregate, previous to the time when they will be called into action. We begin by the territory north of the pass of Thermopylae.

Of the different races who dwelt between this celebrated pass and the mouth of the river Peneius, by far the most powerful and important were the Thessalians. Sometimes indeed the whole of this area passed under the name of Thessaly—since nominally, though not always really, the power of the Thessalians extended over the whole. We know that the Trachinian Herakleia, founded by the Lacedæmonians in the early years of the Peloponnesian war close at the pass of Thermopylae, was planted upon the territory of the Thessalians. But there were also within these limits other races, inferior and dependent on the Thessalians, yet said to be of more ancient date, and certainly not less genuine subdivisions of the Hellenic name. The

1 Thucyd. iii. 93. Οἱ Θερμολοί ἐν δεισίᾳ διαὶ τὴν τινήν χαράν, καὶ ὅτι τὴν ἐπὶ ἔκφραστον (Herakleia), &c.
Perrhæbi occupied the northern portion of the territory between the lower course of the river Peneius and Mount Olympus. The Magnètes dwelt along the eastern coast, between Mount Ossa and Pelion on one side and the Atgecean on the other, comprising the south-eastern cape and the eastern coast of the Gulf of Pagasæ as far as Iolkos. The Achaæans occupied the territory called Phthiòtis, extending from near Mount Pindus on the west to the Gulf of Pagasæ on the east—along the mountain chain of Othrys with its lateral projections northerly into the Thessalian plain, and southerly even to its junction with Œta. The three tribes of the Malians dwelt between Achaæa Phthiòtis and Thermopylae, including both Trachin and Herakleia. Westward of Achaæa Phthiòtis, the lofty region of Pindus or Tymphræstus, with its declivities both westward and eastward, was occupied by the Dolopes.

All these five tribes or subdivisions—Perrhæbians, Magnètes, Achaæans of Phthiòtis, Malians, and Dolopes, together with certain Epirotic and Macedonian tribes besides, beyond the boundaries of Pindus and Olympus—were in a state of irregular de-

1 Herodot. vii. 173; Strabo, ix. p. 440-441. Herodotus notices the pass over the chain of Olympus or the Cambilian mountains by which Xerxes and his army passed out of Macedonia into Perrhæbia: see the description of the pass and the neighbouring country in Leake, Travels in Northern Greece, ch. xxviii., vol. iii. p. 338-348; compare Livy, xiii. 53.
2 Skylax, Peripl., c. 66; Herodot. vii. 183-188.
3 Skylax, Peripl. c. 64; Strabo, ix. p. 433-434. Sophokles included the territory of Trachin in the limits of Phthiòtis (Strabo, t. c.). Herodotus considers Phthiòtis as terminating a little north of the river Spercheius (vii. 198).
pendence upon the Thessalians, who occupied the central plain or basin drained by the Peneius. That river receives the streams from Olympus, from Pindus, and from Othrys—flowing through a region which was supposed by its inhabitants to have been once a lake, until Poseidon cut open the defile of Tempe, through which the waters found an efflux. In travelling northward from Thermopylae, the commencement of this fertile region—the amplest space of land continuously productive which Hellas presents—is strikingly marked by the steep rock and ancient fortress of Thaumaki; from whence the traveller, passing over the mountains of Achaea Phthisitis and Othrys, sees before him the plains and low declivities which reach northward across Thessaly to Olympus. A narrow strip of coast—in the interior of the Gulf of Pagasae, between the Magnes and the Achaeans, and containing the towns of Amphissa and Pagasae—belonged to

1 See the description of Thaumaki in Levy, xxxii. 4, and in Dr. Holland's Travels, ch. xvi. vol. ii. p. 119—now Thamnoko.

2 Skylas. Peripl. c. 66. Hausermus (v. Παγασαίον Ἀχαϊον) seems to reckon Pagasae as Achaeans.

About the towns in Thessaly and their various positions, see Mau-tert, Geograph. der Gr. und Rômer. Part vii. book iii. ch. 8 and 9.

There was an ancient religious ceremony, celebrated by the Delphians every ninth year (Kusanteria): a procession was sent from Delphi to the pass of Tempe, consisting of well-born youths under an archi-thetae, who represented the proceeding ascribed by an old legend to Apollo; that god was believed to have gone thither to receive expiation after the slaughter of the serpent Python; at least this was one among several discrepant legends. The chief youth plucked and brought back a branch from the sacred laurel at Tempe, as a token that he had fulfilled his mission; he returned by "the sacred road," and broke his fast at a place called Averai near Larissa. A solemn festival, frequented by a large concourse of people from the surrounding regions, was celebrated on this occasion at Tempe, in honour of Apollo Tempeutis (Aphaias Tempeurtis in the Æolic dialect of Thessaly; see

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this proper territory of Thessaly, but its great expansion was inland: within it were situated the cities of Phere, Pharsalus, Skotussa, Larissa, Kranon, Atrax, Pharkadon, Trikka, Metropolis, Pelinna, &c.

The abundance of corn and cattle from the neighbouring plains sustained in these cities a numerous population, and above all a proud and disorderly noblesse, whose manners bore much resemblance to those of the heroic times. They were violent in their behaviour, eager in armed feud, but unaccustomed to political discussion or compromise; faithless as to obligations, yet at the same time generous in their hospitalities, and much given to the enjoyment of the table. Breeding the finest horses in Greece, they were distinguished for their excellence as cavalry; but their infantry is little noticed, nor do the Thessalian cities seem to have possessed that congregation of free and tolerably equal citi-

Inscript. in Boccab, Corp. Ins. No. 1767. The procession was accompanied by a flute-player.

See Plutarch, Quest. Græc. ch. xi. p. 292; De Musiæ, ch. xiv. p. 1136; Elian, V. H. iii. 1; Stephan, Hyt. v. Aristot.

It is important to notice these religious processions as establishing interwoven and sympathetic between the distant members of Hellas, but the inferences which O. Müller (Durnes, B. i. 1. p. 222) would build upon them, as to the original seat of the Dorian and the worship of Apollo, are not to be trusted.

Plato, Krit. c. 13. p. 53. ἐξὶ γὰρ τῆς πλείονος ἀνθρώπων καὶ ἀσθενῶν (compare the beginning of the Menéa)—a remark the more striking, since he had just before described the Boeotian Thebes as a well-regulated city, though both Dikaiarchus and Polybius represent it in its times as so much the contrary.


The march of political affairs in Thessaly is understood from Xenoph. Hellen. vi. 1.; compare Anab. i. 1, 10, and Thucyd. iv. 78.
zens, each master of his own arms, out of whom the ranks of hoplites were constituted—the warlike nobles, such as the Aleuadæ at Larissa, or the Skopadæ at Kranon, despising everything but equestrian service for themselves, furnished, from their extensive herds on the plain, horses for the poorer soldiers. These Thessalian cities exhibit the extreme of turbulent oligarchy, occasionally trampled down by some one man of great vigour, but little tempered by that sense of political communion and reverence for established law, which was found among the better cities of Hellas. Both in Athens and Sparta, so different in many respects from each other, this feeling will be found, if not indeed constantly predominant, yet constantly present and operative. Both of them exhibit a contrast with Larissa or Pheræ not unlike that between Rome and Capua—the former, with her endless civil disputes constitutionally conducted, admitting the joint action of parties against a common foe; the latter with her abundant soil enriching a luxurious oligarchy, and impelled according to the feuds of her great proprietors, the Magii, Blossii, and Jubellii.

The Thessalians are indeed in their character and capacity as much Epirote or Macedonian as Hellenic, forming a sort of link between the two. For the Macedonians, though trained in aftertimes upon Grecian principles by the genius of Philip and Alexander, so as to constitute the celebrated heavy-armed phalanx, were originally (even in the Peloponnesian war) distinguished chiefly for the excel-

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* See Cicero, Orat. in Fam. c. 11; De Leg. Agrar. cons. Rullum. c. 34-35. 
lence of their cavalry, like the Thessalians; while the broad-brimmed hat or kausia, and the short spreading mantle or chlamys, were common to both.

We are told that the Thessalians were originally immigrants from Thespotria in Epirus, and conquerors of the plain of the Peneius, which (according to Herodotus) was then called Aelis, and which they found occupied by the Pelasgi. It may be doubted whether the great Thessalian families—such as the Aleuadae of Larissa, descendants from Herakles, and placed by Pindar on the same level as the Lacedaemonian kings—would have admitted this Thespotrian origin; nor does it coincide with the tenor of those legends which make the eponym, Thessalus, son of Herakles. Moreover, it is to be remarked that the language of the Thessalians was Hellenic, a variety of the Æolic dialect; the same (so far as we can make out) as that of the people whom they must have found settled in the country at their first conquest. If then it be true, that at some period anterior to the commencement of authentic history, a body of Thespotian warriors crossed the passes of Pindus, and established themselves as conquerors in Thessaly, we must suppose them to have been more warlike than numerous, and to have gradually dropt their primitive language.

1 Compare the Thessalian cavalry as described by Polybius, vi. 8, with the Macedonian as described by Thucydides, ii. 100.
2 Herodot. vii. 176; Thucyd. i. 12.
3 Pindar, Pyth. x. (in the Schol. and the valuable comment of Bocchus, in reference to the Aleuadae; Schneider ad Aristot. Politt. 8, 5, 9; and the Essay of Buttman, Von dem Geschlecht der Aleudai, art. xxii. vol. ii. p. 254, of the collection called "Mythologiae."
4 Ahrens, De Dialect. Æolica, c. 3, 2.
In other respects, the condition of the population of Thessaly, such as we find it during the historical period, favours the supposition of an original mixture of conquerors and conquered: for it seems that there was among the Thessalians and their dependents a triple gradation, somewhat analogous to that of Laconia. First, a class of rich proprietors distributed throughout the principal cities, possessing most of the soil, and constituting separate oligarchies loosely hanging together. Next, the subject Achaens, Magnetes, Perrhabis, differing from the Laconian Perioeci in this point, that they retained their ancient tribe-name and separate Amphiktyonic franchise. Thirdly, a class of serfs or dependent cultivators, corresponding to the Laconian Helots, who, tillng the lands of the wealthy oligarchs, paid over a proportion of its produce, furnished the retainers by which these great families were surrounded, served as their followers in the cavalry, and were in a condition of villenage,—yet with the important reserve that they could not be sold out of the country, that they had a permanent tenure in the soil, and that they maintained among one another the relations of family and village. This last-mentioned order of men, in Thessaly

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1 See Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 3; Thucyd. ii. 99-100.
2 The words ascribed by Xenophon (Hellen. vi. 1, 11) to Jason of Pherae, as well as to Theocritus (xvi. 34), attest the numbers and vigour of the Thessalian Penestae, and the great wealth of the Alemanda and Skopada. Both these families acquired celebrity from the verses of Simonides; he was patronised and his name invoked by both of them; see Eliau, V. H. xii. 1; Ovid, Ibid., 512; Quintilian, xi. 2, 15. Pindar also boasts of his friendship with Thorax the Aemol (Pyth. v. 99).
3 The Thessalian deboros — allied to in Aristophanes (Plutus, 521) must have sold men out of the country for slaves—either refractory Penestae, or Perrhabian, Magnetic, and Achaean freemen, seized
called the Penestæ, is assimilated by all ancient authors to the Helots of Laconia, and in both cases the danger attending such a social arrangement is noticed by Plato and Aristotle. For the Helots as well as the Penestæ had their own common language and mutual sympathies, a separate residence, arms, and courage; to a certain extent, also, they possessed the means of acquiring property, since we are told that some of the Penestæ were richer than their masters. So many means of action, combined with a degraded social position, gave rise to frequent revolt and incessant apprehensions. As a general rule, indeed, the cultivation of the soil by slaves or dependents, for the benefit of proprietors in the cities, prevailed throughout most parts of Greece. The rich men of Thebes, Argos, Athens or Elis, must have derived their incomes in the same manner; but it seems that there was often in other places a larger intermixture of bought foreign slaves, and also that the number, fellow-feeling, and courage of the degraded village population was nowhere so great as in Thessaly and La-

by violence; the Athenian comic poet Méc Stephanus, in jesting on the voracity of the Pharsalians, exclaims, ap. Athenæ. x. p. 418—

ηῶς κατεύθουσα μή μοι Ἀχιλλέως;

Pallas was celebrated as a place of export for slaves (Hermippus ap. Athenæ. i. 49).


Both Plato and Aristotle insist on the extreme danger of having numerous slaves, fellow-countrymen and of one language—(μαρτών, δοῦλοι, κατρίςται δὲ λαγίνα).
conia. Now the origin of the Penestae in Thessaly is ascribed to the conquest of the territory by the Thesprotians, as that of the Helots in Laconia is traced to the Dorian conquest. The victors in both countries are said to have entered into a convention with the vanquished population, whereby the latter became serfs and tillers of the land for the benefit of the former, but were at the same time protected in their holdings, constituted subjects of the state, and secured against being sold away as slaves. Even in the Thessalian cities, though inhabited in common by Thessalian proprietors and their Penestae, the quarters assigned to each were to a great degree separated: what was called the Free Agora could not be trodden by any Penest except when specially summoned.¹

Who the people were, whom the conquest of Thessaly by the Thesprotians reduced to this predial villenage, we find differently stated. According to Theopompus, they were Perrhaebians and Magnêtes; according to others, Pelasgians; while Archemachus alleged them to have been Boeotians of the territory of Aroth—some emigrating to escape the conquerors, others remaining and accepting the condition of serfs. But the conquest, assuming it

¹ Aristot. Polit. viii. 11, 2.

² Theopompus and Archemachus ap. Athenaeum, vii. p. 264–265; compare Thucyd. ii. 12; Steph. Byz. v. "Arca"—the converse of this story in Strabo, iv. p. 401–411, of the Thessalian Aroth being settled from Boeotia. That the villains or Penestae were completely distinct from the circumjacent dependents—Archaean, Magnêtic, Perirhaebian, we see by Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 3. They had their surnames here Penestae, whose descent was traced to Thessalus son of Hérakles; they were thus connected with the mythical father of the nation (Schol. Aristoph. Vesp. 1271).
as a fact, occurred at far too early a day to allow of our making out either the manner in which it came to pass or the state of things which preceded it. The Pelasgians whom Herodotus saw at Krēstōn are affirmed by him to have been the descendants of those who quitted Thessaly to escape the invading Thesprotians; though others held that the Boeotians, driven on this occasion from their habitations on the Gulf of Pagasae near the Achaean of Phthiotis, precipitated themselves on Orchomenus and Boeotia, and settled in it, expelling the Minyae and the Pelasgians.

Passing over the legends on this subject, and confining ourselves to historical time, we find an established quadruple division of Thessaly, said to have been introduced in the time of Aleuas, the ancestor (real or mythical) of the powerful Aeconae, —Thessaliotis, Pelasgiotis, Histiaeotis, Phthiotis.

In Phthiotis were comprehended the Achaean, whose chief towns were Melitea, Itōnus, Thebae, Phthiotides, Alos, Larissa Kremaste and Pteleon, on or near the western coast of the Gulf of Pagasae. Histiaeotis, to the north of the Peneius, comprised the Perrhebian with numerous towns strong in

1 Herodot. i. 57; compare vii. 176.
2 Hellanikus, Purgm. 28, ed. Didot; Harpocratius, v. Τεταυων: the quadruple division was older than Hekataeus (Steph. Byz. v. Καλλικρατος).
Hekataeus connected the Perrhebians with the genealogy of Kholis through Tyro the daughter of Salaminas; they passed an Aloeis (Hekataeus, Purgm. 334, ed. Didot; Stephan. Byz. v. Βαλανος and Πολυς).
The territory of the city of Histaia (to the north part of the island of Euboea) was also called Histiaeotis. The double occurrence of this name (no uncommon thing in ancient Greece) seems to have given rise to the statement, that the Perrhean had subdued the northern parts of Euboea, and carried over the inhabitants of the Eubean Histaia captive into the north-west of Thessaly (Strabo, ix. p. 437, s. p. 445).
situation, but of no great size or importance; they occupied the passes of Olympus and are sometimes considered as extending westward across Pindus. Pelasgiotis included the Magnetes, together with that which was called the Pelasgic plain bordering on the western side of Pelion and Ossa. Thessaliotis comprised the central plain of Thessaly and the upper course of the river Peneius. This was the political classification of the Thessalian power, framed to suit a time when the separate cities were maintained in harmonious action by favourable circumstances or by some energetic individual ascendency; for their union was in general interrupted and disorderly, and we find certain cities standing aloof while the rest went to war. Though a certain political junction, and obligations of some kind towards a common authority, were recognised in theory by all, and a chief or Tagus was nominated to enforce obedience,—yet it frequently happened that the disputes of the cities among themselves prevented the choice of a Tagus, or drove him out of the country, and left the alliance little more than nominal. Larissa, Pharsalus and Pherae

1 Pliny, H. N. ix. 1; Strabo, ix. p. 440.
2 Strabo, ix. p. 443.
3 Diodor. xviii. 11.; Thucyd, ii. 22.
4 The Inscription No. 1770 in Buerkh's Corpus Inscript, contains a letter of the Roman council, Titus Quinctius Flaminius, addressed to the city of Kyrteia (north of Atrax in Phocis). The letter is addressed, ἐπιμελεῖν τοῖς οἰκονόμοις ταῖς πόλεις—the title of Tagi seems thus to have been given to the magistrates of separate Thessalian cities. The Inscriptions of Thessaphyli (No. 1772-1774) have the title λαοτρόπος, not νομός. The title νομὸς was peculiar to Thessaly (Pollux, i. 126).
5 Xenophon, Hellen. vi. 1. 9.; Diodor. xv. 82.; Thucyd. i. 3.; Herod. vii. 6 calls the Almadae Θεσσαλικά Ἐποίημαν.
—each with its cluster of dependent towns as adjuncts—seem to have been nearly on a par in strength, and each torn by intestine faction, so that not only was the supremacy over common dependents relaxed, but even the means of repelling invaders greatly enfeebled. The dependence of the Perchabians, Magnétes, Achaans, and Malians, might under these circumstances be often loose and easy. But the condition of the Penestae—who occupied the villages belonging to these great cities, in the central plain of Pelasgiótis and Thessaliótis, and from whom the Aleuadæ and Skopadæ derived their exuberance of landed produce—was noway mitigated, if it was not even aggravated, by such constant factions. Nor were there wanting cases in which the discontent of this subject class was employed by members of the native oligarchy¹, or even by foreign states, for the purpose of bringing about political revolutions.

"When Thessaly is under her Tagus, all the neighbouring people pay tribute to her; she can send into the field 6000 cavalry and 10,000 hoplites or heavy-armed infantry," observed Jason, despot of Pheræ, to Polydamas of Pharsalus, in endeavouring to prevail on the latter to second his pretensions to that dignity. The impost due from

¹ Xenophon, Memorab. i. 2, 24; Hellenic. ii. 3, 37. The loss of the comedy called Πάτρας of Eupolis (see Meineke, Pragm. Comicon. Grec. p. 513) probably prevents us from understanding the sarcasm of Aristophanes (Vesp. 1263) about the ἑπεξεργασία of Amyntas among the Penestae of Pharsalus; but the incident there alluded to can have nothing to do with the proceedings of Kritias, touched upon by Xenophon.

² Xenophon, Hellen. vi. 1, 9-12.
the tributaries, seemingly considerable, was then realised with arrears, and the duties upon imports at the harbours of the Pegasian gulf, imposed for the benefit of the confederacy, were then enforced with strictness; but the observation shows that while unanimous Thessaly was very powerful, her periods of unanimity were only occasional. Among the nations which thus paid tribute to the fulness of Thessalian power, we may number not merely the Perrhaebi, Magnètes, and Achaæans of Phthiotis, but also the Mælians and Dolopes, and various tribes of Epirots extending to the westward of Pindus. We may remark that they were all (except the Mælians) javelin-men or light-armed troops, not serving in rank with the full panoply; a fact which in Greece counts as presumptive evidence of a lower civilization; the Magnètes, too, had a peculiar close-fitting mode of dress, probably suited to movements in a mountainous country. There was even a time when the Thessalian power threatened to extend southward of Thermopylae, subjugating the Phokians, Dorians, and Lokrians. So much were the Phokians alarmed at this danger, that they had built a wall across the pass of Thermopylae for the purpose of more easily defending it.

1. Demosthen. Olynth. i. c. 3, p. 15; ii. c. 5, p. 21. The orator had occasion to denounce Philip as having got possession of the public authority of the Thessalian confederation, partly by intrigue, partly by force, and we thus hear of the Mælians and the Mæsses which formed the revenue of the confederacy.

2. Xenophon (Hellen. vi. 1, 7) numbers the Mæsses among those tributaries along with the Dolopes; the Mæsses are named by Pliny (H. N. iv. 3) also along with the Dolopes, but we do not know where they resided.

3. Xenophon, Hellen. vi. 1, 9; Pindar, Pyth. iv. 83.
against Thessalian invaders, who are reported to have penetrated more than once into the Phokian valleys, and to have sustained some severe defeats. At what precise time these events happened, we find no information; but it must have been considerably earlier than the invasion of Xerxes, since the defensive wall which had been built at Thermopylae by the Phokians was found by Leonidas in a state of ruin. But the Phokians, though they no longer felt the necessity of keeping up this wall, had not ceased to fear and hate the Thessalians—an antipathy which will be found to manifest itself palpably in connection with the Persian invasion. On the whole the resistance of the Phokians was successful, for the power of the Thessalians never reached southward of the pass.

It will be recollected that these different ancient races,—Perrhaebi, Magnètes, Achaæans, Malians, Dolopes, &c., all tributaries of the Thessalians, but all Amphiktyonic races,—though tributaries of the Thessalians, still retained their Amphiktyonic franchise, and were considered as legitimate Hellenes; all except the Malians are indeed mentioned in the Iliad. We shall rarely have occasion to speak much of them in the course of this history; they are found siding with Xerxes (chiefly by constraint) in his attack of Greece, and almost indifferent in the struggle between Sparta and Athens. That the Achaæans of Phthiotis are a portion of the same race as the Achaæans of Peloponnesus it seems reasonable to believe, though we trace no historical

1 Herodot. vi. 176; viii. 27-28.
2 The story of invading Thessalians at Keránae near Leukóri in Boeotia (Pausan. ix. 13, 1) is not at all probable.
evidence to authenticate it. Achaea Phthiotis is the seat of Hellén, the patriarch of the entire race,—of the primitive Hellas, by some treated as a town, by others as a district of some breadth,—and of the great national hero Achilles. Its connection with the Peloponnesian Achaeans is not unlike that of Doris with the Peloponnesian Dorians¹. We have also to notice another ethnical kindred, the date and circumstances of which are given to us only in a mythical form, but which seems nevertheless to be in itself a reality,—that of the Magnètes on Pelion and Ossa, with the two divisions of Asiatic Magnètes, or Magnesia on Mount Sipylus and Magnesia on the river Mæander. It is said that these two Asiatic homonymous towns were founded by migrations of the Thessalian Magnètes, a body of whom became consecrated to the Delphian god, and chose a new abode under his directions. According to one story, these emigrants were warriors returning from the siege of Troy; according to another, they sought fresh seats to escape from the Thesprotian conquerors of Thessaly. There was a third story, according to which the Thessalian Magnètes themselves were represented as colonists² from Delphi. Though we can elicit no distinct matter of fact from these legends, we may nevertheless admit the connection of race between the Thessalian and the Asiatic

¹ One story was, that these Achaeans of Phthia went into Peloponnesus with Pelops, and settled in Lacumia (Strabo, viii. p. 365).
² Aristocrates ap. Athenaeus. iv. p. 173; Cunon, Narrat. 29; Strabo, xiv. p. 647.

Hoeck (Kreuta, b. iii. vol. ii. p. 409) attempts (unsuccessfully, in my judgement) to reduce these stories into the form of substantial history.
Magnêtes as well as the reverential dependence of both, manifested in this supposed filiation, on the temple of Delphi. Of the Magnêtes in Crete, noticed by Plato as long extinct in his time, we cannot absolutely verify even the existence.

Of the Malians, Thucydides notices three tribes (γένος) as existing in his time—the Paralii, the Hierês (Priests), and the Trachinii, or men of Trachin; it is possible that the second of the two may have been possessors of the sacred spot on which the Amphiktyonic meetings were held. The prevalence of the hoplites or heavy-armed infantry among the Malians, indicates that we are stepping from Thessalian to more southerly Hellenic habits: the Malians recognised every man as a qualified citizen who either had served, or was serving, in the ranks with his full panoply. Yet the panoply

1 Thucyd. iii. 92. The distinction made by Skylax (c. 61) and Diodorus (xviii. 11) between Μάλαις and Μαλαις—the latter adjoining the former on the north—appears inadmissible, though Lethrone still defends it (Périple de Marnon d'Héraclee, &c., Paris, 1839, p. 212).

Instead of Μαλαις, we ought to read Λαμαις, as O. Müller observes (Bollase, l. 6, p. 46).

It is remarkable that the important town of Lamia (the modern Zeitun) is not noticed either by Herodotus, Thucydides, or Xenophon; Skylax is the first who mentions it. The route of Xerxes towards Thermopylae lay along the coast from Alos.

The Lamiae (assuming that to be the correct reading) occupied the northern coast of the Malian Gulf, from the north bank of the Spercheios to the town of Echium; in which position Dr. Cramer places the Μάλαις Παράλιοι—an event, I think (Geography of Greece, vol. i. p. 496).

It is not improbable that Lamia first acquired importance during the course of those events towards the close of the Peloponnesian war, when the Lacchaeans, in defence of Herakleia, attacked the Achaean of Phthia, and even expelled the Eleans for a time from their seats (see Thucyd. viii. 3; Diodor. xiv. 38).

2 Aristot. Polil. c. 10. 10.
was probably not perfectly suitable to the mountainous regions by which they were surrounded; for at the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, the aggressive mountaineers of the neighbouring region of Æta had so harassed and overwhelmed them in war, that they were forced to throw themselves on the protection of Sparta, and the establishment of the Spartan colony of Herakleia near Trachin was the result of their urgent application. Of these mountaineers, described under the general name of Ætaeans, the principal were the Ænianes (or Euiènes, as they are termed in the Homeric Catalogue as well as by Herodotus), —an ancient Hellenic Amphiktyonic race, who are said to have passed through several successive migrations in Thessaly and Epirus, but who in the historical times had their settlement and their chief town Hymata in the upper valley of the Spercheus, on the northern declivity of Mount Æta. But other tribes were probably also included in the name, such as those Ætolian tribes, the Bormians and Kallians, whose high and cold abodes approached near to the Maliac Gulf. It is in this sense that we are to understand the name, as comprehending all the predatory tribes along this extensive mountain range, when we are told of the damage done by the Ætaeans both to the Malians on the east, and to the Dorians on the south: but there are some cases in which the name Ætaeans seems to designate expressly the Ænianes, especially when they are mentioned as exercising the Amphiktyonic franchise.

1 Plutarch, Questions, Græc. p. 294.
2 Thucyd. iii. 92–97; viii. 3. Xenoph. Hellen. i. 2. 18; in another
The fine soil, abundant moisture, and genial exposure of the southerly declivities of Othrys—especially the valley of the Spercheius, through which river all these waters pass away, and which annually gives forth a fertilising inundation—present a marked contrast with the barren, craggy, and naked masses of Mount Oeta, which forms one side of the pass of Thermopylae. Southward of the pass, the Lokrians, Phokians, and Dorians occupied the mountains and passes between Thessaly and Boeotia. The coast opposite to the western side of Euboea, from the neighbourhood of Thermopylae as far as the Boeotian frontier at Anthédon, was possessed by the Lokrians, whose northern frontier town, Alpēni, was conterminous with the Malians. There was, however, one narrow strip of Phokis—the town of Daphnus, where the Phokians also touched the Euboean sea—which broke this continuity and divided the Lokrians into two sections,—Lokrians of Mount Knémis, or Epiknemidian Lokrians, and Lokrians of Opus, or Opuntian Lokrians. The mountain called Knémis, running southward parallel to the coast from the end of Oeta, divided the former section from the inland Phokians and the upper valley of the Kephisus farther southward, joining continuously with Mount Ptoon by means passage. Xenophon expressly distinguishes the Oetai and the Eainians (Hellen. iii. 5, 6). Diodor. xiv. 38. Echimæ, De Pala. Leg. c. 44. p. 299.

1 About the fertility as well as the beauty of this valley, see Dr. Holland's Travels, ch. xvii. vol. ii. p. 106, and Forchhammer (Hellenika, Griechenland, im Neuen das Alte, Berlin, 1837). I do not concern with the latter in his attempts to resolve the myths of Herakles, Achilles, and others, into physical phenomena; but his descriptions of local scenery and attributes are most vivid and masterly.
of an intervening mountain which is now called Chlomo, it separated the Lokrians of Opus from the territories of Orchomenus, Thebes, and Anthédon, the north-eastern portions of Bœotia. Besides these two sections of the Lokrian name, there was also a third, completely separate, and said to have been colonised out from Opus,—the Lokrians sur-
named Ozole,—who dwelt apart on the western side of Phokis, along the northern coast of the Corinthian Gulf. They reached from Amphissa—which overhung the plain of Krissa, and stood within seven miles of Delphi—to Naupaktus, near the narrow entrance of the Gulf; which latter town was taken from these Lokrians by the Athenians a little before the Peloponnesian war. Opus prided itself on being the mother-city of the Lokrian name, and the legends of Deukalion and Pyrrha found a home there as well as in Phthiôtis. Alpeni, Nikée, Thronium, and Skarpheia, were towns, ancient but unimportant, of the Epiknemidian Lokrians; but the whole length of this Lokrian coast is celebrated for its beauty and fertility, both by ancient and modern observers 1.

1 Strabo, ix. p. 425; Forchhammer, Hellenika, p. 11-12. Kyane is sometimes spoken of as the harbour of Opus, but it was a city of itself as old as the Homeric Catalogue, and of some moment in the later wars of Greece, when military position came to be more valued than legendary celebrity (Livy, xxxviii. 6; Pausan. x. 1, 11; Skylax, c. 61-62); the latter counts Thronium and Kueinis or Kuenides as being Phokian, not Lokrian; which they were for a short time during the prosperity of the Phokians at the beginning of the Sacred War, though not permanently (Eschin. Fals. Legat. c. 42, p. 46). This serves as one presumptive about the age of the Periplus of Skylax (see the notes of Kienm ed Skrj. p. 269). These Lokrian towns lay along the important road from Thermopylae to Elateia and Bœotia (Pausan. vii. 18, 2; Livy, xxxiii. 3).
The Phokians were bounded on the north by the little territories called Doris and Dryopis, which separated them from the Maliants,—on the north-east, east, and south-west by the different branches of Lokrians,—and on the south-east by the Bœotians. They touched the Eubœan sea (as has been mentioned) at Daphnus, the point where it approaches nearest to their chief town Elateia; their territory also comprised most part of the lofty and bleak range of Parnassus as far as its southerly termination, where a lower portion of it, called Kirphis, projects into the Corinthian Gulf, between the two bays of Antikyra and Krissa; the latter, with its once fertile plain, lay immediately under the sacred rock of the Delphian Apollo. Both Delphi and Krissa originally belonged to the Phokian race, but the sanctity of the temple, together with Lacédæmonian aid, enabled the Delphians to set up for themselves, disavowing their connection with the Phokian brotherhood. Territorially speaking, the most valuable part of Phokis1 consisted in the valley of the river Kephisus, which takes its rise from Parnassus not far from the Phokian town of Lilea, passes between Æta and Knêmis on one side and Parnassus on the other, and enters Bœotia near Chæronteia, discharging itself into the lake Kòpaïs. It was on the projecting mountain ledges and rocks on each side of this river that the numerous little Phokian towns were situated. Twenty-two of them were destroyed and broken up into villages by the Amphiktyonic order after the second Sacred War; Abæ (one of the few, if not the only one, that was

1 Probr. x. 33, 4.
spared) being protected by the sanctity of its temple and oracle. Of these cities the most important was Elateia, situated on the left bank of the Kephissus, and on the road from Lokris into Phokis, in the natural march of an army from Thermopylae into Boeotia. The Phokian towns were embodied in an ancient confederacy, which held its periodical meetings at a temple between Daulis and Delphi.

The little territory called Doris and Dryopis occupied the southern declivity of Mount Οήτα, dividing Phokis on the north and north-west from the Ατολιανα, Αενιανα, and Malians. That which was called Doris in the historical times, and which reached, in the time of Herodotus, nearly as far eastward as the Maliac Gulf, is said to have formed a part of what had been once called Dryopis; a territory which had comprised the summit of Οήτα as far as the Spercheius northward, and which had been inhabited by an old Hellenic tribe called Dryopites. The Dorians acquired their settlement in Dryopis by gift from Hēraklēs, who, along with the Malians (so ran the legend), had expelled the Dryopites, and compelled them to find for themselves new seats at Hermionē and Asinē, in the Argolic

1 Pausan. x. 5, 1: Demosth. Fals. Leg. c. 22-28: Diodor. xvi. 60, with the note of Wesseling.

The tenth book of Pausanias, though the larger half of it is devoted to Delphi, tells us all that we know respecting the less important towns of Phokis. Compare also Dr. Cruver’s Geography of Greece, vol. ii. sect. 10; and Leake’s Travels in Northern Greece, vol. ii. ch. 13.

Two funeral monuments of the Phokian hero Σκεδία, (who commands the Phokian troops before Troy and is slain in the Iliad) marked the two extremities of Phokis,—one at Daphnus on the Euborean sea, the other at Αντικύρα on the Corinthian Gulf (Strabo, in p. 425: Pausan. x. 36, 4).
peninsula of Peloponnesus—at Styra and Karystus in Euboea—and in the island of Kythnus; it is only in these five last-mentioned places that history recognizes them. The territory of Doris was distributed into four little townships—Pindus or Akryphas, Bœcon, Kyttinion, and Erineon—each of which seems to have occupied a separate valley belonging to one of the feeders of the river Kephisus—the only narrow spaces of cultivated ground which this "small and sad" region presented. In itself this tetrapolis is so insignificant, that we shall rarely find occasion to mention it; but it acquired a factitious consequence by being regarded as the metropolis of the great Dorian cities in Peloponnesus, and receiving on that ground special protection from Sparta. I do not here touch upon that string of ante-historical migrations—stated by Herodotus and illustrated by the ingenuity as well as decorated by the fancy of O. Müller—through which the Dorians are affiliated with the patriarch of the Hellenic race—moving originally out of Phthiötitis to Histiaeotis, then to Pindus, and lastly to Doris. The residence of Dorians in Doris is a fact which meets us at the commencement of history, like that of the Phokians and Locrrians in their respective territories.

We next pass to the Etolians, whose extreme tribes covered the bleak heights of Ceuta and Korax,
reaching almost within sight of the Maliac Gulf, where they bordered on the Dorian and Malians—while their central and western tribes stretched along the frontier of the Ozolian Lokrians to the flat plain, abundant in marsh and lake, near the mouth of the Euénus. In the time of Herodotus and Thucydidēs, they do not seem to have extended so far westward as the Achelōns; but in later times this latter river, throughout the greater part of its lower course, divided them from the Akarnanians¹; on the north they touched upon the Dolopians and upon a parallel of latitude nearly as far north as Ambrakia. There were three great divisions of the Ætolian name—the Apodóti, Ophioneis, and Eurytanes—each of which was subdivided into several different village tribes. The northern and eastern portion of the territory² consisted of very high mountain ranges, and even in the southern portion, the mountains Arakynthus, Kurion, Chalkis, Taphiassus, are found at no great distance from the sea; while the chief towns in Ætolia—Kalydōn, Pleurōn, Chalkis,—seem to have been situated eastward of the Euénus, between the last-mentioned mountains and the sea³. The first two towns have

¹ Herod. vii. 126; Thucyd. ii. 102.
² See the difficult journey of Pieder from Wrachon northward by Karpenitz, and then across the north-western portion of the mountains of the ancient Eurytanes (the southern continuation of Mount Tymphrōstus and Æta), into the upper valley of the Spercheus (Pieder’s Reise in Griechenland, vol. i. p. 177-191), a part of the longer journey from Missolonghi to Zeitun.
³ Skylax (c. 35) reckons Ætolia as extending inland as far as the boundaries of the Πανναί on the Spercheus—which is quite correct—Ætolia Ἑπίκτετος—μέχρι τῆς Πανναί, Strabo, x. p. 450.
⁴ Strabo, x. p. 459-460. There is however great uncertainty about
been greatly ennobled in legend, but are little named in history; while, on the contrary, Thermus, the chief town of the historical Ætolians, and the place where the aggregate meeting and festival of the Ætolian name, for the choice of a Pan-Ætolic general, was convoked, is not noticed by any one earlier than Ephorus. It was partly legendary renown, partly ethnical kindred (publicly acknowledged on both sides) with the Eleians in Peloponnesus, which authenticated the title of the Ætolians to rank as Hellens. But the great mass of the Apodoti, Eurytanes, and Ophioneis, in the inland mountains, were so rude in their manners and so unintelligible in their speech (which, however, was not barbaric, but very bad Hellenic), that this title might well seem disputable—in point of fact it was disputed in later times, when the Ætolian power and deprivations had become obnoxious nearly to all Greece. And it is probably to this difference of manners between the Ætolians on the sea-coast and those in the interior, that we are to trace a geographical the position of those ancient towns: compare Kruse, Hellas, vol. iii. ch. xi. p. 233-255, and Brandstätter, Geschichte des Ætolischen Landes, p. 121-134.

1 Ephorus, Fragm. 29, Marx. ap. Strabo, p. 463. The situation of Thermus, "the acropolis as it were of all Æolia," and placed on a spot almost unapproachable by an army, is to a certain extent, though not wholly, capable of being determined by the description which Polybius gives of the rapid march of Philip and the Macedonian army to surprise it. The maps, both of Kruse and Kiepert, place it too much on the north of the lake Trichonis: the map of Fießer notes it more correctly to the east of that lake (Polyb. v. 7-8; compare Brandstätter, Geschichte des Ætol. Landes, p. 133).

2 Thucyd. iii. 102.—δεύτερα ἢ τὰ πρῶτα τῶν, καὶ ἀριθμέος ἐν τούτοις. It seems that Thucydides had not himself seen or conversed with them, but he does not call them ἄρρητα.
division mentioned by Strabo, into Ancient ΄Etolia, and ΄Etolia Epiktētus (or acquired). When or by whom this division was introduced, we do not know. It cannot be founded upon any conquest, for the inland ΄Etolians were the most unconquerable of mankind: and the affirmation which Ephorus applied to the whole ΄Etolian race—that it had never been reduced to subjection by any one—is most of all beyond dispute concerning the inland portion of it.

Adjoining the ΄Etolians were the Akarnanians, the westernmost of extra-Peloponnesian Greeks. They extended to the Ionian Sea, and seem, in the time of Thucydides, to have occupied both banks of the river Achelous in the lower part of its course—though the left bank appears afterwards as belonging to the ΄Etolians, so that the river came to constitute the boundary, often disputed and decided by arms, between them. The principal Akarnanian towns, Stratus and ΄Eniadas, were both on the right bank; the latter on the marshy and overflowed land near its mouth. Near the Akarnanians, towards the Gulf of Ambrakia, were found barbarian or non-Hellenic nations—the Agraeans and the Amphiloanchians; in the midst of the latter, on the shores of the Ambrakian Gulf, the Greek colony called Argos Amphilocheinum was established.

Of the five Hellenic subdivisions now enumerated—Lokrians, Phokians, Dorians (of Doris), ΄Etolians, and Akarnanians (of whom Lokrians,

Phokians and Ætolians are comprised in the Homeric catalogue)—we have to say the same as of those north of Thermopylæ: there is no information respecting them from the commencement of the historical period down to the Persian war. Even that important event brings into action only the Lokrians of the Eubœan Sea, the Phokians, and the Dorians: we have to wait until near the Peloponesian war before we require information respecting the Ozolian Lokrians, the Ætolians, and the Akarnanians. These last three were unquestionably the most backward members of the Hellenic aggregate. Though not absolutely without a central town, they lived dispersed in villages, retiring, when attacked, to inaccessible heights, perpetually armed and in readiness for aggression and plunder wherever they found an opportunity. Very different was the condition of the Lokrians opposite Eubœa, the Phokians, and the Dorians. These were all orderly town communities, small indeed and poor, but not less well-administered than the average of Grecian townships, and perhaps exempt from those individual violences which so frequently troubled the Boeotian Thebes or the great cities of Thessaly. Timæus affirmed (contrary, as it seems, to the supposition of Aristotle) that in early times there were no slaves either among the Lokrians or Phokians, and that the work required to be done for propriety

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1 Thucyd. i. 6; iii. 94. Aristotle, however, included in his large collection of Ἀριστοτελεῖα, an Ἀριστοτελεῖα Πολιτεία as well as an Ἀριστοτελεῖα Πολιτεία (Aristotelis Rerum Publicarum Reliquiae, ed. Neumann, p. 102; Strabo, vii. p. 321).
tors was performed by poor freemen; a habit which is alleged to have been continued until the temporary prosperity of the second Sacred War, when the plunder of the Delphian temple so greatly enriched the Phokian leaders. But this statement is too briefly given, and too imperfectly authenticated, to justify any inferences.

We find in the poet Alkman (about 610 B.C.) the Erythraean or Kalydonian shepherd named as a type of rude rusticity—the antithesis of Sardis, where the poet was born. And among the suitors who are represented as coming forward to claim the daughter of the Sikyonian Kleisthenes in marriage, there appears both the Thessalian Diaktoridès from Krannôn, a member of the Skopad family—and the Ætolian Malès, brother of that Titormus who in muscular strength surpassed all his contemporary Greeks, and who had seceded from mankind into the inmost recesses of Ætolia: this Ætolian seems to be set forth as a sort of antithesis to the delicate Smindyridès of Sybaris, the most luxurious of mankind. Herodotus introduces these characters into his dramatic picture of this memorable wedding.

Between Phokis and Lokris on one side, and Attica (from which it is divided by the mountains Kithærôn and Parnês) on the other, we find the important territory called Bœotia, with its ten or twelve autonomous cities, forming a sort of con-

1 Timaeus, Frg. xvi. ed. Gyller.) POLYB. xii. 6-7; Athenæus, vi. p. 264.
2 This brief fragment of the Ἕρας τῆς Αλκμαίος of Alkman is preserved by Stephan. Byz. (Ἑρας της Αλκμαίος), and alluded to by Strabo, x. p. 460; see Weil, Αλκμ. Φρg. xi. and Bergk, Alk. Fr. xii.
3 Herodot. vi. 127.
federacy under the presidency of Thebes, the most powerful among them. Even of this territory, destined during the second period of this history to play a part so conspicuous and effective; we know nothing during the first two centuries after 776 B.C. We first acquire some insight into it on occasion of the disputes between Thebes and Plataea about the year 520 B.C. Orchomenus, on the north-west of the lake Kôpaïs, forms throughout the historical times one of the cities of the Boeotian league, seemingly the second after Thebes. But I have already stated that the Orchomenian legends, the Catalogue and other allusions in Homer, and the traces of past power and importance yet visible in the historical age, attest the early political existence of Orchomenus and its neighbourhood apart from Boeotia. The Amphiktyony in which Orchomenus participated at the holy island of Kalauria near the Argolic peninsula, seems to show that it must once have possessed a naval force and commerce, and

See an admirable topographical description of the north part of Boeotia—the lake Kôpaïs and its environs, in Forchhammer's Hellenika, p. 159-186, with an explanatory map. The two long and laborious tunnels constructed by the old Orchomenians for the drainage of the lake, as an aid to the insufficiency of the natural Katabolitha, are there very clearly laid down: one goes to the sea, the other into the neighbouring lake Hyliska, which is surrounded by high rocky banks and can take more water without overflowing. The lake Kôpaïs is an enclosed basin, receiving all the water from Doris and Phokis through the Kêphian. A copy of Forchhammer's map will be found at the end of the present volume.

Forchhammer thinks that it was nothing but the similarity of the name Hônéa (derived from îôîa, a willow-tree) which gave rise to the tale of an immigration of people from the Themisiani to the Boeotian Hôné (p. 148).

The Homeric Catalogue presents Kôpe, on the north of the lake, as Boeotian, but not Orchomenus nor Asphálidion (IIad, ii. 502).
that its territory must have touched the sea at Haliē and the lower town of Larymna, near the southern frontier of Lokris; this sea is separated by a very narrow space from the range of mountains which join Knēmis and Ptoōn, and which enclose on the east both the basin of Orchomenus, Asplēdōn and Kōpa, and the lake Kōpaēs. The migration of the Boeotians out of Thessaly into Boeotia (which is represented as a consequence of the conquest of the former country by the Thesprotians) is commonly assigned as the compulsory force which Boeotised Orchomenus. By whatever cause or at whatever time (whether before or after 776 B.C.) the transition may have been effected, we find Orchomenus completely Boeotian throughout the known historical age—yet still retaining its local Minycean legends, and subject to the jealous rivalry of Thebes, as being the second city in the Boeotian league. The direct road from the passes of Phokis southward into Boeotia went through Chæroneia, leaving Lebadeia on the right and Orchomenus on the left hand, and passed the south-western edge of the lake Kōpaēs near the towns of Koroneia, Alalkomenē, and Haliartus—all situated on the mountain Tilphōssion, an outlying ridge connected with Helicon by the intervention of Mount Leibethrus. The Tilphossean was an important military post commanding that narrow pass between the mountain and the lake which lay in the great road from Phokis to Thebes. The territory of this latter

1 See O. Müller, Orchomenus, esp. xx. p. 418 sqq.
2 See Demosthenes, De Fals. Legat. 6. 42-45. Another portion of this narrow road is probably meant by the pass of Koroneia—v. esp.
city occupied the greater part of central Boeotia south of the lake Kôpaîs; it comprehended Akraiphia and Mount Ptôon, and probably touched the Euboean Sea at the village of Salganeus south of Anthédon. South-west of Thebes, occupying the southern descent of lofty Helicon towards the innermost corner of the Corinthian Gulf, and bordering on the south-eastern extremity of Phokis with the Phokian town of Bulis, stood the city of Thespiæ. Southward of the Asôpus, between that river and Mount Kitháron, were Plataea and Tanagra; in the south-eastern corner of Boeotia stood Orôpus, the frequent subject of contention between Thebes and Athens; and in the road between the Euboean Chalkis and Thebes, the town of Mykaléssus.

From our first view of historical Boeotia downward, there appears a confederation which embraces the whole territory: and during the Peloponnesian war the Thebans invoke "the ancient constitutional maxims of the Boeotians" as a justification of extreme rigour, as well as of treacherous breach of the peace, against the recusant Plataeans. 1 Of this confederation the greater cities were primary members, while the lesser were attached to one or other of them in a kind of dependent union. Neither the names nor the number of these primary members can be certainly known: there seem grounds for including Thebes, Orchomenus, Lêbadeia, Ko-

1 Thucyd. ii. 2—συνό τῷ πάγω τῷ παῖ τῆς Θεσπίδος Θήβαις; compare the speech of the Thebans to the Lacédæmonians after the capture of Plataea, iii. 61, 65, 66.
ρόνεια, Haliartus, Kóρη, Anthédōn, Tanagra, Thespia, and Platæa before its secession. Akra-
phia with the neighbouring Mount Ptoön and its oracle, Skölus, Glisas and other places, were de-
pendencies of Thebes: Chaeroneia, Asplèdōn, Hol-
mönes and Hyēttus, of Orchomenus: Siphæ, Lenktra, Kerēssus and Thisbē, of Thespia. Cer-
tain generals or magistrates called Bœotarchs were chosen annually to manage the common affairs of
the confederation. At the time of the battle of De-
lium in the Peloponnesian war, they were eleven in
number, two of them from Thebes; but whether
this number was always maintained, or in what propor-
tions the choice was made by the different
cities, we find no distinct information. There were
likewise during the Peloponnesian war four different
senates, with whom the Bœotarchs consulted on
matters of importance; a curious arrangement, of
which we have no explanation. Lastly, there was
the general concilium and religious festival—the
Pambœotia—held periodically at Koröneia. Such
were the forms, as far as we can make them out,
of the Bœotian confederacy; each of the separate
cities possessing its own senate and constitution,
and having its political consciousness as an au-
onomous unit, yet with a certain habitual deference
to the federal obligations. Substantially, the affairs
of the confederation will be found in the hands of

1 Thucyd. iv. 91; C. F. Hermann, Griechische Staats Alterthümer,
sect. 179; Herodot. v. 79; Bœckh, Commentat. ad Inscript. Bœotice.
2 Herodot. viii. 135; ix. 15-43. Panian. ix. 12, 1; ix. 23, 3;
x. 24, 3; ix. 32, 1-4. Xenophon, Hellen. vi. 4, 3-4: compare O.
Müller, Orchomenus, exp. xx. p. 403.
Thebes, managed in the interests of Theban ascendency, which appears to have been sustained by no other feeling except respect for superior force and bravery. The discontents of the minor Boeotian towns, harshly repressed and punished, form an uninviting chapter in Grecian history.

One piece of information we find, respecting Thebes singly and apart from the other Boeotian towns, anterior to the year 700 B.C. Though brief and incompletely recorded, it is yet highly valuable, as one of the first incidents of solid and positive Grecian history. Dioklès the Corinthian stands enrolled as Olympic victor in the 13th Olympiad, or 728 B.C., at a time when the oligarchy called Bacchiadæ possessed the government of Corinth. The beauty of his person attracted towards him the attachment of Philolaus, one of the members of this oligarchical body,—a sentiment which Grecian manners did not proscribe; but it also provoked an incestuous passion on the part of his own mother Halcyonê, from which Dioklès shrank with hatred and horror. He abandoned for ever his native city and retired to Thebes, whither he was followed by Philolaus, and where both of them lived and died. Their tombs were yet shown in the time of Aristotle, close adjoining to each other, yet with an opposite frontage; that of Philolaus being so placed that the inmate could command a view of the lofty peak of his native city, while that of Dioklès was so disposed as to block out all prospect of the hateful spot. That which preserves to us the memory of so remarkable an incident, is, the esteem entertained for Philolaus by the Thebans—a feeling so pronounced, that they
invited him to make laws for them. We shall have occasion to point out one or two similar cases in which Grecian cities invoked the aid of an intelligent stranger; and the practice became common, among the Italian republics in the middle ages, to nominate a person not belonging to their city either as Podesta or as arbitrator in civil dissensions. It would have been highly interesting to know at length what laws Philolaus made for the Thebans; but Aristotle, with his usual conciseness, merely alludes to his regulations respecting the adoption of children and respecting the multiplication of offspring in each separate family. His laws were framed with the view to maintain the original number of lots of land, without either subdivision or consolidation; but by what means the purpose was to be fulfilled we are not informed. There existed a law at Thebes, which perhaps may have been part of the scheme of Philolaus, prohibiting

1 Aristotle, Polit. ii. 9, 6-7. Νομάδες τα δει τινα (to the Thebans) εις τον Φιλολάουν περί το φαλάουν τοια του περί της νεοποικίλης, οι καλλίκεντες έξων οίον της θετικίας, και τοιο τετελεί ιδίων οι έκτελει νεομποικίλης, έτοι μεν έπιμπέ καθεν των ανθρώπων. A perplexing passage follows within three lines of this—Φιλολάου το διέξεν τη των ανθρώπων νεομποικίλης—which raises two questions; first, whether Philolaus can really be meant in the second passage, which talks of what is done to Philolaus, while the first passage had already spoken of something else respecting Philolaus by the same person. Accordingly Götting and M. Barthelemy-St. Hilaire follow one of the MSS. by writing φαλάουν in place of Φιλολάους. Next, what is the meaning of διαμοιλοίων? O. Müller (Torfias, ch. i. 5. p. 203) considers it to mean a “fresh equalisation, just as δισμοίμια means a fresh division,” adopting the translation of Victorinus and Schloesser.

The point can hardly be decisively settled; but if this translation of διαμοιλοίων be correct, there is good ground for preferring the word φαλάουν to Φιλολάους; since the proceeding described would harmonise better with the ideas of Philolaus (Aristot. Pol. ii. 4. 3).
exposure of children, and empowering a father under the pressure of extreme poverty to bring his new-born infant to the magistrates, who sold it for a price to any citizen-purchaser,—taking from him the obligation to bring it up, but allowing him in return to consider the adult as his slave¹. From these brief allusions, coming to us without accompanying illustration, we can draw no other inference, except that the great problem of population—the relation between the well-being of the citizens and their more or less rapid increase in numbers—had engaged the serious attention even of the earliest Grecian legislators. We may however observe that the old Corinthian legislator Pheidón (whose precise date cannot be fixed) is stated by Aristotle² to have contemplated much the same object as that which is ascribed to Philolaus at Thebes; an unchangeable number both of citizens and of lots of land, without any attempt to alter the unequal ratio of the lots, one to the other.

¹. Ælian, V. H. ii. 7.
² Aristot. Polit. ii. 3, 7. This Pheidón seems different from Pheidón of Argos, as far as we are enabled to judge.
CHAPTER IV.

EARLIEST HISTORICAL VIEW OF PELOPONNESUS.
DORIANS IN ARGOS AND THE NEIGHBOURING CITIES.

We now pass from the northern members to the heart and head of Greece—Peloponnesus and Attica, taking the former first in order, and giving as much as can be ascertained respecting its early historical phenomena.

The traveller who entered Peloponnesus from Boeotia during the youthful days of Herodotus and Thucydides, found an array of powerful Doric cities conterminous to each other, and beginning at the Isthmus of Corinth. First came Megara, stretching across the isthmus from sea to sea, and occupying the high and rugged mountain-ridge called Geraneia: next Corinth, with its strong and conspicuous acropolis, and its territory including Mount Oenion as well as the portion of the isthmus at once most level and narrowest, which divided its two harbours called Lechaem and Kenchreæ. Westward of Corinth, along the Corinthian Gulf, stood Sikyön, with a plain of uncommon fertility, between the two towns: southward of Sikyön and Corinth were Phlius and Kleonæ, both conterminous, as well as Corinth, with Argos and the Argolic peninsula. The inmost bend of the Argolic Gulf, including a considerable space of flat and marshy ground adjoining to the sea, was possessed by Argos; the Argolic peninsula was divided by
Argos with the Doric cities of Epidaurus and Trœzen, and the Dryopian city of Hermione, the latter possessing the south-western corner. Proceeding southward along the western coast of the gulf, and passing over the little river called Tanos, the traveller found himself in the dominion of Sparta, which comprised the entire southern region of the peninsula from its eastern to its western sea, where the river Neda flows into the latter. He first passed from Argos across the difficult mountain range called Parnon (which bounds to the west the southern portion of Argolis), until he found himself in the valley of the river CEnus, which he followed until it joined the Eurotas. In the larger valley of the Eurotas, far removed from the sea, and accessible only through the most impracticable mountain roads, lay the five unwalled, unadorned, adjoining villages, which bore collectively the formidable name of Sparta. The whole valley of the Eurotas, from Skiritis and Beleminatis at the border of Arcadia, to the Laconian Gulf—expanding in several parts into fertile plain, especially near to its mouth, where the towns of Gythium and Helos were found—belonged to Sparta; together with the cold and high mountain range to the eastward which projects into the promontory of Malea—and the still loftier chain of Taygetus to the westward, which ends in the promontory of Tanaros. On the other side of Taygetus, on the banks of the river Pamisus, which there flows into the Messenian Gulf, lay the plain of Messènê, the richest land in the peninsula. This plain had once yielded its ample produce to the free Messenian Doriæans, resident in the towns of
Stenyklèrus and Andania. But in the time of which we speak, the name of Messenians was borne only by a body of brave but homeless exiles, whose restoration to the land of their forefathers overpassed even the exile's proverbially sanguine hope. Their land was confounded with the western portion of Laconia, which reached in a south-westerly direction down to the extreme point of Cape Akritas, and northward as far as the river Neda.

Throughout his whole journey to the point last-mentioned, from the borders of Beotia and Megaris, the traveller would only step from one Dorian state into another. But on crossing from the south to the north bank of the river Neda, at a point near to its mouth, he would find himself out of Doric land altogether: first in the territory called Tripyilia—next in that of Pisa or the Pisatid—thirdly in the more spacious and powerful state called Elis; these three comprising the coast-land of Peloponnesus from the mouth of the Neda to that of the Larissus. The Tripylians, distributed into a number of small townships, the largest of which was Lepreon—and the Pisatans, equally destitute of any centralising city—had both, at the period of which we are now speaking, been conquered by their more powerful northern neighbours of Elis, who enjoyed the advantage of a spacious territory united under one government; the middle portion, called the Hollow Elis, being for the most part fertile, though the tracts near the sea were more sandy and barren. The Eleians were a section of Ætolian immigrants into Peloponnesus, but the Pisatans and Tripylians had both been originally independent inhabitants of
the peninsula—the latter being affirmed to belong to the same race as the Minyae who had occupied the ante-Boeotian Orchomenus; both too bore the ascendency of Elis with perpetual murmur and occasional resistance.

Crossing the river Larissus, and pursuing the northern coast of Peloponnesus south of the Corinthian Gulf, the traveller would pass into Achaia—a name which designated the narrow strip of level land, and the projecting spurs and declivities, between that gulf and the northernmost mountains of the peninsula—Skollis, Erymanthus, Aroania, Krathis, and the towering eminence called Kylléné. Achaean cities—twelve in number at least, if not more—divided this long strip of land amongst them, from the mouth of the Larissus and the north-western Cape Araxus on one side, to the western boundary of the Sikyonian territory on the other. According to the accounts of the ancient legends and the belief of Herodotus, this territory had once been occupied by Ionian inhabitants, whom the Achaeans had expelled.

In making this journey, the traveller would have finished the circuit of Peloponnesus; but he would still have left untrodden the great central region, enclosed between the territories just enumerated—approaching nearest to the sea on the borders of Triphylia, but never touching it anywhere. This region was Arcadia, possessed by inhabitants who are uniformly represented as all of one race, and all aboriginal. It was high and bleak, full of wild mountain, rock and forest, and abounding, to a degree unusual even in Greece, with those land-locked
basins from whence the water finds only a subterraneous issue. It was distributed among a large number of distinct villages and cities. Many of the village tribes—the Menalii, Parrhasii, Azanes, &c., occupying the central and the western regions, were numbered among the rudest of the Greeks; but along its eastern frontier there were several Arcadian cities which ranked deservedly among the more civilized Peloponnesians. Tegea, Mantinea, Orchomenus, Styphalbus, Pheneus, possessed the whole eastern frontier of Arcadia from the borders of Laconia to those of Sikyón and Pellène in Achaia; Phigaleia at the south-western corner, near the borders of Triphylia, and Herae on the north bank of the Alpheius, near the place where that river quits Arcadia to enter the Pisatis, were also towns deserving of notice. Towards the north of this cold and thinly-peopled region, near Pheneus, was situated the small town of Nonakris, adjoining to which rose the hardly accessible crags where the rivulet of Styx¹ flowed down: a point of common feeling for

¹ Herodot. vi. 74; Pausan. viii. 18, 2. See the description and print of the river Styx and the neighbouring rocks in Fiedler's Reise durch Griechenland, vol. i. p. 400.

He describes a scene amidst these rocks, in 1826, when the troops of Ibrahim Pasha were in the Morea, which realizes the fearful pictures of war under the manner of the ancient Gauls or Thracians. A crowd of 5000 Greeks of every age and sex had found shelter in a grassy and bushy spot embosomed amidst these crags,—few of them armed. They were pursued by 5000 Egyptians and Arabs; a very small resistance, in such ground, would have kept the troops at bay, but the poor men either could not or would not offer it. They were forced to surrender: the youngest and most energetic cast themselves headlong from the rocks and perished; 3000 prisoners were carried away captive, and sold for slaves at Corinth, Patras, and Modon: all those who were unfit for sale were massacred on the spot by the Egyptian troops.
all Arcadians, from the terrific sanction which this water was understood to impart to their oaths.

The distribution of Peloponnesus here sketched, suitable to the Persian invasion and the succeeding half century, may also be said (with some allowances) to be adapted to the whole interval between about B.C. 550–370; from the time of the conquest of Thyreatis by Sparta to the battle of Leuktra. But it is not the earliest distribution which history presents to us. Not presuming to criticise the Homeric map of Peloponnesus, and going back only to 776 B.C., we find this material difference—that Sparta occupies only a very small fraction of the large territory above described as belonging to her. Westward of the summit of Mount Taygetus are found another section of Dorians, independent of Sparta: the Messenian Dorians, whose city is on the hill of Stenyklerus, near the south-western boundary of Arcadia, and whose possessions cover the fertile plain of Messene along the river Pamisus to its mouth in the Messenian Gulf: it is to be noted that Messene was then the name of the plain generally, and that no town so called existed until after the battle of Leuktra. Again, eastward of the valley of the Eurotas, the mountainous region and the western shores of the Argolic Gulf down to Cape Malea are also independent of Sparta; belonging to Argos, or rather to Dorian towns in union with Argos. All the great Dorian towns, from the borders of the Megarid to the eastern frontier of Arcadia, as above enumerated, appear to have existed in 776 B.C.: Achaea was in the same condition, so far as we are able to judge, as well as
Arcadia, except in regard to its southern frontier conterminous with Sparta, of which more will hereafter be said. In respect to the western portion of Peloponnesus, Elis (properly so called) appears to have embraced the same territory in 776 B.C. as in 550 B.C.: but the Pisatid had been recently conquered, and was yet imperfectly subjected by the Eleians; while Triphylia seems to have been quite independent of them. Respecting the southwestern promontory of Peloponnesus down to Cape Akritas, we are altogether without information: reasons will hereafter be given for believing that it did not at that time form part of the territory of the Messenian Dorians.

Of the different races or people whom Herodotus knew in Peloponnesus, he believed three to be aboriginal—the Arcadians, the Achaeans, and the Kynurians. The Achaeans, though belonging indigenously to the peninsula, had yet removed from the southern portion of it to the northern, expelling the previous Ionian tenants: this is a part of the legend respecting the Dorian conquest or Return of the Herakleids, and we can neither verify nor contradict it. But neither the Arcadians nor the Kynurians had ever changed their abodes. Of the latter I have not before spoken, because they were never (so far as history knows them) an independent population. They occupied the larger portion of the territory of Argolis, from Ornea, near the

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1 This is the only way of reconciling Herodotus (vii. 73) with Thucydides (iv. 56, and v. 41). The original extent of the Kynurian territory is a point on which neither of them had any means of very correct information; but there is no occasion to reject the one in favour of the other.
northern, or Phliasian border, to Thyrea and the Thyreatis, on the Laconian border; and though belonging originally (as Herodotus imagines rather than asserts) to the Ionic race—they had been so long subjects of Argos in his time, that almost all evidence of their ante-Dorian condition had vanished.

But the great Dorian states in Peloponnesus—the capital powers in the peninsula—were all originally immigrants, according to the belief not only of Herodotus, but of all the Grecian world: so also were the Ætolians of Elis, the Triphylians, and the Dryopes at Hermione and Asinê. All these immigrations are so described as to give them a root in the Grecian legendary world: the Triphylians are traced back to Lemnos, as the offspring of the Argonautic heroes, and we are too uninformed about them to venture upon any historical guesses. But respecting the Dorians, it may perhaps be possible, by examining the first historical situation in which they are presented to us, to offer some conjectures as to the probable circumstances under which they arrived. The legendary narrative of it has already been given in the first chapter of this volume—that great mythical event called the Return of the Children of Héraklês, by which the first establishment of the Dorians in the promised land of Peloponnesus was explained to the full satisfaction of Grecian faith. One single armament and expedi-

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1 Herod. viii. 73. 'Ο Τα Καπηλικα Κλέφτους ἂν τὸν θεόν τὸν ἅλκινον αὐτῶν τῶν ἀργοναυτῶν ζητῆσαι ταύτα θεραπεύοντας καὶ ἄρδεν τὰς ἀρχαῖας ἀρχάριας, ἀπαύγαιον καὶ νῆσεως τοῦ τῆς Ορεινῆς καὶ νῆσεως.

2 Herodot. iv. 145-146.
tion, acting by the special direction of the Delphian god, and conducted by three brothers, lineal descendants of the principal Achæo-Dorian hero through Hyllus (the eponymus of the principal tribe)—the national heroes of the pre-existing population vanquished and expelled, and the greater part of the peninsula both acquired and partitioned at a stroke—the circumstances of the partition adjusted to the historical relations of Laconia and Messenia—the friendly power of Ætolian Elis, with its Olympic games as the bond of union in Peloponnesus, attached to this event as an appendage, in the person of Oxylus—all these particulars compose a narrative well-calculated to impress the retrospective imagination of a Greek. They exhibit an epical fitness and sufficiency which it would be unseasonable to impair by historical criticism.

The Alexandrine chronology sets down a period of 328 years from the Return of the Ærakleids to the first Olympiad (1104 B.C.—776 B.C.),—a period measured by the lists of the kings of Sparta, on the trustworthiness of which some remarks have already been offered. Of these 328 years, the first 250, at the least, are altogether barren of facts; and even if we admitted them to be historical, we should have nothing to recount except a succession of royal names. Being unable either to guarantee the entire list, or to discover any valid test for discriminating the historical and the non-historical items, I here enumerate the Lacedæmonian kings as they appear in Mr. Clinton's Fasti Hellenici. There were two joint kings at Sparta, throughout nearly all the historical time of independent Greece,
deducing their descent from Héraklès through Eurystenès and Proklès, the twin sons of Aristodèmus; the latter being one of those three Herakleid brothers to whom the conquest of the peninsula is ascribed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line of Eurystenès</th>
<th>Line of Proklès</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eurystenès</td>
<td>Proklès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agis</td>
<td>reigns 51 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Echestratus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labótas</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Dorystas</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Agesilaus</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Archelaus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teleclaus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alkamenès</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Both Theopompus and Alkamenès reigned considerably longer, but the chronologists affirm that the year 775 B.C. (or the first Olympiad) occurred in the tenth year of each of their reigns. It is necessary to add, with regard to this list, that there are some material discrepancies between different authors even as to the names of individual kings, and still more as to the duration of their reigns, as may be seen both in Mr. Clinton’s chronology and in Müller’s Appendix to the History of the Dorians. The alleged sum total cannot be made to agree with the items without great license of con-

1 Herodotus omits Sons between Proklès and Eurypóon, and inserts Polykleitès between Pyrtasnis and Eumomus; moreover the accounts of the Lacedæmonians, as he states them, represented Lykurgus the law-giver as uncle and guardian of Labóta, of the Eurystenid house,—while Simonidès made him son of Pyrtasnis, and others made him son of Eumomus, of the Proklid line; compare Herod. i. 631; viii. 131. Petoarch, Lyrc. c. 2.

Some excellent remarks on this early series of Spartan kings will be
jecture. O. Müller observes in reference to this Alexandrine chronology, "that our materials only enable us to restore it to its original state, not to verify its correctness." In point of fact they are insufficient even for the former purpose, as the discussions among learned critics attest.

We have a succession of names, still more barren of facts, in the case of the Dorian sovereigns of Corinth. This city had its own line of Herakleids, descended from Héraklès; but not through Hyllus. Hippotēs, the progenitor of the Corinthian Herakleids, was reported in the legend to have originally joined the Dorian invaders of the Peloponnesus, but to have quitted them in consequence of having slain the prophet Karnus. The three


Compare also Larcher, Chronologie d'Hérodote, ch. 13. p. 484-514.

He lengthens many of the reigns considerably, in order to suit the earlier epoch which he assigns to the capture of Troy and the Return of the Herakleids.


2 This story—that the heroic ancestor of the great Corinthian Bacchae had slain the holy man Kārnus, and had been punished for it by long banishment and privation—leads to the conjecture, that the Corinthians did not celebrate the festival of the Karnia, common to the Dorians generally.

Hērodotos tells us, with regard to the Ionian cities, that all of them celebrated the festival of Apatarion, except Ephesus and Kolophon; and that these two cities did not celebrate it, "because of a certain reason of number committed,"—ἐκάθεν γὰρ μένος ὸλείων εἷς ἄγωνας Ἀπαταρίας καὶ ἄρος ἐκατά ὀκτώ τοῦ στρογγύλου (Hērod. i. 147).

The murder of Karnus by Hippotēs was probably the πόλεμος στρογγύλος which forbade the Corinthians from celebrating the Karnia; at least this supposition gives to the legend a special pertinence which is otherwise wanting to it. Respecting the Karnia and Hyarnthia see Scourl. De Origine Graec. Dramat. p. 70-78. Tübingen, 1828.

There were various singular customs connected with the Greek festivals, which it was usual to account for by some legendary tale. Thus
brothers, when they became masters of the peninsula, sent for Alêtês the son of Hippotês, and placed him in possession of Corinth, over which the chronologists make him begin to reign thirty years after the Herakleid conquest. His successors are thus given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Reigns (years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alêtês</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ixion</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agelos</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prynnis</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacchis</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agelos</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endêmio</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aristomêdês</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agêmôn</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telestês</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automenês</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 327 years

Such was the celebrity of Bacchis, we are told, that those who succeeded him took the name of Bacchiads in place of Aletiads or Herakleids. One year after the accession of Automenês, the family of the Bacchiads generally, amounting to 200 persons, determined to abolish royalty, to constitute themselves a standing oligarchy, and to elect out of their own number an annual Prytanis.

no native of Elis ever entered himself as a competitor, or contended for the prize, at the Isthmian games. The legendary reason given for this was, that Hêraklês had waylaid and slain (at Kleôna) the two Molionid brothers, when they were proceeding to the Isthmian games as Thêrês or sacred envoys from the Eleian king Augus. Redress was in vain demanded for this outrage, and Molionês, mother of the slain envoys, imprecated a curse upon the Eleians generally if they should ever visit the Isthmian festival. This legend is the γêsos seîphos, explaining why no Eleian runner or wrestler was ever known to contend there (Pausan. ii. 15, 1; v. 2, 1-4. Ister, Fragment. 46, ed. Didot).
Thus commenced the oligarchy of the Bacchiads, which lasted for ninety years, until it was subverted by Kypselus in 657 B.C. Reckoning the thirty years previous to the beginning of the reign of Alétes, the chronologists thus provide an interval of 447 years between the Return of the Herakleids and the accession of Kypselus, and 357 years between the same period and the commencement of the Bacchid oligarchy. The Bacchid oligarchy is unquestionably historical; the conquest of the Herakleids belongs to the legendary world; while the interval between the two is filled up, as in so many other cases, by a mere barren genealogy.

When we jump this vacant space, and place ourselves at the first opening of history, we find that although ultimately Sparta came to hold the first place, not only in Peloponnesus, but in all Hellas, this was not the case at the earliest moment of which we have historical cognizance. Argos, and the neighbouring towns connected with her by a bond of semi-religious, semi-political union,—Sikyon, Phlius, Epidaurus, and Træzén,—were at first of greater power and consideration than Sparta; a fact which the legend of the Herakleids seems to recognise by making Témenus the eldest brother of the three. And Herodotus assures us that at one time all the eastern coast of Peloponnesus down to Cape Malea, including the island of Cythera, all which came afterwards to constitute a

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1 Diódor. Fragm. lib. vii. p. 14; with the note of Wesseling. Strabo (viii. p. 378) states that the Bacchid oligarchy to have lasted nearly 200 years.
material part of Laconia, had belonged to Argos. Down to the time of the first Messenian war, the comparative importance of the Dorian establishments in Peloponnesus appears to have been in the order in which the legend placed them,—Argos first, Sparta second, Messene third. It will be seen hereafter that the Argians never lost the recollection of this early pre-eminence, from which the growth of Sparta had extruded them; and the liberties of entire Hellas were more than once in danger from their disastrous jealousy of a more fortunate competitor:

At a short distance of about three miles from Argos, and at the exact point where that city approaches nearest to the sea, was situated the isolated hillock called Temenion, noticed both by Strabo and Pausanias. It was a small village deriving both its name and its celebrity from the chapel and tomb of the hero Temenus, who was there worshiped by the Dorian; and the statement which Pausanias heard was, that Temenus

1 Herodot. 1. 82. The historian adds, besides Cythæran, sat al locum ἀνά μήνα. What other islands are meant I do not distinctly understand.

2 So Plato (Legg. iii. p. 692), whose mind is full of the old myths and the tripartite distribution of Peloponnesus among the Herakleids, —ἡ δ' αὐτ. πρωτειον σε τοις τοῖς χρόνοις τοις περὶ τὰς διαφοράς, ἡ τελεῖ τῷ Ἀργοῖ τῇ, &c.

3 Pausan. ii. 38, 1; Strabo, viii. p. 368. Professor Ross observes respecting the line of coast near Argos, "The sea-side is thoroughly flat and for the most part marshy: only at the single point where Argos comes nearest to the coast—between the mouth, now choked by sand, of the united Inachus and Cysthus, and the eddies of the Erausus, overgrown with weeds and bulrushes,—stands an eminence of some elevation and composed of firmer earth, upon which the ancient Temenion was placed." (Reisen im Peloponnes, vol. i. sect. 5. p. 149, Berlin, 1841.)
with his invading Dorians had seized and fortified the spot, and employed it as an armed post to make war upon Tisamenus and the Achæans. What renders this report deserving of the greater attention, is, that the same thing is affirmed with regard to the eminence called Solygeius near Corinth: this too was believed to be the place which the Dorian assailants had occupied and fortified against the pre-existing Corinthians in the city. Situated close upon the Sarōnic Gulf, it was the spot which invaders landing from that gulf would naturally seize upon, and which Nikias with his powerful Athenian fleet did actually seize and occupy against Corinth in the Peloponnesian war. In early days the only way of overpowering the inhabitants of a fortified town, generally also planted in a position itself very defensible, was—that the invaders, entrenching themselves in the neighbourhood, harassed the inhabitants and ruined their produce until they brought them to terms. Even during the Peloponnesian war, when the art of besieging had made some progress, we read of several instances in which this mode of aggressive warfare was adopted with efficient results. We may readily believe that the Dorians obtained admittance both into Argos and Corinth in this manner. And it is remarkable that, except Sikyôn (which is affirmed to have been surprised by night), these were the only towns in the Argolic region which are said to have resisted them; the story being, that Phlius, Epidaurus, and Troæzên had admitted

1 Thucyd. iv. 42
2 Thucyd. i. 122; iii. 85; vii. 18-27; viii. 38-40.
the Dorian intruders without opposition, although a certain portion of the previous inhabitants seceded. We shall hereafter see that the non-Dorian population of Sikyön and Corinth still remained considerable.

The separate statements which we thus find, and the position of the Temenion and the Solygeius, lead to two conjectures—first, that the acquisitions of the Dorians in Peloponnesus were also isolated and gradual, not at all conformable to the rapid strides of the old Herakleid legend; next, that the Dorian invaders of Argos and Corinth made their attack from the Argolic and the Sarônic Gulfs—by sea and not by land. It is indeed difficult to see how they can have got to the Temenion in any other way than by sea; and a glance at the map will show that the eminence Solygeius presents itself¹, with reference to Corinth, as the nearest and most convenient holding-ground for a maritime invader, conformably to the scheme of operations laid by Nikias. To illustrate the supposition of a Dorian attack by sea on Corinth, we may refer to a story quoted from Aristotle (which we find embodied in the explanation of an old adage) representing Hippotês the father of Alêtês as having crossed the Maliac Gulf² (the sea immediately bordering on the ancient Maleans, Dryopians, and Dorians) in ships for the purpose of colonising. And if it be safe to trust the mention of Dorians in the Odyssey, as a part of the population of the island of Krete,

¹ Thucyd. iv. 42.
² Aristot. ap. Prov. Vaticum, iv. 1, Μαλεανα ναυσι—also Prov. Suda, x. 2.
we there have an example of Dorian settlements which must have been effected by sea, and that too at a very early period. "We must suppose (observes O. Müller¹, in reference to these Kretan Dorians) that the Dorians, pressed by want or restless from inactivity, constructed piratical canoes, manned these frail and narrow barks with soldiers who themselves worked at the oar, and thus being changed from mountaineers into seamen—the Normans of Greece—set sail for the distant island of Krête." In the same manner we may conceive the expeditions of the Dorians against Argos and Corinth to have been effected: and whatever difficulties may attach to this hypothesis, certain it is that the difficulties of a long land march, along such a territory as Greece, are still more serious.

The supposition of Dorian emigrations by sea, from the Maliac Gulf to the north-eastern promontory of Peloponnesus, is farther borne out by the analogy of the Dryopes or Dryopians. During the historical times, this people occupied several detached settlements in various parts of Greece, all maritime and some insular:—they were found at Hermionê, Asinê, and Eîôn, in the Argolic penin-

¹ Hist. of Dorians, ch. i. 9. Andron positively affirms that the Dorians came from Histiones to Krêtê; but his affirmation does not seem to me to constitute any additional evidence of the fact: it is a conjecture adapted to the passage in the Odyssey (xix. 174), so the mention of Achæans and Pelasgians evidently shows.

Aristotle (ep. Strab. viii. p. 374) appears to have believed that the Herakleidae returned to Argos out of the Attic Tetropolis (where, according to the Athenian legend, they had obtained shelter when persecuted by Enryrathes), accompanying a body of Ionians who then settled at Epidaurus. He cannot therefore have connected the Dorian occupation of Argos with the expedition from Naupaktus.
sula (very near to the important Dorian towns constituting the Amphiktyony of Argos)—at Styra and Karystus in the island of Euboea—in the island of Kythmus, and even at Cyprus. These dispersed colonies can only have been planted by expeditions over the sea. Now we are told that the original Dryopis, the native country of this people, comprehended both the territory near the river Spercheius, and north of Céta, afterwards occupied by the Malians, as well as the neighbouring district south of Céta, which was afterwards called Doris. From hence the Dryopians were expelled—according to one story, by the Dorians—according to another, by Héraklès and the Malians: however this may be, it was from the Maliac Gulf that they started on shipboard in quest of new homes, which some of them found on the headlands of the Argolic peninsula. And it was from this very country, according to Herodotus, that the Dorians also set forth, in order to reach Peloponnesus. Nor does it seem unreasonable to imagine, that the same means of conveyance, which bore the Dryopians from the Maliac Gulf to Hermioné and Asiné, also carried the Dorians from the same place to the Temenion and the hill Solygeius.

The legend represents Sikyôn, Epidaurus, Trozén, Phlius, and Kleônaé, as all occupied by Do-

1 Herod. viii. 43-46; Diodor. iv. 37; Pausan. iv. 34, 6.
3 Herodot. i. 56.—ἀδελφὲς ἐστὶν ὁμοία τῷ Ἀργολίδοις μετὰ, καὶ τῷ Ἀργολίδου ἄροι καὶ Πελαγώνων Ὀλίνοι. Δυνατὸν ἐκδῆν— λυθαίος, τοῦτο καὶ τοῦτο συμφαίον, viii. 31-43.
Dorian colonists from Argos, under the different sons of Témenus: the first three are on the sea, and fit places for the occupation of maritime invaders. Argos and the Dorian towns in and near the Argolic peninsula are to be regarded as a cluster of settlements by themselves, completely distinct from Sparta and the Messenian Stenyklérus, which appear to have been formed under totally different conditions. First, both of them are very far inland—Stenyklérus not easy, Sparta very difficult of access from the sea; next, we know that the conquests of Sparta were gradually made down the valley of the Eurotas seaward. Both these acquisitions present the appearance of having been made from the land-side, and perhaps in the direction which the Herakleid legend describes—by warriors entering Peloponnesus across the narrow mouth of the Corinthian Gulf, through the aid or invitation of those Ætolian settlers who at the same time colonised Elis. The early and intimate connection (on which I shall touch presently) between Sparta and the Olympic games as administered by the Eleians, as well as the leading part ascribed to Lykurgus in the constitution of the solemn Olympic truce, tend to strengthen such a persuasion.

In considering the early affairs of the Dorians in Peloponnesus, we are apt to have our minds biassed, first by the Herakleid legend, which imparts to them an impressive, but deceitful, epical unity; next, by the aspect of the later and better-known history, which presents the Spartan power as unquestionably preponderant, and Argos only as second by a long interval. But the first view
(as I have already remarked) which opens to us of real Grecian history, a little before 776 B.C., exhibits Argos with its alliance or confederacy of neighbouring cities colonised from itself, as the great seat of Dorian power in the peninsula, and Sparta as an outlying state of inferior consequence. The recollection of this state of things lasted after it had ceased to be a reality, and kept alive pretensions on the part of Argos to the headship of the Greeks as a matter of right, which she became quite incapable of sustaining either by adequate power or by statesmanlike sagacity. The growth of Spartan power was a succession of encroachments upon Argos.

How Sparta came constantly to gain upon Argos will be matter for future explanation: at present it is sufficient to remark, that the ascendancy of Argos was derived not exclusively from her own territory, but came in part from her position as metropolis of an alliance of autonomous neighbouring cities, all Dorian and all colonised from herself—and this was an element of power essentially fluctuating. What Thébes was to the cities of Boeotia, of which she either was, or professed to have been, the founder, the same was Argos in reference to

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1 See Herodot. vii. 148. The Argans say, to the Lacedaemonians, in reference to the chief command of the Greeks—συναρχεῖα ἡ γενοῦσα τῶν ἤγεσεντών τῶν Ἐλλήνων, &c. Schweighauser and others explain the point by reference to the command of Agamemnon; but this is at best only a part of the foundation of their claim: they had a more recent historical reality to plead also: compare Strabo, viii. p. 376.

2 Ἡπείρος οὐκ εἰρήνα: a synonymous —νυν ἐν τῇ καταστασίᾳ τῶν Σιθείων, τῶν Χερσονήσου τῶν Θεσπολίτων, ἐν πολλαῖς τοις ἡγεμονικοῖς ἀρχαίοις καὶ νεωτέροις; Ἡπείρος δὲ τῷ τίτλῳ.
Kléoné, Phlius, Sikyón, Epidaurus, Trosén, and Ægina. These towns formed, in mythical language, "the lot of Témenus!"—in real matter of fact the confederated allies or subordinates of Argos: the first four of them were said to have been *dorised* by the sons or immediate relatives of Témenus, and the kings of Argos, as acknowledged descendants of the latter, claimed and exercised a sort of *suzeraineté* over them. Hermione, Asinó, and Nanplía seem also to have been under the supremacy of Argos, though not colonies. But this supremacy was not claimed directly and nakedly: agreeably to the ideas of the time, the ostensible purposes of the Argeian confederacy or Amphiktyony were religious, though its secondary, and not less real effects, were political. The great patron-god of the league was Apollo Pytháéus, in whose name the obligations incumbent on the members of the league were imposed. While in each of the confederated cities there was a temple to this god, his most holy and

1 Respecting Phlidió, king of Argos, Ephorus said—*τὸ λίθος ἐκ τῆς Τάμνου διαστρατεύον τὰ στέφανα μέρη* (op. cit., viii. p. 338).

2 The worship of Apollo Pytháéus, adopted from Argos both at Hermione and Asinó, shows the connection between them and Argos (Pausan. ii. 36, 2; iii. 36, 5); but Pausanias can hardly be justified in saying that the Argeians actually *dorised* Hermione: it was Dryopian in the time of Herodotus, and seemingly for a long time afterwards (Herodot. viii. 43). The Hermionean Inscription, No. 1193, in Boeckh's Collection, recognizes their old Dryopian connection with Asinó in Laconia: that town had once been neighbour of Hermione, but was destroyed by the Argeians, and the inhabitants received a new home from the Spartans. The dialect of the Hermioneans (probably that of the Dryopians generally) was Doric. See Airens, De Dialecto Dorico, p. 2-12.
central sanctuary was on the Larissa or acropolis of Argos. At this central Argeian sanctuary solemn sacrifices were offered by Epidaurus as well as by other members of the confederacy, and as it should seem, accompanied by money-payments— which the Argeians, as chief administrators on behalf of the common god, took upon them to enforce against defaulters, and actually tried to enforce during the Peloponnesian war against Epidaurus. On another occasion, during the 66th Olympiad (B.c. 514), they imposed the large fine of 500 talents upon each of the two states Sikyon and Ægina, for having lent ships to the Spartan king Kleomenes wherewith he invaded the Argeian territory. The Æginetans set the claim at defiance, but the Sikyonians acknowledged its justice, and only demurred to its amount, professing themselves ready to pay 100 talents. There can be no doubt that at this later period the ascendancy of Argos over the members of her primitive confederacy had become practically inoperative; but the tenor of the cases mentioned shows that her claims were revivals of bygone privileges, which had once been effective and valuable.

How valuable the privileges of Argos were, before the great rise of the Spartan power,—how im-

1 Thucyd. v. 53. Κατά τον ἄνεον ημερας ἢνε Ἀργείων. The word ἄργαρος, which the historian uses in regard to the claim of Argos against Epidaurus, seems to imply a money-payment withheld; compare the offerings exacted by Athens from Epidaurus (Herod. v. 82).

2 The peculiar and intimate connection between the Argeans, and Apollo, with his surname of Pythianus, was dwelt upon by the Argian poetess Telesilla (Pausan. ii. 36). 2.

3 Herodot. vi. 52. See O. Müller, History of the Dorians, ch. 7, 15.
portant an ascendency they conferred in the hands of an energetic man, and how easily they admitted of being used in furtherance of ambitious views,—is shown by the remarkable case of Pheidôn the Temenid. The few facts which we learn respecting this prince exhibit to us, for the first time, something like a real position of parties in the Peloponnesus, wherein the actual conflict of living, historical men and cities comes out in tolerable distinctness.

Pheidôn was designated by Ephorus as the tenth, and by Theopompos as the sixth, in lineal descent from Têmenus. Respecting the date of his existence, opinions the most discrepant and irreconcilable have been delivered; but there seems good reason for referring him to the period a little before and a little after the 8th Olympiad,—between 770 B.C. and 730 B.C.¹. Of the preceding kings of


The Parian Marble makes Pheidôn the eleventh from Hêrmakês and places him B.C. 895; Herodotus, on the contrary (in a passage which affords considerable grounds for discussion), places him at a period which cannot be much higher than 600 B.C. (vi. 127). Some authors suspect the text of Herodotus to be incorrect; at any rate, the real epoch of Pheidôn is determined by the eighth Olympiad. Several critics suppose two Pheidôns, such king of Argos—among others, O. Müller (Dorians, vi. 6, 10); but there is nothing to countenance this except the impossibility of reconciling Herodotus with the other authorities. And Weissenborn, in a dissertation of some length, vindicates the emendation of Pausanias proposed by some former critics,—altering the eighth Olympiad, which now stands in the text of Pausanias, into the twenty-eighth, as the date of Pheidôn's usurpation at the Olympic games. Weissenborn endeavors to show that Pheidôn cannot have flourished earlier than 600 B.C.; but his arguments do not appear to me very forcible, and certainly not sufficient to justify so grave an alteration in the number of Pausanias (Beiträge zur Griechischen Altertumskunde, p. 18; Jena 1844). Mr. Clinton (Patri Hellenici, vol. i. App. i. p. 219)
Argos we hear little: one of them, Eratus, is said to have expelled the Dryopian inhabitants of Asiné from their town on the Argolic peninsula, in consequence of their having cooperated with the Spartan king Nikander when he invaded the Argelian territory, seemingly during the generation preceding Pheidón; there is another, Damokratidas, whose date cannot be positively determined, but he appears rather as subsequent than as anterior to Pheidón. We are informed however that these anterior kings, even beginning with Medón, the grandson of Témenus, had been forced to submit to great abridgement of their power and privileges, and that a form of government substantially popular, though nominally regal, had been established. Pheidón, breaking through the limits imposed, made himself despot of Argos. He then re-established the power of Argos over all the cities of her confederacy, which had before been so nearly dissolved as to leave all the members practically independent. Next, he is said to have

places. Pheidón between 783 and 744 B.C., also Boeckh, ad Corp. Inscrip. No. 2374, p. 335, and Müller, Egonia, p. 63.

1 Pausan. ii. 36, 5; iv. 35, 2.

2 Pausan. ii. 19. 1. Ἀργεῖον δὲ, ἄτε ἱστορίαν καὶ τὸ περὶ ὁμοτρεχόν ἔγγραφον ἔχων τε καὶ τοῖς πολλοῖς καὶ πολλαπλασιασμοῖς τῆς ἡμέρας τῶν μεταλλευσεων καὶ ἐπιστολαίς προφυλάξον, ἐκ Μίδας τοῦ Κέρκυρας ἔκ τοῦ ἐπερεύναν τοῦ ὥραμα λεπτότητι τῆς Μεθηρίου μέσον. This passage has all the air of transferring back to the early government of Argos feelings which were only true of the later. It is curious, that in this chapter, though devoted to the Argian regal line and government, Pausanias takes no notice of Pheidón: he mentions him only with reference to the disputed Olympia ceremony.

3 Ephorus, ut supra. Ἐφορος τοῦ Ἀργείου, διήρκεια δύον ἐν τῆς Τέμενου, ἔλθει ἐκτελεσθήσας τοῖς μισθοῖς, καὶ ἔστη τὸ λαὸς ὑπάρχοντα τῆς Τέμενου διατηρήσας ἐκ πληθυντικῆς ἀνάλοιπες ἡμέρας, &c. What is meant by the ἵπτος of Témenus has been already explained.
acquired dominion over Corinth, and to have endeavoured to assure it by treacherously entrap-
ing 1000 of her warlike citizens; but his artifice was divulged and frustrated by Abrôn, one of his confidential friends. He is farther reported to have aimed at extending his sway over the greater part of Peloponnesus,—laying claim, as the de-
scentant of Héraklês through the eldest son of Hyllus, to all the cities which that restless and irresistible hero had ever taken. According to Grecian ideas, this legendary title was always seri-
ously construed and often admitted as conclusive; though of course, where there were strong oppo-
sing interests, reasons would be found to elude it. Pheidôn would have the same ground of right as that which, 250 years afterwards, determined the Herakleid Dôrieus, brother of Kleomenês king of Sparta, to acquire for himself the territory near Mount Eryx in Sicily, because his progenitor Hé-
raklês had conquered it before him. So numerous however were the legends respecting the conquests of Héraklês, that the claim of Pheidôn must have covered the greater part of Peloponnesus, except Sparta and the plain of Messêne, which were al-
ready in the hands of Herakleids.

Nor was the ambition of Pheidôn satisfied even

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2 I cannot, however, believe that Pheidôn, the ancient Corinthian law-
giver mentioned by Aristotle, is the same person as Pheidôn the king of Argo (Polit. ii. 6, 4).
3 Ἡθος τοῦ οὐρανοῦ. Πρὸς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοὺς τοỦς τοῤῥιν ἡθος ἐν εἴναι καὶ τῆς Ὀλυμπιάδος, ἄκτ.
4 Herodot. v. 43.
with these large pretensions. He farther claimed the right of presiding at the celebration of those religious games or Ἀγόνες which had been instituted by Ηέρακλῆs,—and amongst these was numbered the Olympic Ἀγόν, then, however, enjoying but a slender fraction of the lustre which afterwards came to attach to it. The presidency of any of the more celebrated festivals current throughout Greece was a privilege immensely prized. It was at once dignified and lucrative, and the course of our history will present more than one example in which blood was shed to determine what state should enjoy it. Πheidōn marched to Ολυμπία, at the epoch of the 8th recorded Olympiad, or 747 B.C.; on the occasion of which event we are made acquainted with the real state of parties in the peninsula.

The plain of Olympia—now ennobled only by immortal recollections, but once crowded with all the decorations of religion and art, and forming for many centuries the brightest centre of attraction known in the ancient world—was situated on the river Alpheius in the territory called the Πίσατιδ, hard by the borders of Arcadia. At what time its agonistic festival, recurring every fifth year at the first full moon after the summer solstice, first began or first acquired its character of special sanctity, we have no means of determining. As with so many of the native waters of Greece—we follow the stream upward to a certain point, but the fountain-head and the earlier flow of history is buried under mountains of unsearchable legend. The first celebration of the Olympic contests was ascribed by Grecian legendary faith to Ηέρακλῆs—and the site of the place,
in the middle of the Pisatid with its eight small townships, is quite sufficient to prove that the inhabitants of that little territory were warranted in describing themselves as the original administrators of the ceremony. But this state of things seems to have been altered by the Ætolian settlement in Elis, which is represented as having been conducted by Oxylus and identified with the Return of the Herakleids. The Ætolo-Eleians, bordering upon the Pisatid to the north, employed their superior power in subduing their weaker neighbours, who thus lost their autonomy and became annexed to the territory of Elis. It was the general rule throughout Greece, that a victorious state undertook to perform the current services of the conquered people towards the gods—such services being conceived as attaching to the soil; hence the celebration of the Olympic games became numbered among the incumblencies of Elis, just in the same way as the worship of the Eleusimian Démétér, when Eleusis lost its autonomy, was included among the religious obligations of Athens. The Pisatans however never willingly acquiesced in this absorption of what had once been their separate privilege; they long maintained their conviction that the celebration of the games was their right, and strove on several occasions to regain it. Of those occasions the earliest, so far as we hear, was connected with the intervention of Pheidôn. It was at their invitation that the king of Argos went to Olympia, and celebrated

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1 Xenoph. Hellen. v, 1. 28; Diodor. xi. 76.  
2 Strabo, viii. p. 354.  
3 Thucyd. iv. 98.
the games himself, in conjunction with the Pisatans, as the lineal successor of Hēraklēs; while the Eleians, being thus forcibly dispossessed, refused to include the 8th Olympiad in their register of the victorious runners. But their humiliation did not last long, for the Spartans took their part, and the contest ended in the defeat of Pheidōn. In the next Olympiad, the Eleian management and the regular enrolment appear as before, and the Spartans are even said to have confirmed Elis in her possession both of Pisatis and Triphyilia.

Unfortunately these scanty particulars are all which we learn respecting the armed conflict at the 8th Olympiad, in which the religious and the political grounds of quarrel are so intimately blended—as we shall find to be often the case in Grecian history. But there is one act of Pheidōn yet more memorable, of which also nothing beyond a meagre notice has come down to us. He first coined both copper and silver money in Ἀγίνα, and first established a scale of weights and measures, which, through his influence, became adopted throughout Peloponnesus, and acquired ultimately footing both in all the Dorian states, and in Boeotia, Thessaly, northern Hellas generally, and Macedon—under the name of the Ἀγίναιαν scale. There arose subsequently another rival scale in Greece, called the Euboic, differing considerably from the Ἀγίναιαν. We do not know at what time it was

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1 Pausan. v. 22. 2; Strabo, viii. p. 354—358; Herodot. vi. 127. The name of the victor (Ἀντίκλας the Messenian), however, belonging to the 8th Olympiad, appears duly in the lists; it must have been supplied afterwards.

introduced, but it was employed both at Athens and in the Ionic cities generally, as well as in Euboea—being modified at Athens, so far as money was concerned, by Solon's debasement of the coinage.

The copious and valuable information contained in M. Boeckh's recent publication on Metrology has thrown new light upon these monetary and statical scales. He has shown that both the Æginæan and the Euboic scales—the former standing to the latter in the proportion of 6:5—had contemporaneous currency in different parts of the Persian empire; the divisions and denominations of the scale being the same in both, 100 drachmæ to a mina, and 60 minæ to a talent. The Babylonian talent, mina, and drachma are identical with the Æginæan: the word mina is of Asiatic origin; and it has now been rendered highly probable, that the scale circulated by Pheidon was borrowed immediately from the Phoenicians, and by them originally from the Babylonians. The Babylonian, Hebraic, Phoenician, Egyptian, and Grecian scales of weight,


2 See chap. 7, 1-3. But I cannot agree with M. Boeckh in thinking that Pheidon, in celebrating the Olympic games, deduced from the Olympic stadium, and formally adopted, the measure of the foot, or that he at all settled measures of length. In general, I do not think that M. Boeckh's conclusions are well made out, in respect to the Grecian measures of length and capacity. In an examination of this eminently learned treatise (inserted in the Classical Museum, 1844, vol. i.), I endeavoured to set forth both the new and interesting points established by the author, and the various others in which he appeared to me to have failed.

3 I have modified this sentence as it stood in my first edition. It is
(which were subsequently followed wherever coined money was introduced) are found to be so nearly conformable, as to warrant a belief that they are all deduced from one common origin; and that origin the Chaldaean priesthood of Babylon. It is to Pheidón, and to his position as chief of the Argeian confederacy, that the Greeks owe the first introduction of the Babylonian scale of weight, and the first employment of coined and stamped money.

If we maturely weigh the few, but striking acts of Pheidón which have been preserved to us, and which there is no reason to discredit, we shall find ourselves introduced to an early historical state of Peloponnnesus very different from that to which another century will bring us. That Argos, with the federative cities attached to her, was at this early time decidedly the commanding power in that peninsula, is sufficiently shown by the establishment and reception of the Pheidonian weights, measures, and monetary system—while the other incidents mentioned completely harmonise with the same idea. Against the oppressions of Elis, the Pisatans invoked Pheidón—partly as exercising a primacy in Peloponneseus, just as the inhabitants of Lepreum in Triphylia, three centuries afterwards, called in the aid of Sparta for the same object, at a time when Sparta possessed the headship—and partly as the lineal representative of Hēraklēs, who had founded those games from the manage-

not correct to speak of the Egyptian money scale; the Egyptians had no coined money. See a valuable article in review of my History, in the Christian Reformer, by Mr. Kenrick, who pointed out this inaccuracy.

1 Thucyd. v. 31.
ment of which they had been unjustly extruded. On the other hand, Sparta appears as a second-rate power. The Æginetan scale of weight and measure was adopted there as elsewhere— the Messenian Dorians were still equal and independent—and we find Sparta interfering to assist Elis by virtue of an obligation growing (so the legend represents it) out of the common Ætolo-Dorian immigration; not at all from any acknowledged primacy, such as we shall see her enjoying hereafter. The first coinage of copper and silver money is a capital event in Grecian history, and must be held to imply considerable commerce as well as those extensive views which belong only to a conspicuous and leading position. The ambition of Pheidon to resume all the acquisitions made by his ancestor Héraklès, suggests the same large estimate of his actual power. He is characterised as a despot, and even as the most insolent of all despots; how far he deserved such a reputation, we have no means of judging. We may remark, however, that he lived before the age of despots or tyrants, properly so called, and before the Herakleid lineage had yet lost its primary, half-political, half-religious character. Moreover, the later historians have invested his actions with a colour of exorbitant aggression, by applying them to a state of things which


The Æginetan mina, lepton and obolus were the denominations employed in stipulations among the Peloponnesian states (Thucyd. v. 47).

2 Herodot. vi. 127. Φελέσσετε τος Ἀργεῖους τρισκελούς—τοις Ἀχαΐοις ἀρρημένοις ὑπὸ Ἐλλήνων δίκαιως. PASAMIANOS (vi. 22, 2) copies the expression. Aristotle cites Pheidon as a person who, being a Sarœte, made himself a tyranneus (Politic. viii. 8, 5).
belonged to their time and not to his. Thus Ephorus represents him as having deprived the Lacedæmonians of the headship of Peloponnesus, which they never possessed until long after him—and also as setting at nought the sworn inviolability of the territory of the Eleians, enjoyed by the latter as celebrators of the Olympic games; whereas the Agonothesia, or right of superintendence claimed by Elis, had not at that time acquired the sanction of prescription—while the conquest of Pisa by the Eleians themselves had proved that this sacred function did not protect the territory of a weaker people.

How Pheidon fell, and how the Argeians lost that supremacy which they once evidently possessed, we have no positive details to inform us: with respect to the latter point, however, we can discern a sufficient explanation. The Argeians stood predominant as an entire and unanimous confederacy, which required a vigorous and able hand to render its internal organisation effective or its ascendancy respected without. No such leader afterwards appeared at Argos, the whole history of which city is destitute of eminent individuals: her line of kings continued at least down to the Persian war, but seemingly with only titular functions, for the government had long been decidedly popular. The statements, which represent the government as popular anterior to the time of Pheidon, appear unworthy of trust. That prince is rather to be taken as wielding the old, undiminished prerogatives of the Herakleid kings, but wielding them with un-

1 Herodot. vi. 149.
usual effect—enforcing relaxed privileges, and appealing to the old heroic sentiment in reference to Héraclès, rather than revolutionising the existing relations either of Argos or of Peloponnesus. It was in fact the great and steady growth of Sparta, for three centuries after the Lykourgean institutions, which operated as a cause of subversion to the previous order of command and obedience in Greece.

The assertion made by Herodotus—that in earlier times the whole eastern coast of Laconia as far as Cape Malea, including the island of Kythéra and several other islands, had belonged to Argos—is referred by O. Müller to about the 50th Olympiad, or 580 B.C. Perhaps it had ceased to be true at that period; but that it was true in the age of Pheidon, there seem good grounds for believing. What is probably meant is, that the Dorian towns on this coast, Prasía, Zarèx, Epidaurus Liméra, and Bœæ, were once autonomous, and members of the Argeian confederacy—a fact highly probable, on independent evidence, with respect to Epidaurus Liméra, inasmuch as that town was a settlement from Epidaurus in the Argolic peninsula: and Bœæ too had its own oikist and eponymous, the Herakleid Bœus¹, noway connected with Sparta—perhaps derived from the same source as the name of the town Bœcon in Doris. The Argeian confederated towns would thus comprehend the whole coast of the Argolic and Saronic Gulfs, from Kythéra as far as Ægina, besides other islands which we do not know: Ægina had received a colony of Dorians from Argos and Epidaurus, upon which latter town

¹ Pausan. iii. 22, 7; iv. 23, 4.
it continued for some time in a state of dependence. It will at once be seen that this extent of coast implies a considerable degree of commerce and maritime activity. We have besides to consider the range of Doric colonies in the southern islands of the Ægean and in the south-western corner of Asia Minor—Krête, Kós, Rhodes (with its three distinct cities), Halikarnassus, Knidus, Myndus, Nisyros, Symé, Karpathus, Kalydna, &c. Of the Doric establishments here named, several are connected (as has been before stated) with the great emigration of the Tēmenid Althēnēndes from Argos: but what we particularly observe is, that they are often referred as colonies promiscuously to Argos, Trózen, Epidaurus—more frequently however, as it seems, to Argos. All these settlements are doubtless older than Pheidôn, and we may conceive them as proceeding conjointly from the allied Dorian towns in the Argolic peninsula, at a time when they were more in the habit of united action than they afterwards became: a captain of emigrants selected from the line of Hēraklēs and Tē-

1 Herodot. v. 83; Strabo, viii. p. 375.
2 Rhodes, Kós, Knidus, and Halikarnassus are all treated by Strabo (xiv. p. 633) as colonies of Argos: Rhodes is so described by Thucydides (vii. 57), and Kós by Tacitus (xii. 61). Kós, Kalydna, and Nisyros are described by Herodotus as colonies of Epidaurus (vii. 99). Halikarnassus passes sometimes for a colony of Trózen, sometimes of Trózen and Argos conjointly:—"Cum Melas et Arsamius ab Argia et Tróxene coloniam comunem co loco induxerunt, barbaros Caros et Leleges ejecterunt (Vitr. ii. 8, 12; Steph. Byz. v. "Αλκενάντων")." Compare Strabo, x. p. 479; Conon, Narr. 47; Diodor. v. 89.

Raoul Rochette (Histoire des Colonies Grecques, t. iii. ch. 9) and O. Müller (History of the Dorians, ch. 6) have collected the facts about these Asiatic Dorians.

The little town of Bœce had its counterpart of the same name in Krête (Steph. Byz. v. 80).
menus was suitable to the feelings of all of them. We may thus look back to a period, at the very beginning of the Olympiads, when the maritime Doriens on the east of Peloponnesus maintained a considerable intercourse and commerce not only among themselves but also with their settlements on the Asiatic coast and islands. That the Argolic peninsula formed an early centre for maritime rendezvous, we may farther infer from the very ancient Amphiktyony of the seven cities (Hermionê, Epidaurus, Ægina, Athens, Præsia, Nauplia, and the Minyæian Orchomenus), on the holy island of Kalauria, off the harbour of Trozêa 1.

The view here given of the early ascendancy of Argos, as the head of the Peloponnesian Doriens and the metropolis of the Asiatic Doriens, enables us to understand the capital innovation of Pheidôn—the first coinage, and the first determinate scale of weight and measure known in Greece. Of the value of such improvements, in the history of Grecian civilization, it is superfluous to speak, especially when we recollect that the Hellenic states, having no political unity, were only held together by the aggregate of spontaneous uniformities, in language, religion, sympathies, recreations, and general habits. We see both how Pheidôn came to contract the wish, and how he acquired the power, to introduce throughout so much of the Grecian world an uniform scale; we also see that the Asiatic Doriens form the link between him and Phœnia, from whence the scale was derived, just as the Euboic scale came in all probability, through

1 Strabo, p. 374.
the Ionic cities in Asia, from Lydia. It is asserted by Ephorus, and admitted even by the ablest modern critics, that Pheidon first coined money in Ἀегίνα; other authors (erroneously believing that his scale was the Euboic scale) alleged that his coinage had been carried on in a place of Argos called Euboea. Now both these statements appear highly improbable, and both are traceable to the same mistake—of supposing that the title, by which the scale had come to be commonly known, must necessarily be derived from the place in which the coinage had been struck. There is every reason to conclude, that what Pheidon did was done in Argos, and nowhere else; his coinage and scale were the earliest known in Greece, and seem to have been known by his own name, the Pheidonian measures, under which designation they were described by Aristotle in his account of the constitution of Argos. They probably did not come to bear the specific epithet of Ἀειναῖαν until there was another scale in vogue, the Euboic, from which to distinguish them; and both the epithets were probably derived, not from the place where the scale first originated, but from the people whose commercial activity tended to make them most generally known—in the one case, the Ἀειναῖοι and Eretrians; in the other case, the inhabitants of Chalkis and Eretria. I think,

1 Ephorus ap. Strabo, viii. p. 376; Boeckh, Metrologie, Abschn. 7, see also the Marmor Parium, Epoch 30.
2 Hymenagoros Magn. Εἰθάρβαις πειράματα.
3 Ptolemy, Onomasticon. x. 179. Ἐν Εἰθάρβαις τὸς Ἐθομνός ὀνομάζεται, ἐν τῷ παῖς Πηθόπολες, τὸν ἐπὶ τὸν Αργεῖον ποιημένον ἐπίστεχον Αρτακάλλης λέγειν.

Also Ephorus ap. Strabo, viii. p. 353, καὶ μέτρα ᾽Εῖναι ταῦτα Πηθόπολες καλοίμενα καὶ σταθμοὺς, καὶ ἐν τῷ χώρῳ κυριαρχίμενα, &c.
therefore, that we are to look upon the Pheidonian measures as emanating from Argos, and as having no greater connection, originally, with Ægina, than with any other city dependent upon Argos.

There is moreover another point which deserves notice. What was known by the name of the Æginæan scale, as contrasted with and standing in a definite ratio (6:5) with the Euboic scale, related only to weight and money, so far as our knowledge extends: we have no evidence to show that the same ratio extended either to measures of length or measures of capacity. But there seems ground for believing that the Pheidonian regulations, taken in their full comprehension, embraced measures of capacity as well as weights: Pheidon, at the same time when he determined the talent, mina, and drachm, seems also to have fixed the dry and liquid measures—the medimnus and metretes, with their parts and multiples: and there existed Pheidonian measures of capacity, though not of length, so far as we know. The Æginæan scale may thus have comprised only a portion of what was established by Pheidon, namely that which related to weight and money.

1 This differs from Boeckh's opinion: see the note in page 429.
2 Theophrast. Character. c. 15; Polux, x. 179.
CHAPTER V.

ÆTOLO-DORIAN IMMIGRATION INTO PELOPONNESUS—
ELIS, LACONIA, AND MESSEния.

It has already been stated that the territory properly called Elis, apart from the enlargement which it acquired by conquest, included the westernmost land in Peloponnesus, south of Achaia, and west of Mount Pholoë and Olenus in Arcadia—but not extending so far southward as the river Alpheius, the course of which lay along the southern portion of Pisatis and on the borders of Triphylia. This territory, which appears in the Odyssey as "the divine Elis, where the Epeians hold sway¹," is in the historical times occupied by a population of Ætolian origin. The connection of race between the historical Eleians and the historical Ætolians was recognised by both parties, nor is there any ground for disputing it².

That Ætolian invaders or immigrants into Elis would cross from Naupaktus or some neighbouring point in the Corinthian Gulf, is in the natural course of things—and such is the course which Oxylus, the conductor of the invasion, is represented by the Herakleid legend as taking. That legend (as has been already recounted) introduces Oxylus as the guide of the three Herakleid brothers—Têmenus, Kresphontês, and Aristodêmus—and

¹ Odys. xv. 297.
² Strabo, s. p. 479.
as stipulating with them that in the new distribution about to take place of Peloponnesus, he shall be allowed to possess the Eleian territory, coupled with many holy privileges as to the celebration of the Olympic games.

In the preceding chapter, I have endeavoured to show that the settlements of the Dorians in and near the Argolic peninsula, so far as the probabilities of the case enable us to judge, were not accomplished by any inroad in this direction. But the localities occupied by the Dorians of Sparta, and by the Dorians of Stenyklérus in the territory called Messénè, lead us to a different conclusion. The easiest and most natural road through which immigrants could reach either of these two spots, is through the Eleian and the Pisatid country. Colonel Leake observes¹ that the direct road from the Eleian territory to Sparta, ascending the valley of the Alpheius near Olympia to the sources of its branch the Theius, and from thence descending the Eurotas, affords the only easy march towards that very inaccessible city: and both ancients and moderns have remarked the vicinity of the source of the Alpheius to that of the Eurotas. The situation of Stenyklérus and Andania, the original settlements of the Messenian Dorians, adjoining closely the Arcadian Parrhasii, is only at a short distance from the course of the Alpheius; being thus reached most easily by the same route. Dismissing the idea of a great col-

¹ Leake, Travels in Morea, vol. iii. ch. 23, p. 29; compare Diodor. xv. 66.

The distance from Olympia to Sparta, as marked on a pillar which Pausanias saw at Olympia, was 660 stadia,—about 77 English miles (Pausan. vi. 16. 6).
lective Dorian armament, powerful enough to grasp at once the entire peninsula,—we may conceive two moderate detachments of hardy mountaineers, from the cold regions in and near Doris, attaching themselves to the Ætolians their neighbours, who were proceeding to the invasion of Elis. After having aided the Ætolians both to occupy Elis and to subdue the Pisatid, these Dorians advanced up the valley of the Alpheius in quest of settlements for themselves. One of these bodies ripens into the stately, stubborn, and victorious Spartans; the other into the short-lived, trampled, and struggling Messenians.

Amidst the darkness which overclouds these original settlements, we seem to discern something like special causes to determine both of them. With respect to the Spartan Dorians, we are told that a person named Philonomus betrayed Sparta to them, persuading the sovereign in possession to retire with his people into the habitations of the Ionians in the north of the peninsula—and that he received as a recompense for this acceptable service Amyklæ with the district round it. It is farther stated—and this important fact there seems no reason to doubt—that Amyklæ, though only twenty stadia or two miles and a half distant from Sparta, retained both its independence and its Achæan inhabitants long after the Dorian immigrants had acquired possession of the latter place, and was only taken by them under the reign of Teleclus, one generation before the first Olympiad. Without

1 Strabo, viii. pp. 364, 365; Pausan. iii. 2, 5; compare the story of Krios, Pausan. iii. 13, 3.
presuming to fill up by conjecture incurable gaps in the statements of our authorities, we may from hence reasonably presume that the Dorians were induced to invade, and enabled to acquire, Sparta, by the invitation and assistance of a party in the interior of the country. Again, with respect to the Messenian Dorians, a different, but not less effectual temptation was presented by the alliance of the Arcadians, in the south-western portion of that central region of Peloponnesus. Kresphantés the Herakleid leader, it is said, espoused the daughter\(^1\) of the Arcadian king Kypselus, which procured for him the support of a powerful section of Arcadia. His settlement at Stenyklérus was a considerable distance from the sea, at the north-east corner of Messenia\(^5\), close to the Arcadian frontier; and it will be seen hereafter that this Arcadian alliance is a constant and material element in the disputes of the Messenian Dorians with Sparta.

We may thus trace a reasonable sequence of events, showing how two bodies of Dorians, having first assisted the Ætolio-Eleians to conquer the Pisatid, and thus finding themselves on the banks of the Alpheius, followed the upward course of that river, the one to settle at Sparta, the other at Stenyklérus. The historian Ephorus, from whom our scanty fragments of information respecting these early settlements are derived—it is important to note that he lived in the age immediately succeeding the first foundation of Messēnē as a city, the re-

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\(^1\) Pausan. vi. 3. 3; viii. 29. 4.

\(^5\) Strabo (viii. p. 366) blames Euripides for calling Messēnē an inland country; but the poet seems to have been quite correct in doing so.
stitution of the long-exiled Messenians, and the amputation of the fertile western half of Laconia, for their benefit, by Epameinondas,—imparts to these proceedings an immediate decisiveness of effect which does not properly belong to them: as if the Spartans had become at once possessed of all Laconia, and the Messenians of all Messenia; Pausanias, too, speaks as if the Arcadians collectively had assisted and allied themselves with Kresphontès. This is the general spirit which pervades his account, though the particular facts, in so far as we find any such, do not always harmonise with it. Now we are ignorant of the pre-existing divisions of the country either east or west of Mount Taygetus, at the time when the Dorians invaded it. But to treat the one and the other as integral kingdoms, handed over at once to two Dorian leaders, is an illusion borrowed from the old legend, from the historicising fancies of Ephorus, and from the fact that in the well-known times this whole territory came to be really united under the Spartan power.

At what date the Dorian settlements at Sparta and Stenyklérus were effected we have no means of determining. Yet that there existed between them in the earliest times a degree of fraternity which did not prevail between Lacedæmon and Argos, we may fairly presume from the common temple, with joint religious sacrifices, of Artemis Liannatis (or Artemis on the Marsh) erected on the confines of Messenia and Laconia. Our first view of the two, at all approaching to distinctness,
seems to date from a period about half a century earlier than the first Olympiad (776 B.C.),—about the reign of king Téléklus of the Eurystheneid or Agid line, and the introduction of the Lykurgean discipline. Téléklus stands in the list as the eighth king dating from Eurysthenes. But how many of the seven kings before him are to be considered as real persons—or how much, out of the brief warlike expeditions ascribed to them, is to be treated as authentic history—I pretend not to define.

The earliest determinable event in the internal history of Sparta is the introduction of the Lykurgean discipline; the earliest external events are the conquest of Amykla, Pharis, and Geronthrae, effected by king Téléklus, and the first quarrel with the Messenians, in which that prince was slain. When we come to see how deplorably great was the confusion and ignorance which reigned with reference to a matter so pre-eminently important as Lykurgus and his legislation, we shall not be inclined to think that facts much less important, and belonging to an earlier epoch, can have been handed down upon any good authority. And in like manner, when we learn that Amykla, Pharis, and Geronthrae (all south of Sparta, and the first only two and a half miles distant from that city) were independent of the Spartans until the reign of Téléklus, we shall require some decisive testimony before we can believe that a community, so small and so hemmed in as Sparta must then have been, had in earlier times undertaken expeditions against Helos on the sea-coast, against Kleitor on the extreme northern side of Arcadia, against the Kynu-
rians, or against the Argeians. If Helos and Ky- 
nuria were conquered by these early kings, it ap-
ppears that they had to be conquered a second time 
by kings succeeding Téléklus. It would be more 
natural that we should hear when and how they 
conquered the places nearer to them,—Sellasia, or 
Belemina, the valley of the Ænus or the upper 
valley of the Eurotas. But these seem to be 
assumed as matters of course; the proceedings 
ascribed to the early Spartan kings are such only 
as might beseech the palmy days when Sparta was 
undisputed mistress of all Laconia.

The succession of Messenian kings, beginning 
with Kresphontés, the Herakleid brother, and con-
tinuing from father to son,—Æpytus, Glaukus, 
Isthnius, Dotadas, Subotas, Phintas, the last being 
contemporary with Téléklus,—is still less marked 
by incident than that of the early Spartan kings. 
It is said that the reign of Kresphontés was troubled, 
and himself ultimately slain by mutinies among 
his subjects: Æpytus, then a youth, having escaped 
into Arcadia, was afterwards restored to the throne 
by the Arcadians, Spartans, and Argeians. From 
Æpytus the Messenian line of kings are stated to 
have been denominated Æpytids in preference to 
Herakleids—which affords another proof of their 
imtimate connection with the Arcadians, since 
Æpytus was a very ancient name in Arcadian be-
roic antiquity.

1 Pausan. iv. 3, 5-6.
2 Homer, Iliad, ii. 694.—
3 ὁ Ἐπτής Ἀρκαδὸς, ὁ Ἐπτῆς Ἐλλήνης ἄριστα πέτρας, Ἀλκευδος εὐμεταφθαίνει.
Schol. ad loc. οὐ Ἀλκευδος ἐπεικοινεῖται ἄριστα, Ἀρκαδὸς τῷ γίγνεσ.
There is considerable resemblance between the alleged behaviour of Kresphontès on first settling at Stenyklérus, and that of Eurysthenès and Proklès at Sparta—so far as we gather from statements, alike meagre and uncertified, resting on the authority of Ephorus. Both are said to have tried to place the pre-existing inhabitants of the country on a level with their own Dorian bands; both provoked discontents and incurred obloquy, with their contemporaries as well as with posterity, by the attempt; nor did either permanently succeed. Kresphontès was forced to concentrate all his Dorians in Stenyklérus, while after all, the discontents ended in his violent death. And Agis, the son of Eurysthenès, is said to have reversed all the liberal tentatives of his father; so as to bring the whole of Laconia into subjection and dependence on the Dorians at Sparta, with the single exception of Amyklæ. So odious to the Spartan Dorians was the conduct of Eurysthenès, that they refused to acknowledge him as their oikist, and conferred that honour upon Agis; the two lines of kings being called Agiads and Eurypontids, instead of Eurysthenids and Prokleids. We see in these

1 Compare the two citations from Ephorus, Strabo, viii. p. 361-365. Unfortunately a portion of the latter citation is irretrievably mutilated in the text: O. Müller (History of the Dorians, Book i. chap. v. 13) has proposed an ingenious conjecture, which however cannot be considered as trustworthy. Grosskurth, the German translator, usually skilful in these restorations, leaves the passage untouched.

For a new colouring of the death of Kresphontès, adjusted by Isokrates so as to suit the purpose of the address which he puts into the mouth of Archidamus king of Sparta, see the discourse in his works which passes under that name (Or. iv. p. 120-123). Isokrates says that the Messenian Dorians slew Kresphontès, whose children fled as sep
statements the same tone of mind as that which pervades the Panathenaic oration of Isokratés; the master of Ephorus,—the facts of an unknown period so coloured as to suit an idéal of haughty Dorian exclusiveness.

Again, as Eurysthenés and Proklês appear, in the picture of Ephorus, to carry their authority at once over the whole of Laconia, so too does Kresphontês over the whole of Messenia,—over the entire south-western region of Peloponnesus, westward of Mount Taygetus and Cape Tænarus, and southward of the river Neda. He sends an envoy to Pylus and Rhium, the western and southern portions of the south-western promontory of Peloponnesus, treating the entire territory as if it were one sovereignty, and inviting the inhabitants to submit under equal laws¹. But it has already been

plants to Sparta, imploring revenge for the death of their father, and surrendering the territory to the Spartans. The Delphian god advised the latter to accept the tender, and they accordingly attacked the Messenians, avenged Kresphontês, and appropriated the territory.

Isokratés always starts from the basis of the old legend,—the triple Dorian conquest made all at once: compare Panathenaic, Or. vii. p. 270—287.

¹ Ephorus ap. Strabo, viii. p. 361. Dr. Thirwall observes (Hist. of Greece, ch. vii. p. 300, 2nd edit.), "The Messenian Pylus seems long to have retained its independence, and to have been occupied for several centuries by one branch of the family of Nelus; for descendants of Nestor are mentioned as allies of the Messenians in their struggle with Sparta in the latter half of the seventh century B.C."

For this assertion Dr. Thirwall cites Strabo (viii. p. 355). I agree with him as to the matter of fact; I see no proof that the Dorians of Sternyklérous ever ruled over what is called the Messenian Pylus; for, of course, if they did not rule over it before the second Messenian war, they never acquired it at all. But on reference to the passage in Strabo, it will not be found to prove anything to the point; for Strabo is speaking, not of the Messenian Pylus, but of the Triphylium Pylus: he takes pains to show that Nestor had nothing to do with the Messenian Pylus.
observed, that this supposed oneness and indivisibility is not less uncertified in regard to Messenia than in regard to Laconia. How large a proportion of the former territory these kings of Stenyklērōs may have ruled, we have no means of determining, but there were certainly portions of it which they did not rule—not merely during the reign of Teleclus at Sparta, but still later, during the first Messenian war. For not only we are informed that Teleclus established three townships, Poieessa, Echeiae 1, and Tragium, near the Messenian Gulf and on the course of the river Nedu, but we read also a farther matter of evidence in the roll of Olympic victors. Every competitor for the prize at one of these great festivals was always entered as member of some autonomous Hellenic community, which constituted his title to approach the lists; if successful, he was proclaimed with the name of the community to which he belonged. Now during the first ten Olympiads seven winners are proclaimed as Messenians; in the eleventh Olympiad we find the name of Oxythemis Korōneus,—Oxythemis, not of Korōnea in Bœotia, but of Korōné in the western bend of the Messenian Gulf 2, some miles on the right bank of the

—Nευροκατ ἄτροπος means the inhabitants of Triphylia near Leptum: compare p. 350.

1 Strabo, vii. p. 360. Concerning the situation of Korōné in the Messenian Gulf, see Pausanias, iv. 34. 2; Strabo, viii. p. 361; and the observations of Colonel Leake, Travels in Morea, ch. x. vol. i. p. 439–440. He places it near the modern Petalihti, seemingly on good grounds.

2 See Mr. Clinton's Chronological Tables for the year 732 B.C.: O. Müller (in the Chronological Table subjoined to his history of the Dorians) calls this victor, Oxythemis of Korōnea, in Bœotia. But this is inadmissible, on two grounds: 1. The occurrence of a Bœotian com-
Pamisus, and a considerable distance to the north of the modern Coron. Now if Korônë had then been comprehended in Messenia, Oxythemia would have been proclaimed as a Messenian like the seven

petitor in that early day at the Olympic games. The first eleven victors (I put aside Oxythemia, because he is the subject of the argument) are all from western and southern Peloponnesus; then come victors from Corinth, Megara, and Epidaurus; then from Athens; there is one from Thasos in the 41st Olympiad. I infer from hence that the celebrity and frequentation of the Olympic games increased only by degrees, and had not got beyond Peloponnesus in the eighth century B.C.

2. The name Korônë, Korónë, is the proper and formal title for a citizen of Korônë, not for a citizen of Korônë: the latter styles himself Korónës. The ethical name Korónës as belonging to Korônë in Bocotia is placed beyond doubt by several inscriptions in Bocotia's collection; especially No. 1583, in which a citizen of that town is proclaimed as victor at the festival of the Charitesia at Orchomenus. Compare Nos. 1587-1589, in which the same ethical name occurs.

The Bocotian Inscriptions attest in like manner the prevalence of the same etymological law in forming ethical names, for the towns near Korônë: thus, Chëronës makes X xorës; Lebadeia, Archaiax; Elateia, "Elarës or "Elarës. The Inscriptions afford evidence perfectly decisive as to the ethical title under which a citizen of Korônë in Bocotia would have caused himself to be entered and proclaimed at the Olympic games; better than the evidence of Herodotus and Thucydides, who both call them Korónës (Herodot. vi. 79; Thucyd. iv. 83). Polybius agrees with the Inscription, and speaks of the Korónës, Archaiax, X xorës (xxvii. 1). O. Müller himself admits in another place (Orchomenus, p. 480) that the proper ethical name is Korónës. The reading of Strabo (ix. p. 441) is not trustworthy; see Groskurd ad loc.; compare Steph. Byz. Korónës and Korónë.

In regard to the formation of ethical names, it seems the general rule, that a town ending in ë or ë preceded by a consonant had its ethical derivative in ëor, such as S ënës, T ënës, K ënës, P ënës, A ënës; while names ending in ë ë or ë ë preceded by a consonant have their ethnics in ë ë, as Arënës, Zënës, Aënës, Ænës (the recent cities thus founded by the successors of Alexander are perhaps the best evidences that can be taken of the analogies of the language). Melënës, Melënës, in addition to the Bocotian names of towns above quoted. There is however great irregularity in particular cases, and the number of towns called by the same name created an anxiety to vary the ethnics for each; see Stephan. Byz. v. "Hrënës.
winners who preceded him; and the fact of his being proclaimed as a Korónaean proves that Koróne was then an independent community, not under the dominion of the Dorians of Stenyklérus. It seems clear therefore that the latter did not reign over the whole territory commonly known as Messenia, though we are unable to assign the proportion of it which they actually possessed.

The Olympic festival, in its origin doubtless a privilege of the neighbouring Pisatans, seems to have derived its great and gradually expanding importance from the Ætolo-Eleian settlement in Peloponnesus, combined with the Dorians of Laconia and Messenia. Lykurgus of Sparta and Iphitus of Elis are alleged to have joined their efforts for the purpose of establishing both the sanctity of the Olympic trace and the inviolability of the Eleian territory. Hence, though this tale is not to be construed as matter of fact, we may see that the Lacedaemonians regarded the Olympic games as a portion of their own antiquities. Moreover, it is certain both that the dignity of the festival increased simultaneously with their ascendency, and that their peculiar fashions were very early introduced into the practice of the Olympic competitors. Probably the three bands of co-operating invaders, Ætolians and Spartan and Messenian Dorians, may have adopted this festival as a periodical renovation of mutual union and fraternity;

1 The entire nakedness of the competitors at Olympia was adopted from the Spartan practice, seemingly in the 14th Olympiad, as is testified by the epigram on Orestes the Megarian. Previous to that period, the Olympic competitors had διολόραν τε το αίδιον (Timaeus 1. 6).
from which cause the games became an attractive centre for the western portion of Peloponnesus, before they were much frequented by people from the eastern, or still more from extra-Peloponnesian Hellas. For it cannot be altogether accidental, when we read the names of the first twelve proclaimed Olympic victors (occupying nearly half a century from 776 B.C. downwards), to find that seven of them are Messenians, three Eleians, one from Dyme in Achaia, and one from Korone; while after the twelfth Olympiad, Corinthians, and Megarians and Epidaurians begin to occur; later still, extra-Peloponnesian victors. We may reasonably infer from hence that the Olympic ceremonies were at this early period chiefly frequented by visitors and competitors from the western regions of Peloponnesus, and that the affluence to them from the more distant parts of the Hellenic world did not become considerable until the first Messenian war had closed.

Having thus set forth the conjectures, to which our very scanty knowledge points, respecting the first establishment of the Ætolian and Dorian settlements in Elis, Laconia, and Messenia, connected as they are with the steadily-increasing dignity and frequentation of the Olympic festival, I proceed in the next chapter to that memorable circumstance which both determined the character, and brought about the political ascendancy, of the Spartans separately: I mean the laws and discipline of Lykurgus.

Of the pre-existing inhabitants of Laconia and Messenia, whom we are accustomed to call Acha-
ans and Pylians, so little is known, that we cannot at all measure the difference between them and their Dorian invaders, either in dialect, in habits, or in intelligence. There appear no traces of any difference of dialect among the various parts of the population of Laconia: the Messenian allies of Athens, in the Peloponnesian war, speak the same dialect as the Helots, and the same also as the Ambrakiotic colonists from Corinth: all Doric. Nor are we to suppose that the Doric dialect was at all peculiar to the people called Dorians. As far as can be made out by the evidence of Inscriptions, it seems to have been the dialect of the Phokians, Delphiens, Lokrians, Ætolians, and Achæans of Phthiôtis: with respect to the latter, the Inscriptions of Thaumaki in Achæa Phthiôtis afford a proof the more curious and the more cogent of native dialect, because the Phthiôtès were both immediate neighbours and subjects of the Thessalians, who spoke a variety of the Æolic. So too, within Peloponnesus, we find evidences of Doric dialect among the Achæans in the north of Peloponnesus—the Dryopic inhabitants of Hermioné—and the Eleuthero-Lacones, or Laconian townships (compounded of Perieiki and Helots), emancipated by the Romans in the second century B.C. Concerning the speech of that population whom the invading Dorians found in Laconia, we have no means of judging: the presumption would rather be that it

1 Thucyd. iii. 112; iv. 41: compare vii. 44, about the sameness of sound of the war-shout or pæna, as delivered by all the different Dorians.
did not differ materially from the Doric. Thucydidès designates the Corinthians, whom the invading Dorians attacked from the hill Solygeus, as being Æolians, and Strabo speaks both of the Achaean and Æolic nations and of the Æolic dialect as having been originally preponderant in Peloponnesus. But we do not readily see what means of information either of these authors possessed respecting the speech of a time which must have been four centuries anterior even to Thucydidès.

Of that which is called the Æolic dialect there are three marked and distinguishable varieties—the Lesbian, the Thessalian, and the Boeotian; the Thessalian forming a mean term between the other two. Ahrens has shown that the ancient grammatical critics are accustomed to affirm peculiarities, as belonging to the Æolic dialect generally, which in truth belong only to the Lesbian variety of it, or to the poems of Alkæus and Sappho, which these critics attentively studied. Lesbian Æolic, Thessalian Æolic, and Boeotian Æolic, are all different: and if, abstracting from these differences, we confine our attention to that which is common to all three, we shall find little to distinguish this abstract Æolic from the abstract Doric, or that which is common to the many varieties of the Doric dialect.

1 Thucyd. i. 42; Strefi, viii. p. 338.
2 See the valuable work of Ahrens, De Dialecto Æolico, sect. 51. He observes, in reference to the Lesbian, Thessalian, and Boeotian dialects: "Tres illos dialectos, quos optimum jure Æolici vocari videntur—quos, qui illis unum, Æoles crunt—comparantium mirum habere opus est, quod Aeneidam Æolum et Boeotumum dialecti tantum inter se distant, quantum vis ab aliis quavis Graecae linguae dialecto." (He then enumerates many points of difference.) "Contrà tot tantàque differentias paucas reperiantur, neque faver se levii, quam atquem dialecto,
two are sisters, presenting both of them more or less the Latin side of the Greek language, while the relationship of either of them to the Attic and Ionic is more distant. Now it seems that (putting aside Attica) the speech of all Greece, from Perrhaebia and Mount Olympus to Cape Malea and Cape Akritas, consisted of different varieties either of the Doric or of the Æolic dialect; this being true (as far as we are able to judge) not less of the aboriginal Arcadians than of the rest. The Laconian dialect contained more specialties of its own, and approached nearer to the Æolic, and to the Eleian, than any other variety of the Dorian; it stands at the extreme of what has been classified as the strict Dorian—that is, the farthest removed from Ionic and Attic. The Kretan towns manifest also a strict Dorism; as well as the Lacedæmonian colony of Tarentum, and seemingly most of the Italic Greeks, though some of them are called Achaean colonies. Most of the other varieties of the Doric dialect (Phokian, Lokrian, Delphian, Achaean of Phthiotis) exhibit a form departing less


\[\text{quam simul Dorico, communem sint}. \text{Vides hic comparatis tantum interesse inter utraque dialectum, ut habitaro facta, at Æolos Boeotiorum magnis cum Æolibus Acheiis conjuncti fuerint, quam qui Æolici nivos quodam etiam Saxones vocantur ex antiquis Saxonicis. Nilolomius Thessalicae dialecto in comparationum voce, diversissima quae videntur aliqua vinculo conjungere lect. Quomvs enim pumas de cùm comperta habesmus, hoc tamen certum est, alia Thessalis cum Lesbis, alia cum sola Boeotis communia esse.}^1\] (P. 222-223.)

1 About the Æolic dialect of the Perrhaebians see Stephanus Byz. v. Tarros, and ap. Eastath ad Iliad. p. 335.

The Attic judgement in comparing these different varieties of Greek speech is expressed in the story of a man being asked—Whether the Boeotians or the Thessalians were most of barbarians? He answered—The Eleians (Eastath ad Iliad. p. 304):
widely from the Ionic and Attic: Argos and the towns in the Argolic peninsula seem to form a stepping-stone between the two.

These positions represent the little which can be known respecting those varieties of Grecian speech which are not known to us by written works. The little presumption which can be raised upon them favours the belief that the Dorian invaders of Laconia and Messenia found there a dialect little different from that which they brought with them—a conclusion which it is the more necessary to state distinctly, since the work of O. Müller has caused an exaggerated estimate to be formed of the distinctive peculiarities whereby Dorism was parted off from the rest of Hellas.
CHAPTER VI.

LAWS AND DISCIPLINE OF LYKURGUS AT SPARTA.

Plutarch begins his biography of Lykurgus with the following ominous words:—

"Concerning the lawgiver Lycurgus we can assert absolutely nothing which is not controverted: there are different stories in respect to his birth, his travels, his death, and also his mode of proceeding, political as well as legislative: least of all is the time in which he lived agreed upon."

And this exordium is but too well borne out by the unsatisfactory nature of the accounts which we read, not only in Plutarch himself, but in those other authors out of whom we are obliged to make up our idea of the memorable Lykurgean system. If we examine the sources from which Plutarch's life of Lykurgus is deduced, it will appear that—excepting the poets Alkman, Tyrtaeus, and Simonides, from whom he has borrowed less than we could have wished—he has no authorities older than Xenophon and Plato: Aristotle is cited several times, and is unquestionably the best of his witnesses, but the greater number of them belong to the century subsequent to that philosopher. Neither Herodotus nor Ephorus are named, though the former furnishes some brief but interesting particulars—and the latter also (as far as we can judge
from the fragments remaining) entered at large into the proceedings of the Spartan lawgiver.

Lykurgus is described by Herodotus as uncle and guardian to king Labótas, of the Eurystheneid or Agid line of Spartan kings; and this would place him, according to the received chronology, about 220 years before the first recorded Olympiad (about B.C. 996). All the other accounts, on the contrary, seem to represent him as a younger brother, belonging to the other or Prokletid line of Spartan kings, though they do not perfectly agree respecting his parentage. While Simonidês stated him to be the son of Prytanis, Dieutychidas described him as grandson of Prytanis, son of Eumenes, brother of Polydektês, and uncle as well as guardian to Charilaus—thus making him eleventh in descent from Héraklês. This latter account was adopted by Aristotle, coinciding, according to the received chronology, with the date of Iphitus the Eleian, and the first celebration of the Olympic games by Lykurgus and Iphitus conjointly, which Aristotle

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1 See Heeren, Dissertatio de Foutibus Plutarchi, p. 19-25.
2 Herodot. i. 65. Moreover, Herodotus gives this as the statement of the Laedæmonians themselves.
3 Plutarch, Lykurg. c. 1. According to Dionys. Halik. (Ant. Rom. ii. 49) Lykurgus was uncle, not son, of Eumenes.
4 Aristotle considers Lykurgus as guardian of Charilaus (Polit. ii. 7, 1): compare v. 10, 3. See O. Müller (Hist. of Dorians, i. 7, 3).
5 Phleps also adds Kleonides of Pisa (De Olympia ap. Meursii Opp. vii. p. 128). It appears that there existed a audit at Olympia, upon which the formula of the Olympic truce was inscribed together with the names of Iphitus and Lykurgus as the joint authors and proclaimers of it. Aristotle believed this to be genuine, and accepted it as an evidence of the fact which it professed to certify: and O. Müller is also disposed to admit it as genuine—that is, as contemporaneous with the times to which it professes to relate. I came to a different conclusion.
accepted as a fact. Lykurgus, on the hypothesis here mentioned, would stand about B.C. 880, a century before the recorded Olympiads. Eratosthenès and Apollodorus placed him "not a few years earlier than the first Olympiad." If they meant hereby the epoch commonly assigned as the Olympiad of Iphitus, their date would coincide pretty nearly with that of Herodotus: if on the other hand they meant the first recorded Olympiad (B.C. 776), they would be found not much removed from the opinion of Aristotle. An unequivocal proof of the inextricable confusion in ancient times respecting the epoch of the great Spartan law-giver is indirectly afforded by Timaeus, who supposed that there had existed two persons named Lykurgus, and that the acts of both had been ascribed to one. It is plain from hence that there was no certainty attainable, even in the third century before the Christian era, respecting the date or parentage of Lykurgus.

Thucydidès, without mentioning the name of Lykurgus, informs us that it was "400 years and
somewhat more anterior to the close of the Peloponnesian war, when the Spartans emerged from their previous state of desperate internal disorder, and entered upon "their present polity." We may fairly presume that this alludes to the Lykurgian discipline and constitution, which Thucydides must thus have conceived as introduced about a.e. 830-820—coinciding with something near the commencement of the reign of king Téléklus. In so far as it is possible to form an opinion, amidst evidence at once so scanty and so discordant, I incline to adopt the opinion of Thucydides as to the time at which the Lykurgian constitution was introduced at Sparta. The state of "economy" and good order which that constitution brought about—combined with the healing of great previous internal sedition, which had tended much to enfeeble them—is represented (and with great plausibility) as the grand cause of the victorious career beginning with king Téléklus, the conqueror of Amyklæ, Pharis, and Geronthrae. Therefore it would seem, in the absence of better evidence, that a date, connecting the fresh stimulus of the new discipline with the reign of Téléklus, is more probable than any epoch either later or earlier.

1 Thucyd. i. 18.

Mr. Clinton fixes the legislation of Lykurgus, "in conformity with Thucydides," at about 817 B.C., and his regency at 852 B.C., about thirty-five years previous (Fasti Hellen. v. i. e. 7. p. 141): he also places the Olympic of Iphitus a.e. 828 (P. H. vol. ii. p. 410; Appendix. 29).

In that chapter, Mr. Clinton collates and discusses the various statements respecting the date of Lykurgus; compare also Larcher ad Herodot. i. 67, and Chronologia, p. 426-432.

The differences in these statements must, after all, be taken as they stand, for they cannot be reconciled except by the help of arbitrary
O. Müller¹, after glancing at the strange and improbable circumstances handed down to us respecting Lykurgus, observes "that we have absolutely no account of him as an individual person." This remark is perfectly just; but another remark made by the same distinguished author, respecting the Lykurgean system of laws, appears to me erroneous—and requires more especially to be noticed, inasmuch as the corollaries deduced from it pervade a large portion of his valuable History of the Doriens.

suppositions, which only mislead us by producing a show of agreement where there is none in reality. I agree with Mr. Clinton in thinking that the assertion of Thucydides is here to be taken as the best authority. But I altogether dissent from the proceeding which he (in common with Larcher, Wesseling, Sir John Marsham and others) employs with regard to the passage of Herodotus where that author calls Lykurgus the guardian and uncle of Labōta (of the Eurysthenid line). Mr. Clinton says—"From the notoriosity of the fact that Lycurgus was ascribèd to the other house (the Prokheidæ), it is manifest that the passage must be corrupted" (p. 144); and he then goes on to correct the text of Herodotus, agreeably to the proposition of Sir J. Marsham.

This proceeding seems to me imadmissible. The text of Herodotus reads perfectly well, and is not contradicted by anything to be found elsewhere in Herodotus himself; moreover, we have here a positive guarantee of its accuracy, for Mr. Clinton himself admits that it stood in the days of Pausanias just as we now read it (Pausan. iii. 2. 3). By what right then do we alter it? or what do we gain by doing so? Our only right to do so, is, the assumption that there must have been uniformity of belief, and means of satisfactory ascertainment, (respecting facts and persons of the ninth and tenth centuries before the Christian era,) existing among Greeks of the fifth and succeeding centuries; an assumption which I hold to be incorrect. And all we gain is, an illusory unanimity produced by gratuitously putting words into the mouth of one of our witnesses.

If we can prove Herodotus to have been erroneously informed, it is right to do so; but we have no ground for altering his deposition. It affords a clear proof that there were very different stories as to the mere question, to which of the two lines of Herakleids the Spartan laws give belonged—and that there was an enormous difference as to the time in which he lived.

¹ History of the Dorians, t. 7. 6.
He affirms that the laws of Sparta were considered the true Doric institutions, and that their origin was identical with that of the people: Sparta is, in his view, the full type of Dorian principles, tendencies, and sentiments—and is so treated throughout his entire work. But such an opinion is at once gratuitous (for the passage of Pindar cited in support of it is scarcely of any value) and contrary to the whole tenor of ancient evidence. The institutions of Sparta were not Dorian, but peculiar to herself; distinguishing her not less from Argos, Corinth, Megara, Epidaurus, Sikyon, Korkyra, or Knidos, than from Athens or Thebes. Krête was the only other portion of Greece in which there prevailed institutions in many respects analogous, yet still dissimilar in those two attributes which form the real mark and pinch of Spartan legislation, viz. the military discipline and the rigorous private training. There were doubtless Dorians in Krête, but we have no proof that these peculiar institutions belonged to them more than to the other inhabitants of the island. That the Spartans had an original organization and tendencies, common to them with the other Dorians, we may readily concede; but the Lykourgean constitution impressed upon them a peculiar tendency which took them out of the general march, and rendered them the least fit of all states


2 Among the many other evidences to this point, see Aristotle, Ethic. x. 9; Xenophon, Republ. Laced. 10, 8.
to be cited as an example of the class-attributes of Dorism. One of the essential causes, which made the Spartan institutions work so impressively upon the Grecian mind, was their perfect singularity, combined with the conspicuous ascendancy of the state in which they were manifested; while the Kretan communities, even admitting their partial resemblance (which was chiefly in the institution of the Syssitia, and was altogether more in form than in spirit) to Sparta, were too insignificant to attract notice except from speculative observers. It is therefore a mistake on the part of O. Müller, to treat Sparta as the type and representative of Dorians generally, and very many of the positions advanced in his History of the Dorians require to be modified when this mistake is pointed out.

The first capital fact to notice respecting the institutions ascribed to Lykurgus, is the very early period at which they had their commencement: it seems impossible to place this period later than 825 B.C. We do not find, nor have we a right to expect, trustworthy history in reference to events so early. If we have one foot on historical ground, inasmuch as the institutions themselves are real—the other foot still floats in the unfaithful region of myth, when we strive to comprehend the generating causes: the mist yet prevails which hinders us from distinguishing between the god and the man. The light in which Lykurgus appeared, to an intelligent Greek of the fifth century before the Christian æra, is so clearly, yet briefly depicted, in the following passage of Herodotus, that I cannot do better than translate it:
"In the very early times (Herodotus observes) the Spartans were among themselves the most lawless of all Greeks, and unapproachable by foreigners. Their transition to good legal order took place in the following manner. When Lycurgus, a Spartan of consideration, visited Delphi to consult the oracle, the instant that he entered the sanctuary, the Pythian priestess exclaimed,—

"Thou art come, Lycurgus, to my fat shrine, beloved by Zeus and by all the Olympic gods. Is it as God or as man that I am to address thee in the spirit? I hesitate—and yet, Lycurgus, I incline more to call thee a god."

(So spake the Pythian priestess.) "Moreover, in addition to these words, some affirm that the Pythia revealed to him the order of things now established among the Spartans. But the Lacedaeomians themselves say, that Lycurgus, when guardian of his nephew Labôtas king of the Spartans, introduced these institutions out of Krete. No sooner had he obtained this guardianship, than he changed all the institutions into their present form, and took security against any transgression of it. Next, he constituted the military divisions, the Enômoties and the Triakads, as well as the Syssitia or public mess: he also, farther, appointed the ephors and the senate. By this means the Spartans passed from bad to good order: to Lycurgus, after his death, they built a temple, and they still worship him reverentially. And as might naturally be expected in a productive soil, and with no inconsiderable numbers of men, they immediately took a start forward, and flourished so much that they could
not be content to remain tranquil within their own limits," &c.

Such is our oldest statement (coming from Herodotus) respecting Lykurgus, ascribing to him that entire order of things which the writer witnessed at Sparta. Thucydides also, though not mentioning Lykurgus, agrees in stating that the system among the Lacedaemonians as he saw it had been adopted by them four centuries previously,—had rescued them from the most intolerable disorders, and had immediately conducted them to prosperity and success. Hellanikus, whose writings a little preceded those of Herodotus, not only did not (any more than Thucydides) make mention of Lykurgus, but can hardly be thought to have attached any importance to the name; since he attributed the constitution of Sparta to the first kings, Eurysthenes and Prokles.

But those later writers, from whom Plutarch chiefly compiled his biography, profess to be far better informed on the subject of Lykurgus, and enter more into detail. His father, we are told, was assassinated during the preceding state of lawlessness; his elder brother Polydektès died early, leaving a pregnant widow, who made to Lykurgus propositions that he should marry her and become king. But Lykurgus, repudiating the offer with indignation, awaited the birth of his young nephew Charilaus, held up the child publicly in the agora as the future king of Sparta, and immediately relinquished the authority which he had provisionally exercised. However, the widow and her brother

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*Herodot. i. 65-66; Thucyd. i. 18.*  
*Strabo, vii. p. 363.*
Leonidas raised slanderous accusations against him, of designs menacing to the life of the infant king,—accusations which he deemed it proper to obviate by a temporary absence. Accordingly he left Sparta and went to Krête, where he studied the polity and customs of the different cities; next he visited Ionia and Egypt, and (as some authors affirmed) Libya, Iberia, and even India. While in Ionia, he is reported to have obtained from the descendants of Kreophylus a copy of the Homeric poems, which had not up to that time become known in Peloponnesus; there were not wanting authors, indeed, who said that he had conversed with Homer himself.¹

Meanwhile the young king Charilaus grew up and assumed the sceptre, as representing the Prokleid or Eurypontid family. But the reins of government had become more relaxed, and the disorders worse than ever, when Lykurgus returned. Finding that the two kings as well as the people were weary of so disastrous a condition, he set himself to the task of applying a corrective, and with this view consulted the Delphian oracle; from which he received strong assurances of the divine encouragement, together with one or more special injunctions (the primitive Rhetra of the constitution) which he brought with him to Sparta². He then suddenly presented himself in the agora, with

¹ Pintarch, Lykurg. 3, 4, 5.
² For an instructive review of the text as well as the meaning of this ancient Rhetra, see Urchac, Ueber die Lyurgischen Rhetrae, published since the first edition of this History. His refutation of the rash changes of Göttling seems to me complete; but his own conjectures are not all equally plausible; nor can I subscribe to his explanation of ἐπικαρέσθαι.
thirty of the most distinguished Spartans, all in arms, as his guards and partisans. King Charilaus, though at first terrified, when informed of the designs of his uncle, stood forward willingly to second them; while the bulk of the Spartans respectfully submitted to the venerable Herakleid who came as reformer and missionary from Delphi. Such were the steps by which Lykurgus acquired his ascendancy: we have now to see how he employed it.

His first proceeding, pursuant to the Rhetra or Compact brought from Delphi, was to constitute the Spartan senate, consisting of twenty-eight ancient men; making an aggregate of thirty in conjunction with the two kings, who sat and voted in it. With this were combined periodical assemblies of the Spartan people, in the open air, between the river Knakion and the bridge Babyka. Yet no discussion was permitted in these assemblies,—their functions were limited to the simple acceptance or rejection of that which had previously been determined in the senate. Such was the Spartan political

1 Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 5-6. Hermippus, the scholar of Aristotle, professed to give the names of twenty out of these thirty devoted partisans.

There was however a different story, which represented that Lykurgus, on his return from his travels, found Charilaus governing like a despot (Herod. Pont. c. 2).

1 The words of the old Rhetra—Δής Ἕλληνες καὶ Ἀθηναῖς Ἕλληνες ἰδρῶν ἰδακτορεῖς, φιλῶς ἐφεδράσκοντη, καὶ ἐδίκη ἐκδίκαιον, ἐπικούρευσαν, γενοστοιχίας τοι ἀρχομένας, καταπτίθησαν, ἀριστήρας ἐκ ἄρα ἀπελλαγαίν μετοιχῆς ἐν Ελευσίσσα, καὶ ἐκαστίαν, οὔτε συνθέτοι ἐκ ταύτῃ ἀφιστράθην ἄρας & ἔγην χαλάρως καὶ ὀρφεὺς. (Plutarch, ib.)

The reading ἀριστήρας (last word but three) is that of Corny's edition; other readings proposed are συνθέτοι, ἐκαστία, ἀπελλαγαίν, &c. The MSS. however are incurably corrupt, and none of the conjectures can be pronounced certain. The Rhetra contains various remarkable archaisms,—ἀπελλαγαίν—

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constitution as fixed by Lykurgus; but a century afterwards (so Plutarch's account runs), under the kings Polydorus and Theopompus, two important alterations were made. A rider was then attached ἀφίεσθαι,—the latter word in the sense of putting the question for decision, corresponding to the function of the Ἀποστάσεις at Knidos (Plutarch, Quest. Graec. v. 4; see Schneider, Lexicon, ad loc.).

O. Müller connects ῥησαταὶ with ἔσθαι, and lays it down that there were thirty Obes at Sparta; I rather agree with those critics who place the comma after ἔσθαι, and refer the number thirty to the senate. Erichsen, in his Dissertation Uber Die Lykurgisch. Rhetra (published in the Rheinisches Museum for 1847, p. 204), introduces the word προσώπους after ῥησαταὶ; which seems a just conjecture, when we look to the addition afterwards made by Theopompus. The statements of Müller about the Obes seem to me to rest on no authority.

The word Rhetra means a solemn compact, either originallyumann from, or subsequently sanctioned by the gods, who are always parties to such agreements; see the old Treaty between the Eleians and Heraeans.—A ἡφθανον, between the two,—commemorated in the valuable inscription still preserved,—as ancient, according to Boëthius, as Olymp. 45-60 (Boëthius, Corp. Inscript. No. II, p. 29, Part I.). The words of Tyrtæus imply such a compact between contracting parties: first the kings, then the senate, lastly the people—καὶ τῶν ἠφθανῶν ὅστις ἐστιν ῥῃσατημες ἐσφαίρει—where the participle last occurring applies not to the people alone, but to all the three. The Rhetra of Lykurgus emanated from the Delphian god; but the kings, senate, and people all bound themselves, both to each other and to the gods, to obey it. The explanations given of the phrase by Nitzsch and Schumann (in Dr. Thrupp's note, ch. viii. p. 334) seem to me less satisfactory than what appears in C. F. Hermann (Lehrbuch der Griech. Staatsalterthümer, s. 25).

Nitzsch (Hist. Homer. sect. xiv. p. 50-55) does not take sufficient account of the distinction between the meaning of ἠφθανον in the early and in the later times. In the time of the Ephor Εὐπρίας, or of Αἰγίς Ι., he is right in saying that ἠφθανον is equivalent to σέλευ–still however, with an idea of greater solemnity and unchangeability than is implied in the word σέλευ, analogous to what is understood by a fundamental or organic enactment in modern ideas. The old ideas, of a mandate from the Delphian god, and a compact between the kings and the citizens, which had once been connected with the word, gradually dropped away from it. There is no contradiction in Plutarch, therefore, such as that to which Nitzsch alludes (p. 54).

Kopstadt's Dissertation (p. 22, 30) touches on the same subject. I agree with Kopstadt (Disert. p. 28-30) in thinking it probable that
to the old Lykurgean Rhetra, by which it was provided that "in case the people decided crookedly, the senate with the kings should reverse their decisions"; while another change, perhaps intended as

Plutarch copied the words of the old Lykurgean constitutional Rhetra from the account given by Aristotle of the Spartan polity.

King Theodore probably brought from the Delphian oracle the important rider which he tacked to the mandate as originally brought by Lycurgus—al βασιλεὺς Θεοπομπός καὶ Πολιοδότης νῦν ἐπὶ τὴν ἐπήθαν τιμήθηκα τῆς φήμης σωθήκα. The authority of the oracle, together with their own influence, would enable them to get these words accepted by the people.

1 Al δὲ σεβάσται ὃ διάμορφος γάρ τιμά, τῶν προσφωνήσεως οὐξ ἁρχαγής ἀποστήθηκεν ὑπερεκπρέπειος. (Plutarch, ib.)

Plutarch tells us that the primitive Rhetra, anterior to this addition, specially enjoined the assembled citizens either to adopt or reject, without change, the Rhetra proposed by the kings and senate, and that the rider was introduced because the assembly had disobeyed this injunction, and adopted amendments of its own. It is this latter sense which he puts on the word σεβάσται. Ureitta (Usher Lyce. Rhetr. p. 232) and Nitsch (Hist. Homer. p. 54) follow him, and the latter even construes the epithet: Εὐδοκητός προτιμώντας ἀποστηθήσεως of Tyrtæus in a corresponding sense: he says, "Populus illis (rhetra) σεβάσται, i.e. nihil in nihilitate, suffragiis jubetur: nam lex eius Tyrtæus admontat, ut saque rerum—si populus regiosis: inhoras (i.e. non nisi ad sumum arbitrium immutatum) seepere voluerit, senatores et sucectores holocen lactum.

Now in the first place, it seems highly improbable that the primitive Rhetra, with its antique simplicity, would contain any such preconcerted speciality of restriction upon the competence of the assembly. That restriction received its formal commencement only from the rider annexed by king Theodore, which evidently betokens a previous dispute and refractory behaviour on the part of the assembly.

In the second place, the explanation which these authors give of the words σεβάσται and σεβάσται, is not conformable to the ancient Greek, as we find it in Homer and Hesiod; and these early analogies are the proper test, seeing that we are dealing with a very ancient document. In Hesiod, ἰδίς and σεβάσται are used in a sense which almost exactly corresponds to right and wrong (which words indeed in their primitive etymology may be traced back to the meaning of straight and crooked). See Hesiod, Opp. Di. 30, 192, 218, 221, 236, 239, 250, 262, 264; also Theogn. 97, and Fragm. 217, ed. Gétting; where the phrases are constantly repeated, ἰδίς δέοις, σεβαστά δέοις, σεβαστά μηδένα. There is also the remarkable expression, Opp. Di. 9, ἰδίς δέ ἐς ἰδίον σεβαστά τιμήσας v. 263, ἰδίος μέθος: also Homer, Iliad, xvi. 357. Of σεβάσται
a sort of compensation for this bridle on the popular assembly, introduced into the constitution a new executive Directory of five men, called the Ephors. This Board—annually chosen, by some capricious method the result of which could not well be foreseen, and open to be filled by every Spartan citizen,—either originally received, or gradually drew to itself, functions so extensive and commanding, in regard to internal administration and police, as to limit the authority of the kings to little more than the exclusive command of the military force. Herodotus was informed at Sparta that the ephors as well as the senate had been constituted by Lykurgus; but the authority of Aristotle, as well as the internal probability of the case, sanctions the belief that they were subsequently added.

If we judge by these analogies, we shall see that the words of Tyrtaeus, ἐκλήσις ὑπὲρος, mean "straightforward, honest, statutes or conventions"—not propositions adopted without change, as Nitsch supposes. And so the words ἐκλήσις κατὰ, mean, "adopt a wrong or dishonest determination"—not a determination different from what was proposed to them.

These words gave to the kings and senate power to cancel any decision of the public assembly which they disapproved. It retained only the power of refusing assent to some substantive propositions of the authorities, first of the kings and senate, afterwards of the ephors. And this limited power it seems always to have preserved.

Kopstadt explains well the expression ἐκλήσις, as the antithesis to the epithet of Tyrtaeus, ἐκλήσις ὑπὲρος (Dissert. sect. 15, p. 124).

1 Herod. i. 65; compare Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 7; Aristot. Pol. v. 9, 1 (where he gives the answer of king Theopompus).

Aristotle tells us that the ephors were chosen, but not how they were chosen; only that it was in some manner excessively puerile—σωθεσιάδος γεία ὅτι καλή (ii. 6, 16).

M. Barthélemy St. Hilaire, in his note to the passage of Aristotle, premises that they were of course chosen in the same manner as the senates; but there seems no sufficient ground in Aristotle to counte-
Taking the political constitution of Sparta ascribed to Lykurgus, it appears not to have differed materially from the rude organization exhibited in the Homeric poems, where we always find a council of chiefs or old men and occasional meetings of a listening agora. It is hard to suppose that the Spartan kings can ever have governed without some formalities of this sort; so that the innovation (if innovation there really was) ascribed to Lykurgus, must have consisted in some new details respecting the senate and the agora,—in fixing the number thirty, and the life-tenure of the former—and the special place of meeting of the latter as well as the extent of privilege which it was to exercise; consecrating the whole by the erection of the temples of Zeus Hellanios and Athene Hellania. The view of the subject presented by Plutarch as well as by Plato1, as if the senate were an entire novelty, does not consist with the pictures of the old epic. Hence we may more naturally imagine that the Lykurgean political constitution, apart from the archons who were afterwards tacked to it, presents only the old features of the heroic government of Greece, defined and regularised in a particular manner. The presence of two co-existent and co-ordinate kings, indeed, succeeding in hereditary descent and both belonging to the gens of

1 Kopstadl agrees in this supposition, that the number of the senate was probably not perceptibly fixed before the Lykurgean reforms (Dissert. ut sup. sect. 13, p. 109).

2 Plato, Legg. iii. p. 621; Plato, Epist. viii. p. 354, B.
Herakleids, is something peculiar to Sparta—the origin of which receives no other explanation than a reference to the twin sons of Aristodemos, Eurythénês and Proklês. These two primitive ancestors are a type of the two lines of Spartan kings; for they are said to have passed their lives in perpetual dissensions, which was the habitual state of the two contemporaneous kings at Sparta. While the co-existence of the pair of kings, equal in power and constantly thwarting each other, had often a baneful effect upon the course of public measures, it was nevertheless a security to the state against successful violence¹, ending in the establishment of a despotism, on the part of any ambitious individual among the regal line.

During five successive centuries of Spartan history, from Polydorus and Theopompus downward, no such violence was attempted by any of the kings², until the times of Agis III. and Kleomenes III. (240 B.C. to 220 B.C.) The importance of Greece had at this last-mentioned period irretrievably declined, and the independent political action which she once possessed had become subordinate to the more powerful force either of the Ætolian mountaineers (the rudest among her own sons) or to Epirotic, Macedonian, and Asiatic foreigners, preparatory to the final absorption by the Ro-

¹ Plato, Legg. iii. p. 69; Aristot. Poli. ii. 6, 20.
² The conspiracy of Parmenides, after the repulse of Xerxes, was against the liberty of combined Hellas, to constitute himself autocrat of Hellas under the Persian monarch, rather than against the established Laconianam government; though undoubtedly one portion of his project was to excite the Helots to revolt, and Aristotle treats him as specially aiming to put down the power of the Ephors (Poli. v. 8, 6) compare Thucyd. i. 128-131; Herodot. v. 321.
mans. But amongst all the Grecian states, Sparta had declined the most; her ascendancy was totally gone, and her peculiar training and discipline (to which she had chiefly owed it) had degenerated in every way. Under these untoward circumstances, two young kings, Agis and Kleomenès—the former a generous enthusiast, the latter more violent and ambitious—conceived the design of restoring the Lykurgean constitution in its supposed pristine purity, with the hope of reviving both the spirit of the people and the ascendancy of the state. But the Lykurgean constitution had been, even in the time of Xenophon, in part, an ideal not fully realised in practice—much less was it a reality in the days of Kleomenès and Agis; moreover it was an ideal which admitted of being coloured according to the fancy or feelings of those reformers who professed, and probably believed, that they were aiming at its genuine restoration. What the reforming kings found most in their way, was, the uncontrolled authority, and the conservative dispositions, of the ephors—which they naturally contrasted with the original fulness of the kingly power, when kings and senate stood alone. Among the various ways in which men's ideas of what the primitive constitution had been, were modified by the feelings of their own time (we shall presently see some other instances of this), is probably to be reckoned the assertion of Kleomenès respecting the first appointment of the ephors. Kleomenès affirmed that the ephors had originally been nothing more than sub-

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1 Xenophon, Republic. Laced. c. 14.
ordinates and deputies of the kings, chosen by the latter to perform for a time their duties during the long absence of the Messenian war. Starting from this humble position, and profiting by the dissensions of the two kings¹, they had in process of time, especially by the ambition of the ephor Asterop, found means first to constitute themselves an independent board, then to usurp to themselves more and more of the kingly authority, until they at last reduced the kings to a state of intolerable humiliation and impotence. As a proof of the primitive relation between the kings and the ephors, he alluded to that which was the custom at Sparta in his own time. When the ephors sent for either of the kings, the latter had a right to refuse obedience to two successive summonses, but the third summons he was bound to obey².

It is obvious that the fact here adduced by Kleomenes (a curious point in Spartan manners) contributes little to prove the conclusion which he deduced from it of the original nomination of the ephors as mere deputies by the kings. That they were first appointed at the time of the Messenian war is probable, and coincides with the tale that king Theopompus was a consenting party to the measure—that their functions were at first comparatively circumscribed, and extended by successive encroachments, is also probable; but they seem to have been from the beginning a board of spe-

¹ Plutarch, Apo. c. 12. ηπεν γηρ τω αρχοντω (the ephors) ἵκεται ἕν ἀναφώρα τοῦ Βασιλέα, &c.

² Plutarch, Kleomenes, c. 10. ομοιος ἐν ταῖς, το μήκες των, μεταποιημένοι τοῦ Βασιλεία τῶν Ἐθνῶν, &c.
cially popular origin, in contraposition to the kings and the senate. One proof of this is to be found in the ancient oath, which was every month interchanged between the kings and the ephors; the king swearing for himself, that he would exercise his regal functions according to the established laws—the ephors swearing on behalf of the city, that his authority should on that condition remain unshaken. This mutual compact, which probably formed a part of the ceremony during the monthly sacrifices offered by the king, continued down to a time when it must have become a pure form, and when the kings had long been subordinate in power to the ephors. But it evidently began first as a reality—when the king was predominant and effective chief of the state, and when the ephors, clothed with functions chiefly defensive, served as guarantees to the people against abuse of the regal authority. Plato, Aristotle, and Cicero, all interpret the original institution of the ephors as designed to protect the people and restrain the kings: the latter assimilates them to the tribunes at Rome.

Such were the relations which had once subsisted between the kings and the ephors: though in later

1 Xenophon, Republic. Lac. ed. v. 16. καὶ ἐστιν μὲν ἀλλὰ γυνὴ μὴν τοῦτο τὸ πάλαι. βασιλεῖς τοῦτο ἦσσθαι. Ὁ δὲ ἔρρω ἄρτι, τῇ μὲν βασιλείᾳ, κατὰ τὸν τὸ πάλαι εἰρήνην τὸν βασιλείαν τῇ δὲ πόλις ἐκείνην ἐπικείμενον, ἀντιπάλον τῇ βασιλείᾳ παριζεῖν.
2 Herodot. vi. 57.
times these relations had been so completely reversed, that Polybius considers the former as essentially subordinate to the latter—reckoning it as a point of duty in the kings to respect the ephors "as their fathers." And such is decidedly the state of things throughout all the better-known period of history which we shall hereafter traverse. The ephors are the general directors of public affairs and the supreme controlling board holding in check every other authority in the state, without any assignable limit to their powers. The extraordinary ascendency of these magistrates is particularly manifested in the fact stated by Aristotle, that they exempted themselves from the public discipline, so that their self-indulgent year of office stood in marked contrast with the toilsome exercises and sober mess common to rich and poor alike. The kings are reduced to a certain number of special functions, combined with privileges partly religious, partly honorary: their most important political attribute is, that they are _ex officio_ generals of the military force on foreign expeditions. But even here we trace the sensible decline of their power. For whereas Herodotus was informed, and it probably had been the old privilege, that the king could levy war against whomsoever he chose, and that no Spartan could impede him on pain of committing sacrilege—we shall see throughout the best known periods of this history that it is usually the ephors.

1 Polyb. xxiv. 8.
2 Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 14-16: "Εστι δὲ καὶ ἡ διατα τῶν Εφόρων ἡ 'Εκλογή τῆς συνόντις τῆς σόλεως, ὥσπερ μὲν γὰρ ἐμπρετίως ἄλλως ἔστιν ἐπὶ τοῖς ἄλλοις πάλλοις ἐστὶν τῆς πάθεως, έτῃ.
3 Herodot. vi. 56.
powers of the Spartan kings.

(with or without the senate and public assembly) who determine upon war—the king only takes the command when the army is put on the march. Aristotle seems to treat the Spartan king as a sort of hereditary general; but even in this privilege, shackles were put upon him—for two out of the five ephors accompanied the army, and their power seems to have been not seldom invoked to ensure obedience to his orders.

The direct political powers of the kings were thus greatly curtailed; yet importance in many ways was still left to them. They possessed large royal domains, in many of the towns of the Periekei: they received frequent occasional presents, and when victims were offered to the gods, the skins and other portions belonged to them as perquisites; they had their votes in the senate, which, if they were absent, were given on their behalf by such of the other senators as were most nearly related to them: the adoption of children received its formal accomplishment in their presence—and conflicting claims at law, for the hand of an unbequeathed orphan heiress, were adjudicated by them. But

1 Aristotle, ii. 7, 4; Xenoph. Rev. Fed. Laced. c. 13. Baur, 

2 In the second and third centuries B.C., the Spartan kings received presents of a military commander-in-chief, in 417 B.c., after the ill-conducted expedition of Agis son of Archidamus against Argos. It was then provided that ten Spartan councillors should always accompany the king in every expedition (Thucyd. v. 65).

The hide-money (hepatryx) arising from the numerous victims offered at public sacrifices at Athens, is accounted for as a special item of the public revenue in the careful economy of that city; see Boeckh, Publick Econ. of Athens, iii. 7, p. 333; Eng. Trans. Corpus Inscription. No. 167.
above all, their root was deep in the religious feelings of the people. Their pre-eminent lineage connected the entire state with a divine paternity. They, the chiefs of the Herakleids, were the special grantees of the soil of Sparta from the gods—the occupation of the Dorians being only sanctified and blest by Zeus for the purpose of establishing the children of Héraklès in the valley of the Eurotas. They represented the state in its relations with the gods, being by right, priests of Zeus Lacedaemon (the ideas of the god and the country coalescing into one) and of Zeus Uranus, and offering the monthly sacrifices necessary to ensure divine protection to the people. Though individual persons might sometimes be put aside, nothing short of a new divine revelation could induce the Spartans to step out of the genuine lineage of Eurysthenès and Proklès. Moreover, the remarkable mourning ceremony which took place at the death of every king, seems to indicate that the two kingly families—which counted themselves Achæan, not Dorian—were considered as the great common bond of union between the three component parts of the population of Laconia—Spartans, Periekti, and Helots. Not merely was it required, on this occasion, that

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1 Tyrtæus, Fragm. 1, ed. Böckh; Strabo, xviii. p. 392:—

Ἀνὴρ γὰρ Κροῖους καλλονετόνας γόνις Ἰππος.

Zeit Πρακτήλου τῆς δέως δήμως πάλιν.

Ὀλοι δὲ προλειπότατα Ἐριττῶν ἐπιρρέατα.

Εῦρειν Πέλαμης ἕςων ἐφικεῖσθαι.

Compare Thucyd. v. 16; Herodot. v. 39; Xenoph. Hellen. iii. 3, 3; Plutarch, Lyssal. c. 22.

2 Herod. v. 72. See the account in Plutarch of the abortive strategy of Lycurgus to make the kingly dignity elective, by putting forward a youth who passed for the son of Apollo (Plutarch, Lyssal. c. 25-26).
two members of every house in Sparta should appear in sackcloth and ashes—but the death of the king was formally made known throughout every part of Laconia, and deputies from the townships of the Perieki and the villages of the Helots, to the number of several thousand, were summoned to Sparta to take their share in the profuse and public demonstrations of sorrow¹, which lasted for ten days, and which imparted to the funeral obsequies a superhuman solemnity. Nor ought we to forget, in enumerating the privileges of the Spartan king, that he (conjointly with two officers called Pythii, nominated by him,) carried on the communications between the state and the temple of Delphi, and had the custody of oracles and prophecies generally. In most of the Grecian states, such inspired declarations were treasured up, and consulted in cases of public emergency: but the intercourse of Sparta with the Delphian oracle was peculiarly frequent and intimate, and the responses of the Pythian priestess met with more reverential attention from the Spartans than from any other Greeks². So much the more important were the king's functions, as the medium of this intercourse: the oracle always upheld his dignity, and often even seconded his underhand personal schemes³.

Sustained by so great a force of traditional reverence, a Spartan king of military talent and indi-

¹ Xenoph. Hellen. iii. 3. 1. ἄγιον ἐγαίνειν τινίν παρὰ τοῦ πρεσβυτέρου ταυτόν.

² For the privileges of the Spartan kings, see Herodot. vi. 56-57; Xenophon, Republ. Laced. c. 15; Plato, Alekh. i. p. 123.

³ Herodot. vi. 66; and Thucyd. v. 16, furnish examples of this.
individual energy like Agesilalus exercised great ascendancy; but such cases were very rare, and we shall find the king throughout the historical period only a secondary force, available on special occasions. For real political orders, in the greatest cases as well as the least, the Spartan looks to the council of ephors, to whom obedience is paid with a degree of precision which nothing short of the Spartan discipline could have brought about—by the most powerful citizens not less than by the meanest. Both the internal police and the foreign affairs of the state are in the hands of the ephors, who exercise an authority approaching to despotism, and altogether without accountability. They appoint and direct the body of 300 young and active citizens, who performed the immediate police service of Laconia: they cashier at pleasure any subordinate functionary, and inflict fine or arrest at their own discretion: they assemble the military force, on occasion of foreign war, and determine its destination, though the king has the actual command of it: they imprison on suspicion even the regent or the king himself: they sit as judges, sometimes individually and sometimes as a board, upon causes and complaints of great moment, and they judge without the restraint of written laws, the use of

1 Xenophon, Republ. Laced. c. 8, 2, and Agesilalus, cap. 7, 2.

Plato, in his Republic, in like manner disapproves of any general enactments tying up beforehand the discretion of perfectly educated men like his guardians, who will always do what is best on each special occasion (Republic, iv. p. 425).
which was peremptorily forbidden by a special Rhetra, erroneously connected with Lykurgus himself, but at any rate ancient. On certain occasions of peculiar moment they take the sense of

1 Besides the primitive constitutional Rhetra mentioned above, page 465, various other Rhetra are also attributed to Lykurgus: and Plutarch singles out three under the title of "The Three Rhetra," as if they were either the only genuine Lykurgan Rhetra, or at least stood distinguished by some peculiar sanctity from all others (Plutarch, Quaest. Roman. c. 87. Agesilaus, c. 26).

These three were (Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 13; comp. Apophth. Laced. p. 227).—1. Not to resort to written laws. 2. Not to employ in house-building any other tools than the axe and the saw. 3. Not to undertake military expeditions often against the same enemies.

I agree with Nitzsch (Histor. Homer. p. 61—65) that these Rhetra, though doubtless not actually Lykurgan, are nevertheless ancient (that is, probably dating somewhere between 650—550 B.C.) and not the mere fictions of recent writers, as Schönemann (Ant. Jur. Pub. iv. 1.; xiv. p. 132) and Urieus (p. 241) seem to believe. And though Plutarch specifies the number three, yet there seems to have been still more, as the language of Tyrtaeus must be held to indicate: out of which, from causes which we do not now understand, the three which Plutarch distinguishes excited particular notice.

These maxims or precepts of state were probably preserved along with the dicta of the Delphian oracle, from which authority doubtless many of them may have emanated—such as the famous ancient prophecy Ἄφεγγα ἀνάμνησις Ἑλλήνων ἐκ τῆς τεχνῆς (Kreba, Lexicon Diocles. p. 140; Aristotel. Hept. Holos. sae. Schol. ad Empir. Andromach. iv. 446; Schönemann, Comm. ad Plutarch. Ag. et Cleomen. p. 128).

Nitzsch has good remarks in explanation of the prohibition against "using written laws." This prohibition was probably called forth by the circumstance that other Grecian states were employing lawgivers like Zalektes, Deako, Charondas, or Solon—to present them at once with a series of written enactments or provisions. Some Spartans may have proposed that an analogous lawgiver should be nominated for Sparta; upon which proposition a negative was put in the most solemn manner possible, by a formal Rhetra, perhaps passed after advice from Delphi. There is no such contradiction therefore (when we thus conceive the event) as some authors represent, in forbidding the use of written laws by a Rhetra itself put into writing. To employ a phrase in greater analogy with modern controversies—"The Spartans, on the direction of the oracle, resolve to retain their unwritten common law, and not to codify."
the senate and the public assembly—such seems to have been the habit on questions of war and peace. It appears however that persons charged with homicide, treason, or capital offences generally, were tried before the senate: We read of several instances in which the kings were tried and severely fined, and in which their houses were condemned to be razed to the ground, probably by the senate on the proposition of the ephors: in one instance, it seems that the ephors inflicted by their own authority a fine even upon Agesilaus.

War and peace appear to have been submitted, on most, if not on all occasions, to the senate and the public assembly; no matter could reach the latter until it had passed through the former. And we find some few occasions on which the decision of the public assembly was a real expression of opinion, and operative as to the result—as for example, the assembly which immediately preceded and resolved upon the Peloponnesian war. Here, in addition to the serious hazard of the case and the general caution of a Spartan temperament, there was the great personal weight and experience of king Archidamus opposed to the war, though the ephors were favourable to it.

1 Ἐδοξε τοῖς Εφόροις σαι τὴν ἔκλοψιν (Xen. Hellen. iii. 2, 29).
2 The case of Leotychides, Herod. vi. 72; of Pleistounas, Thucyd. i. 21–c. 16; Agis II., Thucyd. v. 63; Agis III., Plutarch, Agis, v. 19; see Plutarch, Agesilaus, v. 5.

Respecting the ephors generally, see Wachsmuth, Hellen. Alterthumskunde, v. 4, 82, vol. i. p. 225; Gragna, Rep. Lec. ii. 4, p. 121.
Aristotle distinctly marks the ephors as ἀνεκπέμβον: so that the story alluded to briefly in the Rhetorik (iii. 18) is not easy to be understood.

3 Thucyd. i. 67, 80, 87, ἐκλογαὶ σφόν πέτρας τοῦ σταδίου.
public assembly, under such peculiar circumstances, really manifested an opinion and came to a division. But for the most part, it seems to have been little better than an inoperative formality. The general rule permitted no open discussion, nor could any private citizen speak except by special leave from the magistrates. Perhaps even the general liberty to discuss, if given, might have been of no avail, for not only was there no power of public speaking, but no habit of canvassing public measures, at Sparta: nothing was more characteristic of the government than the extreme secrecy of its proceedings. The propositions brought forward by the magistrates were either accepted or rejected, without any licence of amending. There could be no attraction to invite the citizen to be present at such an assembly; and we may gather from the language of Xenophon that in his time it consisted only of a certain number of notables specially summoned in addition to the senate, which latter body is itself called "the lesser Ekklesia." Indeed the constant and formidable diminution in the number

1 Thucyd. iv. 68, τὰ κοινοτίκα το χουφίτο, compare iv. 74; also his remarkable expression about so distinguished a man as Brasidas, ἰε ὁ ὅσοι διήνεκε, ἵνα Ἀθησινδοτίκα το μεταφασθήναι, and iv. 21, about the Lacedaemonian envoys to Athens. Compare Schümann, Antiq. Jor. Pbh. Græc. iv. 1, 10, p. 122. Aristot. Polit. ii. 8, 3.

2 The μορφὴ κοινοτίκα ἐκλογίας (Xenoph. Hellen. iii, 3, 8), which means the γέροντες or senate, and none besides, except the ephors, who convoked it. (See Lachmann, Spart. Verfass. sect. 12, p. 216.) What is still more to be noted, is the expression of ἐκλογὴ as the equivalent of ἐκλογία (compare Hellen. v. 2, 11; vi. 3, 3), evidently showing a special and limited number of persons concerned; see also ii. 4, 38; iv. 6, 3; v. 2, 23; Thucyd. v. 77.

The expression of ἐκλογὴ could never have got into use as an equivalent for the Athenian ecclesia.
of qualified citizens was alone sufficient to thin the attendance of the assembly, as well as to break down any imposing force which it might once have possessed.

An assembly thus circumstanced—though always retained as a formality, and though its consent on considerable matters and for the passing of laws (which however seems to have been a rare occurrence at Sparta) was indispensable—could be very little of a practical check upon the administration of the ephors. The Senate, a permanent body with the kings included in it, was the only real check upon them, and must have been to a certain extent a concurrent body in the government—though the large and imposing language in which its political supremacy is spoken of by Demosthenes and Isokrates exceeds greatly the reality of the case. Its most important function was that of a court of criminal justice, before whom every man put on trial for his life was arraigned.1 But both in this and in their other duties, we find the senators as well as the kings and the ephors charged with corruption and venality.2 As they were not appointed until sixty years of age and then held their offices for

1 Xenoph. Repub. Laced. 10; Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 17; iii. 1, 7; Demosthen. cont. Leptin. c. 23. p. 489; Isokrates, Or. xii. (Panathenaeic.) p. 266. The language of Demosthenes seems particularly inaccurate.

2 Plutarch (Agesilaus, c. 32) on occasion of some suspected conspirators who were put to death by Agesilaus and the ephors, when Sparta was in imminent danger from the attack of Epameinondas, asserts, that this was the first time that any Spartan had ever been put to death without trial.

3 Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 13. Compare also Thucyd. i. 131 about the guilty Panomias—σωτῆρας ὑπευγείτο αὐλιστερὰ τῷ διαβάλλετοι. Herodot. v. 72; Thucyd. v. 16—about the kings Leotychides and Pheidon; the brave and able Glycippus—Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 16.
life, we may readily believe that some of them continued to act after the period of extreme and disqualifying senility—which, though the extraordinary respect of the Lacedaemonians for old age would doubtless tolerate it, could not fail to impair the influence of the body as a concurrent element of government.

The brief sketch here given of the Spartan government will show, that though Greek theorists found a difficulty in determining under what class they should arrange it, it was in substance a close, unscrupulous, and well-obeyed oligarchy—including within it, as subordinate, those portions which had once been dominant, the kings and the senate, and softening the odium, without abating the mischief, of the system, by its annual change of the ruling ephors. We must at the same time distinguish the government from the Lykurgean discipline and education, which doubtless tended much to equalise rich and poor, in respect to practical life, habits, and enjoyments. Herodotus (and seemingly also Xenophon) thought that the form just described was that which the government had originally received from the hand of Lykurgus. Now, though there is good reason for supposing otherwise, and for believing the ephors to be a subsequent addition—yet the mere fact, that Herodotus was so informed at Sparta, points our attention to one im-

1 The ephors are sometimes considered as a democratical element, because every Spartan citizen had a chance of becoming ephor; sometimes as a despotic element, because in the exercise of their power they were subject to little restraint and no responsibility; see Plato, Legg. iv. p. 712; Aristot. Pol. ii. 8, 10; iv. 7, 4, 5.
important attribute of the Spartan polity, which it is proper to bring into view. This attribute is, its unparalleled steadiness, for four or five successive centuries, in the midst of governments like the Grecian, all of which had undergone more or less of fluctuation. No considerable revolution—not even any palpable or formal change—occurred in it from the days of the Messenian war down to those of Agis III.: in spite of the irreparable blow which the power and territory of the state sustained from Epameinondas and the Thebans, the form of government nevertheless remained unchanged. It was the only government in Greece which could trace an unbroken peaceable descent from a high antiquity and from its real or supposed founder. Now this was one of the main circumstances (among others which will hereafter be mentioned) of the astonishing ascendency which the Spartans acquired over the Hellenic mind, and which they will not be found at all to deserve by any superior ability in the conduct of affairs. The steadiness of their political sympathies—exhibited at one time by putting down the tyrants or despots, at another by overthrowing the democracies—stood in the place of ability, and even the recognised failings of their government were often covered by the sentiment of respect for its early commencement and uninterrupted continuance. If such a feeling acted on the Greeks generally, much more powerful was its action upon the Spartans themselves in inflaming

1 A specimen of the way in which this antiquity was landlord, may be seen in Isokrates, Or. xii. (Panathenaic.) p. 228.
that haughty exclusiveness for which they stood distinguished. And it is to be observed that the Spartan mind continued to be cast on the old-fashioned scale, and unsusceptible of modernizing influences, longer than that of most other people of Greece. The ancient legendary faith, and devoted submission to the Delphian oracle, remained among them unabated, at a time when various influences had considerably undermined it among their fellow-Hellens and neighbours. But though the unchanged title and forms of the government thus contributed to its imposing effect, both at home and abroad, the causes of internal degeneracy were not the less really at work, in undermining its efficiency. It has been already stated that the number of qualified citizens went on continually diminishing, and even of this diminished number a larger proportion than before were needy, since the landed property tended constantly to concentrate itself in fewer hands. There grew up in this way a body of discontent, which had not originally existed, both among the poorer citizens, and among those who had lost their franchise as citizens; thus aggravating the danger arising from Perioeci and Helots, who will be presently noticed.

We pass from the political constitution of Sparta to the civil ranks and distribution, economical relations, and lastly the peculiar system of habits, education and discipline, said to have been established among the Lacedaemonians by Lycurgus. Here again we shall find ourselves imperfectly informed as to the existing institutions, and surrounded by confusion when we try to explain how those institutions arose.
It seems however ascertained that the Dorians in all their settlements were divided into three tribes—the Hylleis, the Pamphyli, and the Dymanes: in all Dorian cities moreover, there were distinguished Herakleid families from whom eókists were chosen when new colonies were formed. These three tribes can be traced at Argos, Sikyón, Epidaurus, Træzén, Megara, Korkyra, and seemingly also at Sparta.¹ The Hylleis recognised, as their eponym and progenitor, Hyllus the son of Héraklés, and were therefore in their own belief descended from Héraklés himself: we may suppose the Herakleids specially so called, comprising the two regal families, to have been the Elder Brethren of the tribe of Hylleis, the whole of whom are sometimes spoken of as Herakleids or descendants of Héraklés.² But there seem to have been also at Sparta, as in other Dorian towns, non-Dorian inhabitants, apart from these three tribes and embodied in tribes of their own. One of these, the Αegeids, said to have come from Thebes as allies of the Dorian invaders, is named by Aristotle, Pindar, and Herodotus³—while the Εgialeis at Sikyón, the

¹ Herodot. v. 69; Stephan. Byz. v. Υλλέων and Δυμάς; O. Müller, Dorians, i. 5, 2; Boeckh. ad Corp. Inscrup. No. 1123.
² Thuryd. i. 24, about Phallos the Herakleid at Corinth.
³ See Tyrtaeus, Πραγμ. 8, 1, ed. Schneidewin, and Pindar, Pyth. i. 61, v. 71, where the expressions "descendants of Héraklés", plainly comprehend more than the two regally families. Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 22; Diodor. ii. 39.
⁴ Herodot. iv. 149; Pindar, Pyth. v. 67; Aristot. Αντίκειται Πολίτης, p. 127; Πραγμ. ed. Newman. The Talathybiadas, or herakles at Sparta, formed a family or caste apart (Herod. vii. 184).
⁵ O. Müller supposes, without any proof, that the Αegeids must have been adopted into one of the three Dorian tribes; this is one of the corollaries from his fundamental supposition, that Sparta is the type of pure Dorism (vol. ii. p. 78). Kopf'slindh (Dissertat. p. 67) that I
tribe Hynêthia at Argos and Epidaurus, and others
whose titles we do not know at Corinth, represent
in like manner the non-Dorian portions of their
respective communities. At Corinth the total
number of tribes is said to have been eight. But at
Sparta, though we seem to make out the existence
of the three Dorian tribes, we do not know how
many tribes there were in all; still less do we know
what relation the Obè or Obês, another subordi-
nate distribution of the people, bore to the tribes.
In the ancient Rhetra of Lykurgus, the Tribes and
Obês are directed to be maintained unaltered: but
the statement of O. Müller and Boeckh—that
there were thirty Obês in all, ten to each tribe—
rests upon no other evidence than a peculiar punctu-
tation of this Rhetra, which various other critics
reject; and seemingly with good reason. We are
thus left without any information respecting the
Obê, though we know that it was an old, peculiar,
and lasting division among the Spartan people,
since it occurs in the oldest Rhetra of Lykurgus, as
well as in late inscriptions of the date of the Ro-
man empire. In similar inscriptions and in the
account of Pausanias, there is however recognised
have done injustice to O. Müller in not ascertaining to his proof: but on
studying the point over again, I can see no reason for modifying what
is here stated in the text. The section of Schumann's work (Antiq.
Jur. Puhl. Græc. iv. 1, 6, p. 115) on this subject asserts a great deal
more than can be proved.

1 Herod. v. 68-92; Boeckh, Corp. Inscr. Nos. 1130, 1131; Stephan.
Byz. v. Υπερθαν υπαντον; Pausan. ii. 25, 3.
2 Photius, Harva dòra; also Proverb. Vatic. Suidas, xi. 64; compare
Hesychius, v. Κασταφάλον.
3 Müller, Doriâns, iii. 5, 3-7; Boeckh, ad Corp. Inscript. Part iv.
sect. 3, p. 609.
a classification of Spartans distinct from and independent of the three old Dorian tribes, and founded upon the different quarters of the city—Limnae, Mesoa, Pitané and Kynosura; from one of these four was derived the usual description of a Spartan in the days of Herodotus. There is reason to suppose that the old Dorian tribes became antiquated at Sparta, (as the four old Ionian tribes did at Athens,) and that the topical classification derived from the quarters of the city superseded it—these quarters having been originally the separate villages, of the aggregate of which Sparta was composed. That the number of the old senators, thirty, was connected with the three Dorian tribes, deriving ten members from each, is probable enough, though there is no proof of it.

Of the population of Laconia three main divisions are recognised—Spartans, Periechi, and Helots. The first of the three were the full qualified citizens, who lived in Sparta itself, fulfilled all the exigences of the Lykurgian discipline, paid their quota to the Syssitia or public mess, and were alone eligible to

1 Pausan. iii. 16, 6; Herodot. iii. 565; Boeckh, Corp. Inscript. Nos. 1241, 1338, 1347, 1425; Steph. Byz. v. Merény; Strabo, viii. p. 364; Hesych. v. These.

There is much confusion and discrepancy of opinion about the Spartan tribes. Gargusi admits six (De Republ. Lacon. i. 6); Meursius, eight (Rep. Lacon. i. 7); Barthélémy (Voyage du Jemne Aschares, iv. p. 185) makes them five. Menos has discussed the subject at large, but I think not very satisfactorily; in the eighth Book to the first book of his History of Sparta (vol. ii. p. 125), and Dr. Thrussell's second Appendix (vol. i. p. 517) both notice all the different modern opinions on this obscure topic, and add several useful criticisms. Our scanty stock of original evidence leaves much room for divergent hypotheses, and little chance of any certain conclusion.

2 Timoet. i. 1. 10.
honours or public offices. These men had neither time nor taste even for cultivation of the land, still less for trade or handicraft: such occupations were inconsistent with the prescribed training, even if they had not been positively interdicted. They were maintained from the lands round the city, and from the large proportion of Laconia which belonged to them; the land being tilled for them by Helots, who seem to have paid over to them a fixed proportion of the produce; in some cases at least, as much as one half. Each Spartan retained his qualification, and transmitted it to his children, on two conditions—first, that of submitting to the prescribed discipline; next, that of paying each his stipulated quota to the public mess, which was only maintained by these individual contributions. The multiplication of children in the poorer families, after acquisitions of new territory ceased, continually augmented both the number and the proportion of citizens who were unable to fulfil the second of these conditions and who therefore lost their franchise: so that there arose towards the close of the Peloponnesian war a distinction, among the Spartans themselves, unknown to the earlier times—the reduced number of fully qualified citizens being called The Equals or Peers—the disfranchised poor, The Inferiors. The latter, disfranchised as they were, nevertheless did not become Periechi: it was pro-

1 One or two Periechi officers appear in military command towards the end of the Peloponnesian war (Thucyd. viii. 6, 22), but these seem rare exceptions even as to foreign service by sea or land, while a Periechus as magistrate at Sparta was unheard of.

2 One half was paid by the enslaved Messenians (Tyrtaeus, Frag. 4, Bergk): ἦςεν ἐκεῖ, δοσιν κάρπον ἄρομαν δοσιν.
bably still competent to them to resume their qualification, should any favourable accident enable them to make their contributions to the public mess.

2. Periechēs,

The Per ieckus was also a freeman and a citizen, not of Sparta, but of some one of the hundred townships of Laconia¹. Both he and the community to which he belonged received their orders only from Sparta, having no political sphere of their own, and no share in determining the movements of the Spartan authorities. In the island of Kythēra², which formed one of the Perieckic townships, a Spartan bailiff resided as administrator. But whether the same was the case with others, we cannot affirm: nor is it safe to reason from one of these townships to all—there may have been considerable differences in the mode of dealing with one and another. For they were spread through the whole of Laconia, some near and some distant from Sparta: the free inhabitants of Amyklæ must have been Periecki, as well as those of Kythēra, Thuria, Ætheia, or Aulōn: nor can we presume that the feeling on the part of the Spartan authorities towards all of them was the same. Between the Spartans and their neigh-

¹ Strabo, viii. p. 362. Stephanus Byz. alludes to this total of 100 townships in his notice of several different items among them—Æthia, ἀπὸ την άλτα και την ξύστηων; also τρ. Ἀθροκλαΐας, Βοιις, Δερδαίων, ιε.; but he probably copied Strabo, and therefore cannot pass for a distinct authority. The total of 100 townships belongs to the maximum of Spartan power, after the conquest and before the severance of Messenia; for Aulōn, Bour and Methódo (the extreme places) are included among them.

² Tucyd. iv. 53.
bours the numerous Periekei of Amyklae, there must have subsisted a degree of intercourse and mutual relation in which the more distant Periekei did not partake—besides that both the religious edifices and the festivals of Amyklae were most reverentially adopted by the Spartans and exalted into a national dignity: and we seem to perceive, on some occasions, a degree of consideration manifested for the Amyklean hoplites, such as perhaps other Periekei might not have obtained. The class-name, Periekei—Circum-residents, ordwellers

Xenophon, Hellen. iv. 5, 13; Herod. ix. 7; Thucyd. v. 18–23. The Amyklean festival of the Hyacinthus, and the Amyklean temple of Apollo, seem to stand foremost in the mind of the Spartan authorities. Ναυτίαν τινὰ προκινεῖν (Thucyd. iv. 5), who are ready before the rest and march against the Athenians at Pylos, probably include the Amykleans.

Laconia generally is called by Thucydides (iii. 16) as the περιποιήσις of Sparta.

The word σεισταίοσ is sometimes used to signify simply "surrounding neighbour states," in its natural geographical sense; see Thucyd. i. 17, and Aristot. Polit. iii. 7, 1.

But the more usual employment of it is, to mean, the unprivileged or less privileged members of the same political aggregate living without the city, in contrast with the full-privileged burgheers who lived within it. Aristotle uses it to signify in Kreta the class corresponding to the Laconeonian Helots (Pol. ii. 7, 3); there did not exist in Kreta any class corresponding to the Laconeonian Periekei. In Kreta there were not two stages of inferiority—there was only one, and that one is marked by the word σεισταίοσ; while the Laconeonian Periekei had the Helot below him. To an Athenian the word conveyed the idea of undefined degradation.

To understand better the status of the Periekei, we may contrast him with the Metekeus or Metic. The latter resides in the city, but he is an alien resident on sufferance, not a native: he pays a special tax, stands excluded from all political functions, and cannot even approach the magistrate exempt through a friendly citizen or Prostatēs (σεισταίοσ σπαυτερικὸν—Lycurgus contr. Leocrates, c. 22—33): he bears arms for the defence of the state. The situation of a Metic was however very different in different cities of Greece. At Athens that class were well-protected in person and property, numerous and domiciliated; at Sparta, there were
around the city—usually denoted native inhabitants of inferior political condition as contrasted with the
at first none—the Xenclasy excluded them; but this must have been relaxed long before the days of Agis III.

The Periokai differs from the Metice in being a native of the soil, subject by birth to the city law.

M. Kopstadt (in his Dissertation above cited on Lacedemonian affairs, sect. 7, p. 60) expresses much surprise at that which I advance in this note respecting Kréte and Lacedemone—that in Kréte there was no class of men analogous to the Lacedemonian Periokai, but only two classes—i.e., free citizens and Helots. He thinks that this position is "prorsus falso?"

But I advance nothing more here than what is distinctly stated by Aristotle, as Kopstadt himself admits (p. 60, 71). Aristotle calls the subject class in Kréte by the name of Néphrases. And in this case, the general presumptions go far to sustain the authority of Aristotle. For Sparta was a dominant or capital city, including in its dependence not only a considerable territory, but a considerable number of inferior, distinct, organised townships. In Kréte, on the contrary, each autonomous state included only a town with its circumjacent territory, but without any annexed townships. There was therefore no basis for the intermediate class called in Lacedemonian as Kopstadt himself remarks (p. 78) about the Doric city of Megara. There were only the two classes of free Krétau citizens, and slave-cultivators in various modifications and subdivisions.

Kopstadt (following Hoeck, Krete, B. III, vol. in. p. 23) says that the authority of Aristotle on this point is overborne by that of Dossandus and Soisikrates—authors who wrote specially on Krétau affairs. Now if we were driven to make a choice, I confess that I should prefer the testimony of Aristotle—considering that we know little or nothing respecting the other two. But in this case I do not think that we are driven to make a choice; Dossandus (ap. Athenae, iv. p. 143) is not cited in terms, so that we cannot affirm him to contradict Aristotle; and Soisikrates (upon whom Hoeck and Kopstadt rely) says something which does not necessarily contradict him, but admits of being explained so as to place the two witnesses in harmony with each other.

Soisikrates says (ap. Athenae. vi. p. 263), Τὸς μὲν κοσμὸν δοκείως ὑποτεκόμενον τῷ ἐν Οινόν ἐμφάνισαν, τὸ δὲ παραδοτόν ἐμφάνων. Now the word παραδότον seems to be here used just as Aristotle would have used it, to comprehend the Krétau serfs universally; it is not distinguished from υποτέκομεν and ἐμφανέρως, but comprehends both of them as different species under a generic term. The authority of Aristotle affords a reason for preferring to construe the passage in this manner, and the words appear to me to admit of it fairly.
full-privileged burghers who lived in the city, but it did not mark any precise or uniform degree of inferiority. It is sometimes so used by Aristotle as to imply a condition no better than that of the Helots, so that in a large sense, all the inhabitants of Laconia (Helots as well as the rest) might have been included in it. But when used in reference to Laconia, it bears a technical sense whereby it is placed in contraposition with the Spartan on one side, and with the Helot on the other: it means native freemen and proprietors, grouped in subordinate communities with more or less power of local management, but (like the subject towns belonging to Bern, Zurich, and most of the old thirteen cantons of Switzerland) embodied in the Lacedaemonian aggregate, which was governed exclusively by the kings, senate, and citizens of Sparta.

When we come to describe the democracy of Athens after the revolution of Kleisthenes, we shall find the demes, or local townships and villages of Attica, incorporated as equal and constituent fractions of the integer called The Deme (or The City) of Athens, so that a demot of Acharnae or Sphættus is at the same time a full Athenian citizen. But the relation of the Perioikic townships to Sparta is one of inequality and obedience, though both belong to the same political aggregate, and make up together the free Lacedaemonian community. In like manner, Ornea and other places were townships of men personally free, but politically dependent on Argos—Akræphæ on Thebes—Chæroneia.

1 The ancient of the Lacedaemonian Perioikoi are often noticed: see Xenophon (Agenias, ii. 24; Laced. Repub. x. 5; Hellenic, vi. 8; 21).
on Orchomenus—and various Thessalian towns on Pharsalus and Larissa. Such moreover was, in the main, the state into which Athens would have brought her allies, and Thebes the free Boeotian communities, if the policy of either of these cities had permanently prospered. This condition carried with it a sentiment of degradation, and a painful negation of that autonomy for which every Grecian community thirsted; while being maintained through superior force, it had a natural tendency, perhaps without the deliberate wish of the reigning city, to degenerate into practical oppression. But in addition to this general tendency, the peculiar education of a Spartan, while it imparted force, fortitude, and regimental precision, was at the same time so rigorously peculiar, that it rendered him harsh, unaccommodating, and incapable of sympathising with the ordinary march of Grecian feeling,—not to mention the capacity and love of money, which is attested, by good evidence, as belonging to the Spartan character, and which we should hardly have expected to find in the pupils of Lykurgus. As Harmosts out of their native city, and in relations with inferiors, the Spartans seem to have

1 Herod. viii. 73-136.; Xenoph. Hellen. vi. 1, 8; Thucyd. iv. 76-84.
2 Xenoph. Hellen. vi. 3, 5, 9, 19. Isokrates, writing in the days of Theban power, after the battle of Leuktra, characterises the Boeotian towns as repugnant to Thebes (Or. viii. De Pace, p. 182); compare Orat. xiv. Plataia, p. 299-303. Xenophon holds the same language, Hellen. vi. 4, 46; compare Plutarch, Aegina, 26.
3 Aristotle, Polit. ii. 6, 23.
4 Thucyd. 1, 77-95; vi. 105. Isokrates (Panathen. Or. viii. p. 283), Σπαρτακος δε ευπροσοικος και λαομυχος και αναμενος, καιτην αυτου την πολεμικη νεφελην. Compare his Oratio de Pace (Or. viii. p. 180-181); Orosius Panegyr. (Or. iv. p. 64-67).
been more unpopular than other Greeks, and we may presume that a similar haughty roughness pervaded their dealings with their own Períceki; who were bound to them certainly by no tie of affection, and who for the most part revolted after the battle of Léuktra as soon as the invasion of Laconia by Epameinondas enabled them to do so with safety.

Isokratés, taking his point of departure from the old Herakleid legend, with its instantaneous con-quest and triple partition of all Dorian Peloponnesus among the three Herakleid brethren, deduces the first origin of the Perícekic townships from internal seditions among the conquerors of Sparta. According to him, the period immediately succeeding the conquest was one of fierce intestine warfare in newly-conquered Sparta, between the Few and the Many,—the oligarchy and the demus. The former being victorious, two important measures were the consequences of their victory. They banished the defeated Many from Sparta into Laconia, retaining the residence in Sparta exclusively for themselves; they assigned to them the smallest and least fertile half of Laconia, monopolising the larger and better for themselves; and they disseminated them into many very small townships, or subordinate little communities, while they concentrated themselves entirely at Sparta. To these precautions for ensuring dominion they added another not less important. They established among their own Spartan citizens equality of legal privilege and democratical government, so as to take the greatest securities for internal harmony; which harmony,
according to the judgement of Isokratēs, had been but too effectually perpetuated, enabling the Spartans to achieve their dominion over oppressed Greece,—like the accord of pirates' for the spoliation of the peaceful. The Perioekic townships (he tells us), while deprived of all the privileges of freemen, were exposed to all the toils, as well as to an unfair share of the dangers, of war. The Spartan authorities put them in situations and upon enterprises which they deemed too dangerous for their own citizens; and what was still worse, the ephors possessed the power of putting to death, without any form of preliminary trial, as many Perioeki as they pleased.\(^1\)

The statement here delivered by Isokratēs, respecting the first origin of the distinction of Spartans and Perioeki, is nothing better than a conjecture, nor is it even a probable conjecture, since it is based on the historical truth of the old Herakleid legend, and transports the disputes of his own time between the oligarchy and the demus into an early period to which such disputes do not belong. Nor is there anything, as far as our knowledge of Grecian history extends, to bear out his assertion that the Spartans took to themselves the least dangerous post in the field, and threw undue

\(^1\) Isokratēs, Panathenaeic Or. xii. p. 280, ἀδελφός ὁ ἄνδρας μεν τὸν ἀφνὶς διὰ τὴν ἐμφάνιαν δὲ τοὺς ἐπαυγόνιας, ἀδελφός μᾶλλον ὡς τὸν ἐμφάνιαν καὶ λέγει πολλοὶ καὶ τὸν περὶ τὸν ἄλλο ἀδελφὸν δεσπότας καὶ γὰρ ἀκεῖσας φίλους ἀδελφούς ἀριστοκράτους τοὺς ἀδελφοὺς αὐτοῦ ἀπολλέσατο.

\(^2\) Isokratēs, Orat. xii. (Panathenaeic) p. 270–271. The statement in the same oration (p. 246), that the Lamiamnanes "had put to death without trial more Greeks (πλεῖον τῶν Ἑλλήνων) than had ever been tried at Athens since Athens was a city," refers to their allies or dependents out of Laconia.
peril upon their Perioeci. Such dastardly temper was not among the sins of Sparta; but it is undoubtedly true that as the number of citizens continually diminished, so the Perioeci came to constitute, in the later times, a larger and larger proportion of the Spartan force. Yet the power which Isokratēs represents to have been vested in the ephors, of putting to death Perioeci without preliminary trial, we may fully believe to be real, and to have been exercised as often as the occasion seemed to call for it. We shall notice presently the way in which these magistrates dealt with the Helots, and shall see ample reason from thence to draw the conclusion, that whenever the ephors believed any man to be dangerous to the public peace,—whether an inferior Spartan, a Perioekus, or a Helot,—the most summary mode of getting rid of him would be considered as the best. Towards Spartans of rank and consideration they were doubtless careful and measured in their application of punishment, but the same necessity for circumspection did not exist with regard to the inferior classes: moreover the feeling, that the exigences of justice required a fair trial before punishment was inflicted, belongs to Athenian associations much more than to Spartan. How often any such summary executions may have taken place, we have no information.

We may remark that the account which Isokratēs has here given of the origin of the Laconian Perioeci is not essentially irreconcilable with that of Ephorus¹, who recounted that Eurysthenēs and

¹ Ephorus, Fragm. 18, ed. Marx, p. 836a; Strabo, viii. p. 365.
Proklès, on first conquering Laconia, had granted to the pre-existing population equal rights with the Dorians—but that Agis, son of Eurysthenès, had deprived them of this equal position, and degraded them into dependent subjects of the latter. At least the two narratives both agree in presuming that the Perieges had once enjoyed a better position, from which they had been extruded by violence. And the policy which Isokratès ascribes to the victorious Spartan oligarchs,—of driving out the demus from concentrated residence in the city to disseminated residence in many separate and insignificant townships,—seems to be the expression of that proceeding which in his time was numbered among the most efficient precautions against refractory subjects,—the Diokisis, or breaking up of a town-aggregate into villages. We cannot assign to the statement any historical authority. More-

1 Dr. Arnold (in his Dissertation on the Spartan Constitution, appended to the first volume of his Thucydides, p. 643) places greater confidence in the historical value of this narrative of Isokratès than I am inclined to do. On the other hand, Mr. G. C. Lewis, in his Review of Dr. Arnold’s Dissertation (Philological Museum, vol. ii. p. 45), considers the “account of Isokratès as completely inconsistent with that of Ephorus;” which is saying rather more, perhaps, than the tenor of the two strictly warrants. In Mr. Lewis’s excellent article, most of the difficult points respecting the Spartan constitution will be found raised and discussed in a manner highly instructive.

Another point in the statement of Isokratès is, that the Dorians at the time of the original conquest of Laconia were only 2000 in number (Or. sust. Panath., p. 286). Mr. Clinton rejects this estimate as too small, and observes, “I suspect that Isokratès, in describing the numbers of the Dorians at the original conquest, has adapted to the description the actual numbers of the Spartans in his own time” (Full. Helleni. ii. p. 406).

This seems to me a probable conjecture, and it illustrates as well the absence of data under which Isokratès or his informants laboured, as the method which they took to supply the deficiency.
over the division of Laconia into six districts, together with its distribution into townships (or the distribution of settlers into pre-existing townships), which Ephorus ascribed to the first Dorian kings, are all deductions from the primitive legendary account, which described the Dorian conquest as achieved at one stroke, and must all be dismissed, if we suppose it to have been achieved gradually. This gradual conquest is admitted by O. Müller and by many of the ablest subsequent inquirers—who nevertheless seem to have the contrary supposition involuntarily present to their minds when they criticise the early Spartan history, and always unconsciously imagine the Spartans as masters of all Laconia. We cannot even assert that Laconia was ever under one government before the consummation of the successive conquests of Sparta.

Of the assertion of O. Müller—repeated by Schömann—"that the difference of races was strictly preserved, and that the Perioeci were always considered as Achaeans"—I find no proof, and I believe it to be erroneous. Respecting Pharais, Geronthra, and Amyklai, three Perioecic towns, Pausanias gives us to understand that the pre-existing inhabitants either retired or were expelled on the Dorian conquest, and that a Dorian population replaced them. Without placing great faith in this statement, for which Pausanias could hardly

2 Pausan. iii. 2, 6; iii. 22, 5. The statement of Müller is to be found (History of the Dorians, iii. 2, 1); he quotes a passage of Pausanias which is now lost, but which may be found in the History of Pausanias, iv. 2, 23.
have any good authority, we may yet accept it as representing the probabilities of the case and as counterbalancing the unsupported hypothesis of Müller. The Periekeic townships were probably composed either of Dorians entirely, or of Dorians incorporated in greater or less proportion with the pre-existing inhabitants. But whatever difference of race there may once have been, it was effaced before the historical times\(^1\), during which we find

\(^1\) M. Kopstadt (in the learned Dissertation which I have before alluded to, De Rebus Lacoviius Constitutionis Lynceum Origine et Indole, cap. ii, p. 31) counters this position respecting the Periekeic. He appears to understand it in a sense which my words hardly present—at least a sense which I did not intend them to present: as if the majority of inhabitants in such of the hundred Periekeic towns were Dorians—"ut per centum Lacovici oppida distributa quisque sujores incolarum numerum efficere" (p. 32). I meant only to affirm that some of the Periekeic towns, such as Amyklæ, were wholly or almost wholly, Dorian; many others of them partially Dorian. But what may have been the comparative numbers (probably different in each town) of Dorian and non-Dorian inhabitants—there are no means of determining. M. Kopstadt (p. 35) admits that Amyklæ, Pheris, and Geronthra, were Periekeic towns peopled by Dorians; and if this be true, it negatives the general maxim on the faith of which he contradicts what I affirm: his maxim is—"nunquam Doriensæ à Doriensibus non bello victi erant, civitate autque iure privati sunt" (p. 31). It is very unsafe to lay down such large positions respecting a supposed uniformity of Dorian rules and practice. The high authority of O. Müller has been extremely misleading in this respect.

It is plain that Herodotus (compare his expression, viii. 73 and 1. 145) conceived all the free inhabitants of Laconia not as Achæans, but as Dorians. He believes in the story of the legend, that the Achæans, driven out of Laconia by the invading Dorians and Heraclidæ, occupied the territory in the north-west of Peloponnesus which was afterwards called Achæia,—expelling from it the Ionians. Whatever may be the truth about this legendary statement—and whatever may have been the original proportions of Dorians and Achæans in Laconia—these two races (and (in the fifth century B.C.) became confounded in one indistinguishable ethnical and political aggregate called Lacömonian or Lacëdemonian—comprising both Spartans and Periekei, though with very unequal political franchises and very material differences in individual training and habits. The case was different in Thessaly, where the
no proof of Achaeans, known as such, in Laconia. The Herakleids, the Ægeids, and the Talthybiads, all of whom belong to Sparta, seem to be the only examples of separate races (partially distinguishable from Dorians) known after the beginning of authentic history. The Spartans and the Perioeci constitute one political aggregate, and that too so completely melted together in the general opinion (speaking of the times before the battle of Leuktra), that the peace of Antalkidas, which guaranteed autonomy to every separate Grecian city, was never so construed as to divorce the Perioecic towns from Sparta. Both are known as Laconians or Lacedæmonians, and Sparta is regarded by Herodotus only as the first and bravest among the many and brave Lacedæmonian cities. 1 The victors at Olympia are proclaimed not as Spartans, but as Laconians,—a title alike borne by the Perioeci. And many of the numerous winners whose names we read in the Olympic lists as Laconians, may probably have belonged to Amyklæ or other Perioecic towns.

The Perioecic hoplites constituted always a large—in later times a preponderant—numerical proportion of the Lacedæmonian army, and must undoubtedly have been trained, more or less perfectly, in the peculiar military tactics of Sparta; since they were called upon to obey the same orders as the Spartans in the field, 2 and to perform the same

1 Herod. vii. 234.
2 Thucyd. v. 5—22. They did not however partake in the Lykourgus discipline; but they seem to be named of ὑπ' ἤτοι πόλεων μαθηταὶ as contrasted with of ἅπ' ἤτοι ὀφελῶν (Sophists ap. Athenæus. xv. p. 674).
evolutions. Some cases appear, though rare, in which a Perioeci has high command in a foreign expedition. In the time of Aristotle, the larger proportion of Laconia (then meaning only the country eastward of Taygetus, since the foundation of Messénié by Epameinondas had been consummated) belonged to Spartan citizens; but the remaining smaller half must have been the property of the Perioeci, who must besides have carried on most of the commerce of export and import—the metallurgical enterprise, and the distribution of internal produce—which the territory exhibited; since no Spartan ever meddled in such occupations. And thus the peculiar training of Lykurgus, by throwing all these employments into the hands of the Perioeci, opened to them a new source of importance.

Arist., Polit. ii. 6, 23. ἐν γὰρ τὸ τῶν Περιοεκιῶν τόπος τῆς πλειονοῦ ἡγεμονίαν ἐδέχοντος ἀλλοιοῦ τῆς εὐκομῆς.

Mr. C. G. Lewis, in the article above alluded to (Philolog. Mus. ii. p. 54), says about the Perioeci:—"They lived in the country or in small towns of the Laconian territory, and cultivated the land, which they did not hold of any individual citizen, but paid for it a tribute or rent to the state; being exactly in the same condition as the possessors of the Roman domain, or the Ryots in Hindostan before the introduction of the Permanent Settlement." It may be doubted, I think, whether the Perioeci paid any such rent or tribute as that which Mr. Lewis here supposes. The passage just cited from Aristotle seems to show that they paid direct taxation individually, and just upon the same principle as the Spartan citizens, who are distinguished only by being larger landed-proprietors. But though the principle of taxation be the same, there was practical injustice (according to Aristotle) in the mode of assessing it. "The Spartan citizens (he observes) being the largest landed-proprietors, take care not to compass strictly even other's payment of property-tax"—i.e. they wish mutually at each other's expense. If the Spartans had been the only persons who paid dôrphos or property-tax, this observation of Aristotle would have had no meaning. In principle, the tax was assessed both on their larger properties, and on the smaller properties of the Perioeci: in practice, the Spartans helped each other to evade the due proportion.
which the dependent townships of Argos, of Thebes, or of Orchomenus, would not enjoy.

The Helots of Laconia were Coloni or serfs bound to the soil, who tilled it for the benefit of the Spartan proprietors certainly—probably, of Perioeciic proprietors also. They were the rustic population of the country, who dwelt, not in towns, but either in small villages¹ or in detached farms, both in the district immediately surrounding Sparta, and round the Perioeciic Laconian towns also. Of course there were also Helots who lived in Sparta and other towns, and did the work of domestic slaves—but such was not the general character of the class. We cannot doubt that the Dorian conquest from Sparta found this class in the condition of villagers and detached rustics; but whether they were dependent upon pre-existing Achean proprietors, or independent like much of the Arcadian village population, is a question which we cannot answer. In either case, however, it is easy to conceive that the village lands (with the cultivators upon them) were the most easy to appropriate for the benefit of masters resident at Sparta; while the towns, with the district immediately around them, furnished both dwelling and maintenance to the outgoing detachments of Dorians. If the Spartans had succeeded in their attempt to enlarge their territory by the conquest of Arcadia⁵, they might very probably

¹ The village-character of the Helots is distinctly marked by Livy, xxxiv. 27, in describing the inflictions of the despots Namin—Hieron, quidam (in sunt jam inde antiquissimae castellae, aegroto genere) transfrigere voluitiae inimicati, per annos viros sub verberibus siti morantur.'

⁵ Herodot. i. 66. ἑπιστημονίκητο θυσίαν τῆς Δελφοὺς ἐν τῷ Ἀρκαδίῳ.
have converted Tegea and Mantineia into Periekeic towns, with a diminished territory inhabited (either wholly or in part) by Dorian settlers—while they would have made over to proprietors in Sparta much of the village lands of the Maenalii, Azanes, and Parchasii, helotising the inhabitants. The distinction between a town and a village population seems the main ground of the different treatment of Helots and Periekei in Laconia. A considerable proportion of the Helots were of genuine Dorian race, being the Dorian Messenians west of Mount Taygetus, subsequently conquered and aggregated to this class of dependent cultivators, who, as a class, must have begun to exist from the very first establishment of the invading Dorians in the district round Sparta. From whence the name of Helots arose we do not clearly make out: Ephorus deduced it from the town of Helus, on the southern coast, which the Spartans are said to have taken after a resistance so obstinate as to provoke them to deal very rigorously with the captives. There are many reasons for rejecting this story, and another etymology has been proposed according to which Helot is synonymous with captive: this is more plausible, yet still not convincing!

The Helots lived in the rural villages as adscripti glebae, cultivating their lands and paying over their rent to the master at Sparta, but enjoying their homes, wives, families, and mutual neighbourly feelings apart from the master's view. They were never sold out of the country, and probably never sold at all; belonging not so much to the master as

to the state, which constantly called upon them for military service, and recompensed their bravery or activity with a grant of freedom. Meno the Thessalian of Pharsalus took out three hundred Penestae of his own to aid the Athenians against Amphipolis; these Thessalian Penestae were in many points analogous to the Helots, but no individual Spartan possessed the like power over the latter. The Helots were thus a part of the state, having their domestic and social sympathies developed, a certain power of acquiring property, and the consciousness of Grecian lineage and dialect—points of marked superiority over the foreigners who formed the slave population of Athens or Chios. They seem to have been noway inferior to any village population of Greece; while the Grecian observer sympathised with them more strongly than with the bought slaves of other states—not to mention that their homogeneous aspect, their numbers, and their employment in military service, rendered them more conspicuous to the eye.

The service in the Spartan house was all performed by members of the Helot class; for there seem to have been few, if any, other slaves in the country. The various anecdotes which are told respecting their treatment at Sparta betoken less of cruelty than of ostentatious scorn—a sentiment

1. Kleomenes III. offered immemorial to every Helot who could pay down five Attic minae; he was in great immediate want of money, and he raised by this means 500 talents. Six thousand Helots must thus have been in a condition to find five minae each, which was a very considerable sum (Plutarch, Kleomenes, c. 23).

2. Such is the statement that Helots were compelled to appear in a state of drunkenness, in order to enite in the youth a sentiment of
which we are noway surprised to discover among the citizens at the mess-table. But the great mass of the Helots, who dwelt in the country, were objects of a very different sentiment on the part of the Spartan ephors, who knew their bravery, energy, and standing discontent, and yet were forced to employ them as an essential portion of the state army. The Helots commonly served as light-armed, in which capacity the Spartan hoplites could not dispense with their attendance. At the battle of Platæa, every Spartan hoplite had seven Helots, and every Perieikic hoplite one Helot to attend him: but even in camp, the Spartan arrangements were framed to guard against any sudden mutiny of these light-armed companions, while at home, the citizen habitually kept his shield disjoined from its holding-ring to prevent the possibility of its being snatched for the like purpose. Sometimes select Helots were clothed in heavy repugnance against intoxication (Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 20), also Adversus Stoicos de Commum. Notit. c. 19, p. 1067).

1 Herod. ii. 29. The Spartans at Thermopylae seem to have been attended each by only one Helot (vii. 229).

2 O. Müller seems to consider that the light-armed who attended the Perieikic hoplites at Platæa were not Helots (Dor. iii. 3, 6). Herodotus does not distinctly say that they were so, but I see no reason for admitting two different classes of light-armed in the Spartan military force.

The calculation which Müller gives of the number of Perieikic and Helots altogether proceeds upon very untrustworthy data. Among them is to be noticed his supposition that κόλακος γυνα means the district of Sparta as distinguished from Laconia, which is contrary to the passage in Polybius (vii. 45). κόλακος γυνα in Polybius means the territory of the state generally.

3 Xenophon, Rep. Lac. c. 12, 4; Critias, De Laconiam, Repub. ap. Libanius, Orat. de Servitute, ii. 2, p. 85, Heuck. de itinere diem cu την τρόπον τον κοτέλα χαμε και Ιππαρτικής ευτύχες της άνευδοι της περί-πος, &c.
armour, and thus served in the ranks, receiving manumission from the state as the reward of distinguished bravery.¹

But Sparta, even at the maximum of her power, was more than once endangered by the reality, and always beset with the apprehension, of Helotic revolt. To prevent or suppress it, the ephors submitted to insert express stipulations for aid in their treaties with Athens—to invite Athenian troops into the heart of Laconia—and to practise combinations of cunning and atrocity which even yet stand without parallel in the long list of precautions for fortifying unjust dominion. It was in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war, after the Helots had been called upon for signal military efforts in various ways, and when the Athenians and Messenians were in possession of Pylus, that the ephors felt especially apprehensive of an outbreak. Anxious to single out the most forward and daring Helots, as the men from whom they had most to dread, they issued proclamation that every member of that class who had rendered distinguished services should make his claims known at Sparta, promising liberty to the most deserving. A large number of Helots came forward to claim the boon; not less than 2000 of them were approved, formally manumitted, and led in solemn procession round the temples, with garlands on their heads, as an inauguration to their coming life of freedom. But the treacherous garland only marked them out as victims for the sacrifice; every man of them

¹ Thucyd. i. 101; iv. 90; v. 14-23.
forthwith disappeared,—the manner of their death was an untold mystery.

For this dark and bloody deed Thucydides is our witness¹, and Thucydides describing a contemporary matter into which he had inquired. Upon any less evidence we should have hesitated to believe the statement; but standing as it thus does above all suspicion, it speaks volumes as to the inhuman character of the Lacedaemonian government, while it lays open to us at the same time the intensity of their fears from the Helots. In the assassination of this fated regiment of brave men, a large number of auxiliaries and instruments must have been concerned: yet Thucydides with all his inquiries could not find out how any of them perished: he tells us, that no man knew. We see here a fact which demonstrates unequivocally the impenetrable mystery in which the proceedings of the Spartan government were wrapped,—the absence not only of public discussion, but of public curiosity,—and the perfection with which the ephors reigned over the will, the hands, and the tongues, of their Spartan subjects. The Venetian Council of Ten, with all the facilities for nocturnal drowning which their city presented, could hardly have accomplished so vast a coup-d'etat with such invisible means. And we may judge from hence, even if we had no other evidence, how little the habits of a public assembly could have suited either the temper of mind, or the march of government, at Sparta.

Other proceedings, ascribed to the ephors against

¹ Thucyd. ii. 50. οἱ δὲ οἱ τολμήσαντες εμφανίσαντε τε σέβεθη, καὶ οἴδατο γαθεύει την τρίτην εκπομπήν κινηθήναι.
the Helots, are conceived in the same spirit as the incident just recounted from Thucydides, though they do not carry with them the same certain attestation. It was a part of the institutions of Lykurgus (according to a statement which Plutarch professes to have borrowed from Aristotle) that the ephors should every year declare war against the Helots, in order that the murder of them might be rendered innocent; and that active young Spartans should be armed with daggers and sent about Laconia, in order that they might, either in solitude or at night, assassinate such of the Helots as were considered formidable. This last measure passes by the name of the Krypteia, yet we find some difficulty in determining to what extent it was ever realised. That the ephors, indeed, would not be restrained by any scruples of justice or humanity, is plainly shown by the murder of the 2000 Helots above noticed; but this latter incident really answered its purpose, while a standing practice such as that of the Krypteia, and a formal notice of war given beforehand, would provoke the reaction of despair rather than enforce tranquillity. There seems indeed good evidence that the Krypteia was a real practice,—that the ephors kept up a system of police or espionage throughout Laconia by the employment of active young citizens, who lived a hard and solitary life, and suffered their motions to be as little detected as possible. The ephors

1 Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 28; Heracleides Pontic. p. 504, ed. Crac.
2 Plato, Legg. i. p. 623; the words of the Lacedaemonian Megillus designate an existing Spartan custom. Compare the same treatise, vi. p. 763, where Ast suspends without reason, the gloriouness of the word σπαρτεί.
might naturally enough take this method of keeping watch both over the Pericleic townships and the Helot villages, and the assassination of individual Helots by these police-men or Krypts would probably pass unnoticed. But it is impossible to believe in any standing murderous order, or deliberate annual assassination of Helots, for the purpose of intimidation, as Aristotle is alleged to have represented—for we may well doubt whether he really did make such a representation, when we see that he takes no notice of this measure in his Politics, where he speaks at some length both of the Spartan constitution and of the Helots. The well-known hatred and fear, entertained by the Spartans towards their Helots, has probably coloured Plutarch's description of the Kryptea, so as to exaggerate those unpunished murders which occasionally happened into a constant phenomenon with express design. A similar deduction is to be made from the statement of Myron of Priene, who alleged that they were beaten every year without any special fault, in order to put them in mind of their slavery—and that those Helots, whose superior beauty or stature placed them above the visible stamp of their condition, were put to death; whilst such masters as neglected to keep down the spirit of their vigorous Helots were punished. That secrecy, for which the ephors were so remarkable, seems enough of itself to refute the assertion that they publicly proclaimed war against the Helots; though we may well believe that this unhappy class

1 Myron, ap. Athenae, xiv. p. 607; ἐπιχορήγη τοις ἀδιόποισιν ἄρχων, does not strictly mean "to put to death."
of men may have been noticed as objects for jealous observation in the annual ephoric oath of office. Whatever may have been the treatment of the Helots in later times, it is at all events hardly to be supposed that any regulation hostile to them can have emanated from Lykurgus. For the dangers arising from that source did not become serious until after the Messenian war—not indeed until after the gradual diminution of the number of Spartan citizens had made itself felt.

The manumitted Helots did not pass into the class of Periekti,—for this purpose a special grant, of the freedom of some Periektic township, would probably be required,—but constituted a class apart, known at the time of the Peloponnesian war by the name of Neodamôdes. Being persons who had earned their liberty by signal bravery, they were of course regarded by the ephors with peculiar apprehension, and if possible, employed on foreign service⁰, or planted on some foreign soil as settlers. In what manner these freedmen employed themselves, we find no distinct information; but we can hardly doubt that they quitted the Helot village and field, together with the rural costume (the leather cap and sheepskin) which the Helot commonly wore, and the change of which exposed him to suspicion, if not to punishment, from his jealous masters. Probably they, as well as the disfranchised Spartan citizens (called Hypomeiones or Inferiors), became congregated at Sparta, and found employment either in various trades or in the service of the government.

Thucyd. v. 34.
It has been necessary to give this short sketch of the orders of men who inhabited Laconia, in order to enable us to understand the statements given about the legislation of Lykurgus. The arrangements ascribed to that lawgiver, in the way that Plutarch describes them, presuppose, and do not create, the three orders of Spartans, Perioeci, and Helots. We are told by Plutarch that the disorders which Lykurgus found existing in the state arose in a great measure from the gross inequality of property, and from the luxurious indulgence and unprincipled rapacity of the rich—who had drawn to themselves the greater proportion of the lands in the country, leaving a large body of poor, without any lot of land, in hopeless misery and degradation. To this inequality (according to Plutarch) the reforming legislator applied at once a stringent remedy. He redistributed the whole territory belonging to Sparta, as well as the remainder of Laconia: the former in 9000 equal lots, one to each Spartan citizen; the latter in 30,000 equal lots, one to each Perioecus; of this alleged distribution I shall speak farther presently. Moreover he banished the use of gold and silver money, tolerating nothing in the shape of circulating medium but pieces of iron, heavy and scarcely portable; and he forbade to the Spartan citizen every species of industrious or money-seeking occupation, agriculture included. He farther constituted—though not without strenuous opposition, during the course of which his eye is said to have been knocked out by a violent youth, named Alkander—the Syssitia or public mess.

Xenophon, Rep. Lac. c. 7.
A certain number of joint tables were provided, and every citizen was required to belong to some one of them and habitually to take his meals at it—no new member being admissible without an unanimous ballot in his favour by the previous occupants. Each provided from his lot of land a specified quota of barley-meal, wine, cheese and figs, and a small contribution of money for condiments: game was obtained in addition by hunting in the public forests of the state, while every one who sacrificed to the gods, sent to his mess-table a part of the victim killed. From boyhood to old age, every Spartan citizen took his sober meals at this public mess, where all shared alike; nor was distinction of any kind allowed, except on signal occasions of service rendered by an individual to the state.

These public Syssitia, under the management of the Polemarchs, were connected with the military distribution, the constant gymnastic training, and the rigorous discipline of detail, enforced by Lycurgus. From the early age of seven years throughout his whole life, as youth and man no less than as boy, the Spartan citizen lived habitually in public, always either himself under drill, gymnastic and military, or a critic and spectator of others—always under the fetters and observances of a rule partly military, partly monastic—estranged from the independence of a separate home—seeing his wife, during the first years after marriage, only by stealth, and maintaining little peculiar relation

1 Pintarch, Lykurg. c. 13; substantially confirmed by Xenophon, Rep. Lac. c. 1, 5.
2 See the authors quoted in Athenaeus, iv. p. 141.
with his children. The supervision not only of his fellow-citizens, but also of authorised censors or captains nominated by the state, was perpetually acting upon him: his day was passed in public exercises and meals, his nights in the public barrack to which he belonged. Besides the particular military drill, whereby the complicated movements, required from a body of Lacedaemonian hoplites in the field, were made familiar to him from his youth—he also became subject to severe bodily discipline of other kinds, calculated to impart strength, activity, and endurance. To manifest a daring and pugnacious spirit—to sustain the greatest bodily torture unmoved—to endure hunger and thirst, heat, cold and fatigue—to tread the worst ground barefoot, to wear the same garment winter and summer—to suppress external manifestations of feeling, and to exhibit in public, when action was not called for, a bearing shy, silent, and motionless as a statue—all these were the virtues of the accomplished Spartan youth. Two squadrons were often matched against each other to contend (without arms) in the little insular circumscription called the Platanistós, and these contests were carried on, under the eye of the authorities, with the utmost extremity of fury. Nor was the competition among them less obstinate, to bear without murmuring the cruel scourgings inflicted before the altar of Artemis.

1 Xenophon, Rep. Lac 2-3, 3-5, 4-6. The extreme pains taken to enforce squireia (fortitude and endurance) in the Spartan system is especially dwelt upon by Aristotle (Politics, ii. 6, b 16); compare Plato, De Legibus, i. p. 623; Xenophon, De Laced. Repub. ii. 9—with the references in Schneider's note—likewise Craganus, De Republica Laced. iii. 8: p. 325.
Orthia, supposed to be highly acceptable to the goddess, though they sometimes terminated even in the death of the uncomplaining sufferer. Besides the various descriptions of gymnastic contests, the youths were instructed in the choric dances employed in festivals of the gods, which contributed to impart to them methodized and harmonious movements. Hunting in the woods and mountains

It is remarkable that these violent contentions of the youth, wherein kicking, biting, gouging out each other's eyes, was resorted to—as well as the ἱππαρτιάς or scurrying-match before the altar of Artemis—lasted down to the closing days of Sparta, and were actually seen by Cicero, Plutarch, and even Paussanias. Plutarch had seen several persons die under the suffering (Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 16, 18–20; and Institut. Lacon. p. 239); Pausan. iii. 14, 9, 16, 7; Cicero, Tuscul. Disp. ii. 15).

The voluntary tortures, undergone by the young men among the Maundan tribe of Indians at their annual religious festival, in the presence of the elders of the tribe,—afford a striking illustration of the same principles and tendencies as this Spartan ἱππαρτιάς. They are endured partly under the influence of religious feelings, as an acceptable offering to the Great Spirit,—partly as a point of emulation and glory on the part of the young men, to show themselves worthy and unconquerable in the eyes of their seniors. The intensity of these tortures is indeed frightful to read, and far surpasses in that respect anything ever witnessed at Sparta. It would be incredible, were it not attested by a trustworthy eye-witness.


"These religious ceremonies are held, in part, for the purpose of conducting all the young men of the tribe, as they annually arrive at manhood, through an ordeal of privation and torture; which, while it is supposed to harden their muscles and prepare them for extreme endurance—enables the chiefs who are spectators of the scene, to decide upon their comparative bodily strength and ability, to endure the extreme privations and sufferings that often fall to the lot of Indian warriors; and that they may decide who is the most hardy and best able to lead a war-party in case of emergency."—Again, p. 173, &c.

The ἀποθέωσις or power of endurance (Aristot. Pol. ii. 6, 3–16) which formed one of the prominent objects of the Lykurgian training, dwindles into nothing compared to that of the Maundan Indians.

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of Laconia was encouraged, as a means of inuring them to fatigue and privation. The nourishment supplied to the youthful Spartans was purposely kept insufficient, but they were allowed to make up the deficiency not only by hunting, but even by stealing whatever they could lay hands upon, provided they could do so without being detected in the fact; in which latter case they were severely chastised. In reference simply to bodily results, the training at Sparta was excellent, combining strength and agility with universal aptitude and endurance, and steering clear of that mistake by which Thebes and other cities impaired the effect of their gymnastics—the attempt to create an athletic habit, suited for the games, but suited for nothing else.

Of all the attributes of this remarkable community, there is none more difficult to make out clearly than the condition and character of the Spartan women. Aristotle asserts that in his time they were imperious and unruly, without being really so brave and useful in moments of danger as other Grecian females; that they possessed great influe-

1 Xenophon, Anab. iv. 6, 14; and De Repub. Lac. c. 2, 6; Isokrates, Or. xii. (Panath.) p. 277. It is these licensed expeditions for thieving, I presume, to which Isokrates alludes when he speaks of τῆς σαλικες ἀκρομασίας at Sparta, which in its natural sense would be the reverse of the truth (p. 277).

2 Aristotel, Polit. viii. 3, 3—the remark is curious—ἐν τούτῳ αὐτῇ τὸν πατὴρ ἐξανέθηκε τοῖς παθίναις ἐπεμελεῖς τοῖς παιδίοις αὐτῶν ἀπὸ τῶν ἐνδυμάτων ἀνδρῶν, μικρὰς τὰ τέσσαρα τῶν σώματος οἱ δὲ ἀνίσβεσται τοῖς πάν των ἄνθρωπων τῆς ἀμύριν. Κε. Compare the remark in Plato, Protagoras. p. 342.

3 Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 5; Plutarch, Agesilas, c. 31. Aristotle alludes to the conduct of the Spartan women on the occasion of the in-
ence over the men, and even exercised much ascendancy over the course of public affairs; and that nearly half the landed property of Laconia had come to belong to them. The exemption of the women from all control formed, in his eye, a pointed contrast with the rigorous discipline imposed upon the men,—and a contrast hardly less pointed with the condition of women in other Grecian cities, where they were habitually confined to the interior of the house, and seldom appeared in public. While the Spartan husband went through the hard details of his ascetic life, and dined on the plainest fare at the Pheidition or mess, the wife (it appears) maintained an ample and luxurious establishment at home, and the desire to provide for such outlay was one of the causes of that love of money which prevailed among men forbidden to enjoy it in the ordinary ways. To explain this antithesis between the treatment of the two sexes at Sparta, Aristotle was informed that Lykurgus had tried to bring the women no less than the men under a system of discipline, but that they made so obstinate a resistance as to compel him to desist.

The view here given by the philosopher, and deserving of course careful attention, is not easy to reconcile with that of Xenophon and Plutarch, who

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1 Aristotle, Pol. ii. 6, 5, 8, 11.
look upon the Spartan women from a different side, and represent them as worthy and homogeneous companions to the men. The Lykurgean system (as these authors describe it), considering the women as a part of the state, and not as a part of the house, placed them under training hardly less than the men. Its grand purpose, the maintenance of a vigorous breed of citizens, determined both the treatment of the younger women, and the regulations as to the intercourse of the sexes. "Female slaves are good enough (Lykurgus thought) to sit at home spinning and weaving—but who can expect a splendid offspring, the appropriate mission and duty of a free Spartan woman towards her country, from mothers brought up in such occupations?" Pursuant to these views, the Spartan damsels underwent a bodily training analogous to that of the Spartan youth—being formally exercised, and contending with each other in running, wrestling and boxing, agreeably to the forms of the Grecian agonés. They seem to have worn a light tunic, cut open at the skirts, so as to leave the limbs both free and exposed to view—hence Plutarch speaks of them as completely uncovered, while other critics in different quarters of Greece heaped similar reproach upon the practice, as if it had been perfect nakedness.

1 Xenoph. Rep. Lec. i. 3-4; Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 13-14.
2 Eunip. Androm. 38; Cicero, Tuscul. Quest. ii. 15. The epithet iuniorescere, as old as the poet Hymen, shows that the Spartan women were not uncovered (see Julius Pollux, vii. 55).

It is scarcely worth while to notice the partial allusions of Ovid and Propertius.

How completely the practice of gymnastic and military training for young women, analogous to that of the other sex, was approved by Plato, may be seen from the injunctions in his Republic.
sence of the Spartan youths, and even of the kings and the body of citizens, at these exercises, lent animation to the scene. In like manner, the young women marched in the religious processions, sung and danced at particular festivals, and witnessed as spectators the exercises and contentions of the youths; so that the two sexes were perpetually intermingled with each other in public, in a way foreign to the habits, as well as repugnant to the feelings, of other Grecian states. We may well conceive that such an education imparted to the women both a demonstrative character and an eager interest in masculine accomplishments, so that the expression of their praise was the strongest stimulus, and that of their reproach the bitterest humiliation, to the youthful troop who heard it.

The age of marriage (which in some of the unrestrained cities of Greece was so early as to deteriorate visibly the breed of citizens) was deferred by the Spartan law, both in women and men, until the period supposed to be most consistent with the perfection of the offspring. And when we read the restriction which Spartan custom imposed upon the intercourse even between married persons, we shall conclude without hesitation that the public intermixture of the sexes in the way just described led to no such liberties, between persons not married, as might be likely to arise from it under other circumstances. Marriage was almost universal among

1 Aristotle, Pol. iv. 14, 4.
2 "It is certain (observes Dr. Thirlwall, speaking of the Spartan unmarried women) that in this respect the Spartan morals were as pure as those of any ancient, perhaps of any modern, people." (History of Greece, ch. viii. vol. i. p. 357.)
the citizens, enforced by general opinion at least, if not by law. The young Spartan carried away his bride by a simulated abduction, but she still seems, for some time at least, to have continued to reside with her family, visiting her husband in his barracks in the disguise of male attire and on short and stolen occasions. To some married couples, according to Plutarch, it happened, that they had been married long enough to have two or three children, while they had scarcely seen each other apart by daylight. Secret intrigue on the part of married women was unknown at Sparta; but to bring together the finest couples was regarded by the citizens as desirable, and by the lawgiver as a duty. No personal feeling or jealousy on the part of the husband found sympathy from any one—and he permitted without difficulty, sometimes actively encouraged, compliances on the part of his wife consistent with this generally acknowledged object. So far was such toleration carried, that there were some married women who were recognised mistresses of two houses, and mothers of two distinct families,—a sort of bigamy strictly forbidden to the men, and never permitted except in the re-

1 Plutarch, Lycurg. v. 15; Xenoph. Rep. Lac. i. 5. Xenophon does not make any allusion to the abduction as a general custom. There occurred cases in which it was real and violent: see Herod. v. 65. Demaratus carried off and married the betrothed bride of Lentycides.

2 Xenoph. Rep. Lac. i. 9. Εί δὲ τὸ γένος μη γεννηθείν μη συμπωτείν μη μεγαλυτείν τεκνον, καλον τις γεννηθείν εκτιμάν, εύτερ σπέρμα ξενών εκτιμάν, ἐναντίον τινος εὐτυκος κράτος, τελείως τό τις ἐπηρτήθη, οὐ τίτλος τελείως εἰς τό τις εὐτυκος κράτος. Εἰ τοῦτο πως ἐπηρτήθη κατεχόμεν τοῦτον, τοῦτον οὐκ ἀναληφθείν τοῖς προελεύσαμεν, τοῦ τιοῦτο γένος καὶ τῆς ἐνδομος δωματίου, τὸν δὲ χρηματος εἰς ἀντιποιόσιν.
markable case of king Anaxandrides, when the royal Herakleidan line of Eurysthenes was in danger of becoming extinct. The wife of Anaxandrides being childless, the ephors strongly urged him, on grounds of public necessity, to repudiate her and marry another. But he refused to dismiss a wife who had given him no cause of complaint; upon which, when they found him inexorable, they desired him to retain her, but to marry another wife besides, in order that at any rate there might be issue to the Eurystheneid line. "He thus (says Herodotus) married two wives, and inhabited two family-hearths, a proceeding unknown at Sparta;" yet the same privilege which, according to Xenophon, some Spartan women enjoyed without reproach from any one, and with perfect harmony between the inmates of both their houses. O. Müller's remarks—and the evidence, as far as we know it, bears him out—that love-marriages and genuine affection towards a wife were more familiar to Sparta than to Athens; though in the former, marital jealousy was a sentiment neither indulged nor recognised—while in the latter, it was intense and universal.

To reconcile the careful gymnastic training,

1 Herodot. i. 39–40. Μείγα ὅλη τείχα, γυναικας ἔχων δ' δίκα, δύσες ἱωτία

2 Müller, Hist. of Dorians, iv. 4, 1. The stories recounted by Plutarch [Agris, c. 20; Kleomenes, c. 57–58] of the conduct of Agesistrata and Kretensklis, the wives of Agris and Kleomenes, and of the wife of Pantens (whom he does not name) on occasion of the deaths of their respective husbands, illustrate powerfully the strong conjugal affection of a Spartan woman, and her devoted adherence and fortitude in sharing with her husband the last extremities of suffering.

3 See the Oration of Lysias, De Const Estosthenis, Orat. i. p. 54 seq.
Number of rich women in the time of Aristotle—they had procured exemption from the general training.

which Xenophon and Plutarch mention, with that uncontrolled luxury and relaxation which Aristotle condemns in the Spartan women, we may perhaps suppose, that in the time of the latter the women of high position and wealth had contrived to emancipate themselves from the general obligation, and that it is of such particular cases that he chiefly speaks. He dwells especially upon the increasing tendency to accumulate property in the hands of the women, which seems to have been still more conspicuous a century afterwards in the reign of Agis III. And we may readily imagine that one of the employments of wealth thus acquired would be to purchase exemption from laborious training, an object more easy to accomplish in their case than in that of the men, whose services were required by the state as soldiers. By what steps so large a proportion as two-fifths of the landed property of the state came to be possessed by women, he partially explains to us. There were (he says) many sole heiresses, the dowries given by fathers to their daughters were very large, and the father had unlimited power of testamentary bequest, which he was disposed to use to the advantage of his daughter over his son. In conjunction with this last circumstance, we have to notice that peculiar sympathy and yielding disposition towards women in the Spartan mind, of which Aristotle also speaks, and which he ascribes to the warlike temper both of the

1 Plutarch, Agis, c. 4.
2 Aristotle, Politi., ii. 6, 6; Plutarch, Agis, c. 4. τὸν Ἀκραμμὸντα στρατηγὸν ἀπὸ τῶν γυναικῶν, καὶ πλῆθος λείπον τῶν δημοσίων, ἣ τῶν ἱδρυμάτων, πολυπραγμοστοί διῆκον.
citizen and the state,—Arês bearing the yoke of Aphroditē. But apart from such a consideration, if we suppose on the part of a wealthy Spartan father the simple disposition to treat sons and daughters alike as to bequest,—nearly one half of the inherited mass of property would naturally be found in the hands of the daughters, since on an average of families the number of the two sexes born is nearly equal. In most societies, it is the men who make new acquisitions: but this seldom or never happened with Spartan men, who disdained all money-getting occupations.

Xenophon, a warm panegyrist of Spartan manners, points with some pride to the tall and vigorous breed of citizens which the Lykurgic institutions had produced. The beauty of the Lacedāemonian women was notorious throughout Greece, and Lampitō, the Lacedāemonian woman introduced in the Lysistrata of Aristophanēs, is made to receive from the Athenian women the loudest compliments upon her fine shape and masculine vigour. We may remark that, on this as well as on the other points, Xenophon emphatically insists on the peculiarity of Spartan institutions, contradicting thus the views of those who regard them merely as something a little Hyper-Dorian. Indeed such peculiarity seems never to have been questioned in antiquity, either by the enemies or by the admirers of Sparta. And those who censured the public masculine exercises of the Spartan maidens, as well as the liberty tolerated in married women, allowed at the same time that the feelings of both were actively

1 Aristophan. Lysistr. 80.
identified with the state to a degree hardly known in Greece; that the patriotism of the men greatly depended upon the sympathy of the other sex, which manifested itself publicly, in a manner not compatible with the recluse life of Grecian women generally, to the exaltation of the brave as well as to the abasement of the recreant; and that the dignified bearing of the Spartan matrons under private family loss seriously assisted the state in the task of bearing up against public reverses. "Return either with your shield or upon it," was their exhortation to their sons when departing for foreign service; and after the fatal day of Leuktra, those mothers who had to welcome home their surviving sons in dishonour and defeat, were the bitter sufferers; while those whose sons had perished, maintained a bearing comparatively cheerful.

Such were the leading points of the memorable Spartan discipline, strengthened in its effect on the mind by the absence of communication with strangers. For no Spartan could go abroad without leave, nor were strangers permitted to stay at Sparta; they came thither, it seems, by a sort of sufferance, but the uncourteous process called xenèlasy* was always

1 See the remarkable account in Xenophon, Hellen. iv. 16.; Plutarch, Agesil. c. 29.; one of the most striking incidents in Grecian history. Compare also the string of sayings ascribed to Lacedæmonian women, in Plutarch, Lae. Apophth. p. 241 seq.

2 How offensive the Lacedæmonian xenèlasy or expulsion of strangers appeared in Greece, we may see from the speeches of Perikles in Thucydides i. 144.; ii. 29.; Compare Xenophon, Rep. Lae. xiv. 4.; Plutarch, Agis, c. 10.; Lykurgus, c. 27.; Plato, Protagoras, p. 348.

* Spartan left the country without permission; Isokratès, Orat. xi. (B beverage), p. 225.; Xenoph. An. rep. 1.

Both these regulations became much relaxed after the close of the Peloponnesian war.
available to remove them, nor could there arise in Sparta that class of resident metics or aliens who constituted a large part of the population of Athens, and seem to have been found in most other Grecian towns. It is in this universal schooling, training and drilling, imposed alike upon boys and men, youths and virgins, rich and poor, that the distinctive attribute of Sparta is to be sought—not in her laws or political constitution.

Lykurgus (or the individual to whom this system is owing, whoever he was) is the founder of a warlike brotherhood rather than the lawgiver of a political community; his brethren live together like bees in a hive (to borrow a simile from Plutarch), with all their feelings implicated in the commonwealth, and divorced from house and home¹. Far from contemplating the society as a whole, with its multifarious wants and liabilities, he interdicts beforehand, by one of the three primitive Rhetrae, all written laws, that is to say, all formal and premeditated enactments on any special subject. When disputes are to be settled or judicial interference is required, the magistrate is to decide from his own sense of equity; that the magistrate will not depart from the established customs and recognized purposes of the city, is presumed from the personal discipline which he and the select body to whom he belongs, have undergone. It is this select body, maintained by the labour of others, over whom Lykurgus exclusively watches, with the provident eye of a trainer, for the purpose of disciplining them into a state of regimental prepara-

¹ Plutarch. Lyurg. c. 25.
tion, single-minded obedience, and bodily efficiency and endurance, so that they may be always fit and ready for defence, for conquest and for dominion. The parallel of the Lykurgean institutions is to be found in the Republic of Plato, who approves the Spartan principle of select guardians carefully trained and administering the community at discretion; with this momentous difference indeed, that the Spartan character formed by Lykurgus is of a low type, rendered savage and fierce by exclusive and overdone bodily discipline,—destitute even of the elements of letters,—immersed in their own narrow specialities, and taught to despise all that lay beyond,—possessing all the qualities requisite to procure dominion, but none of those calculated to render dominion popular or salutary to the subject:

1 Plutarch observes justly about Sparta under the discipline of Lykurgus, that it was "not the polity of a city, but the life of a trained and skilful man"—ου τὸνόμον ο Σπαρτην πολιτείαν, ἀλλ’ ἄνδρα στρατεύοντος καὶ νομοθέτην ἦσσον τεχνών (Plutarch, Lyk. c. 39).

About the perfect habit of obedience at Sparta, see Xenophon, Mem. iii. 3, 9, 15, iv. 4, 15, the grand attributes of Sparta in the eyes of its admirers (Isokrates, Panathen. Or. xii. p. 268-278), πατριαρχείον—οὐκ ἀθανάτω, τὸ γεωργικόν τέκνα κατανέμει καὶ πρὸς τὴν ἁγιασμαν τοῦ ναὸν καὶ πρὸς τὴν ὀμοσίαν καὶ συνόλον τῆς περί τοῦ πολέμου ὑπερίδαν. 2 Aristot. Polit. vili. 3, 3. Οἱ λάκκοις ἀπεργεῖσται ταῖς τεσσάρες

That the Spartans were absolutely ignorant of letters, and could not read, is expressly stated by Isokrates (Panathen. Or. xii. p. 277) οὐκ ὤντως ἀπεργηθεμένοι τῆς κατανοήσεως καὶ φιλοσοφίας εἰδε, οὐκ ἀδιέξοδον γράμματα μαθάντες, &c.

The preference of rhetoric to science is so manifest in Isokrates, that we ought to understand his expressions with some reserve; but in this case it is evident that he means literally what he says, for in another part of the same discourse there is an expression dropt almost unconscious which confirms it. "The most rational Spartans (he says) will appreciate this discourse, if they find my one to read it to them"—ὁ λόγος τῶν διευκρινόμενων (p. 255). See the second Appendix to this volume, page 639.
while the habits and attributes of the guardians, as shadowed forth by Plato, are enlarged as well as philanthropic, qualifying them not simply to govern, but to govern for purposes protective, conciliatory and exalted. Both Plato and Aristotle conceive as the perfection of society something of the Spartan type—a select body of equally privileged citizens, disengaged from industrious pursuits, and subjected to public and uniform training. Both admit (with Lykurgus) that the citizen belongs neither to himself nor to his family, but to his city; both at the same time note with regret, that the Spartan training was turned only to one portion of human virtue—that which is called forth in a state of war; the citizens being converted into a sort of garrison, always under drill, and always ready to be called forth either against Helots at home or against enemies abroad. Such exclusive tendency will appear less astonishing if we consider the very early and insecure period at which the Lykurgean institutions arose, when none of those guarantees which afterwards maintained the peace of the Hellenic world had as yet become effective—no constant habits of intercourse, no custom of meeting in Amphiktyony from the distant parts of Greece, no common or largely frequented festivals, no multiplication of proxenies (or standing tickets of hospitality) between the important cities, no pacific or industrious habits anywhere. When we contemplate the general insecurity of Grecian life in the ninth or eighth century before the Christian æra,

1 Aristotle, Pol. ii. 6, 22; vii. 13, 11; viii. 1, 3; viii. 3, 3. Plato, Leg. i. p. 626-629. Plutarch, Solon, c. 22.
and especially the precarious condition of a small band of Dorian conquerors in Sparta and its district, with subdued Helots on their own lands and Achaeans unsubdued all around them—we shall not be surprised that the language which Brasidas in the Peloponnesian war addresses to his army in reference to the original Spartan settlement, was still more powerfully present to the mind of Lycurgus four centuries earlier—"We are a few in the midst of many enemies; we can only maintain ourselves by fighting and conquering!"

Under such circumstances, the exclusive aim which Lycurgus proposed to himself is easily understood; but what is truly surprising, is the violence of his means and the success of the result. He realized his project of creating in the 8000 or 9000 Spartan citizens unrivalled habits of obedience, hardihood, self-denial, and military aptitude—complete subjection on the part of each individual to the local public opinion, and preference of death to the abandonment of Spartan maxims—intense ambition on the part of every one to distinguish himself within the prescribed sphere of duties, with little ambition for anything else. In what manner so rigorous a system of individual training can have been first brought to bear upon any community, mastering the course of the thoughts and actions from boyhood to old age—a work far more

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Timocles, iv. 126, Ο ου μεν δη ρωτησιν τεστατ' ἔτεκτε, κατ' αυτοῖς ἐπικαρδικῷ, ἐπὶ αὐτοὺς μίκην ἑλκομεν· οὐκ ἄλλη τεκμήρια τῆς δικαιοσύνης τῆς μεγάλητος καταταξης.

The most remarkable circumstance is, that these words are addressed by Brasidas to an army composed in large proportion of uncommitted Helots (Timocles, iv. 81).
difficult than any political revolution—we are not permitted to discover. Nor does even the influence of an earnest and energetic Herakleid man—seconded by the still more powerful working of the Delphian god behind, upon the strong pious susceptibilities of the Spartan mind—sufficiently explain a phenomenon so remarkable in the history of mankind, unless we suppose them aided by some combination of co-operating circumstances which history has not transmitted to us¹, and preceded by disorders so exaggerated as to render the citizens glad to escape from them at any price.

Respecting the ante-Lykurgean Sparta we possess no positive information whatever. But although this unfortunate gap cannot be filled up, we may yet master the negative probabilities of the case, sufficiently to see that in what Plutarch has told us (and from Plutarch the modern views have, until lately, been derived), there is indeed a basis of reality, but there is also a large superstructure of romance,—in not a few particulars essentially misleading. For example, Plutarch treats Lykurgus as introducing his reforms at a time when Sparta was mistress of Laconia, and distributing the whole of that territory among the Perioeci. Now we know that Laconia was not then in possession of Sparta, and that the partition of Lykurgus (assuming it to be real) could only have been applied to the land in the immediate vicinity of the latter. For even Amykia, Pharis, and Geronthra, were not conquered until the reign of Tèleklus, posterior to

¹ Plato treats the system of Lykurgus as emanating from the Delphian Apollo, and Lykurgus as his missionary (Legg. 1. p. 622).
any period which we can reasonably assign to Lykurgus: nor can any such distribution of Laconia have really occurred. Farther, we are told that Lykurgus banished from Sparta coined gold and silver, useless professions and frivolities, eager pursuit of gain, and ostentatious display. Without dwelling upon the improbability that any one of these anti-Spartan characteristics should have existed at so early a period as the ninth century before the Christian æra, we may at least be certain that coined silver was not then to be found, since it was first introduced into Greece by Pheidon of Argos in the succeeding century, as has been stated in the preceding section.

But amongst all the points stated by Plutarch, the most suspicious by far, and the most misleading, because endless calculations have been built upon it, is the alleged redivision of landed property. He tells us that Lykurgus found fearful inequality in the landed possessions of the Spartans; nearly all the land in the hands of a few, and a great multitude without any land; that he rectified this evil by a redivision of the Spartan district into 9000 equal lots, and the rest of Laconia into 30,000, giving to each citizen as much as would produce a given quota of barley, &c.; and that he wished moreover to have divided the moveable property upon similar principles of equality, but was deterred by the difficulties of carrying his design into execution.

Now we shall find on consideration that this new and equal partition of lands by Lykurgus is still more at variance with fact and probability than the
two former alleged proceedings. All the historical evidences exhibit decided inequalities of property among the Spartans—inequalities which tended constantly to increase; moreover, the earlier authors do not conceive this evil as having grown up by way of abuse out of a primeval system of perfect equality, nor do they know anything of the original equal redivision by Lykurgus. Even as early as the poet Alkæus (a.e. 600–580) we find bitter complaints of the oppressive ascendency of wealth, and the degradation of the poor man, cited as having been pronounced by Aristodémon at Sparta: "Wealth (said he) makes the man—no poor person is either accounted good or honoured." Next, the historian Hellanikus certainly knew nothing of the Lykurgean redivision—for he ascribed the whole Spartan polity to Eurysthenés and Proklês, the original founders, and hardly noticed Lykurgus at all. Again, in the brief but impressive description of the Spartan lawgiver by Herodotus, several other institutions are alluded to, but nothing is said about a redivision of the lands; and this latter point is in itself of such transcendent moment, and was so recognised among all Grecian thinkers, that the omission is almost a demonstration of ignorance. Thucydídês certainly could not have believed that equality of property was an original feature in the Lykurgean system; for he says that at Lacedaemon "the rich men assimilated themselves greatly in respect of

1 Alexi Fragment. 41. p. 279, ed. Schneidewin—

"Ο νόμος ήταν" Ἀριστοδήμου Ἀρείου τοῦ πολίτη Σπαρτής Ἐλήθη—Χρηματον αἰρετον ἀλλὰ νομον ἐοίκειον ἐστὶν ἀλλὰ τιμως. Compare the Schol. ad. Pindar. Isthm. ii. 17, and Diogen. Laert. i. 31.
clothing and general habits of life to the simplicity of the poor, and thus set an example which was partially followed in the rest of Greece:1 a remark which both implies the existence of unequal property, and gives a just appreciation of the real working of Lykurgic institutions1. The like is the sentiment of Xenophon2: he observes that the rich at Sparta gained little by their wealth in point of superior comfort; but he never glances at any original measure carried into effect by Lykurgus for equalising possessions. Plato too3, while he touches upon the great advantage possessed by the Dorians, immediately after their conquest of Peloponnesus, in being able to apportion land suitably to all—never hints that this original distribution had degenerated into an abuse, and that an entire subsequent redivision had been resorted to by Lykurgus: moreover, he is himself deeply sensible of the hazards of that formidable proceeding. Lastly, Aristotle clearly did not believe that Lykurgus had redivided the soil. For he informs us, first, that “both in Lacedaemon and in Crete, the legislator had rendered the enjoyment of property common through the establishment of the Syssitia or public mess.”4 Now this remark (if read in the chapter of which it forms part, a refutation of the scheme of

1 Thucyd. ii. 6, μετα το τριτος, το τοιον τοιον τριτος

2 Xenoph. Republ. Laced. c. 7.

3 Plato, Legg. iii. p. 634.

4 Aristotel. Politi. ii. 2, 10. ἀποτελεσμα πολεμικον και Κρήτην τοις συσσιτίοις καὶ συμβολήν τοις διοίκεσιν.
Communism for the select guardians in the Platonic Republic) will be seen to tell little for its point, if we assume that Lykurgus at the same time equalised all individual possessions. Had Aristotle known that fact, he could not have failed to notice it: nor could he have assimilated the legislators in Lacedæmon and Crete, seeing that in the latter no one pretends that any such equalisation was ever brought about. Next, not only does Aristotle dwell upon the actual inequality of property at Sparta as a serious public evil, but he nowhere treats this as having grown out of a system of absolute equality once enacted by the lawgiver as a part of the primitive constitution: he expressly notices inequality of property so far back as the second Messenian war. Moreover, in that valuable chapter of his Politics where the scheme of equality of possessions is discussed, Phææas of Chalkedon is expressly mentioned as the first author of it, thus indirectly excluding Lykurgus¹. The mere silence of Aristotle is in this discussion a negative argument of the

¹ Aristotle, Politic. ii. 4, 1, about Phææas; and about Sparta and Crete, generally, the whole sixth and seventh chapters of the second book; also v. 5. 2–7.

Theophrastus (apud Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 10) makes a similar observation, that the public mess, and the general simplicity of habits, tended to render wealth of little service to the possessor: τὸ ἀνθρώπων δολατής ἀπεφυμέναι τῇ ποικιλίᾳ τῶν διαστάσεων, καὶ τῇ περὶ τὸν διαστήματος εὐτελίᾳ. Compare Plutarch, Apophthegm. Lacou, p. 226 E. The wealth therefore was not formally done away with in the opinion of Theophrastus: there was no positive equality of possessions.

Both the Spartan kings dined at the public mess at the same phæætia (Plutarch, Agesilaut, c. 30).

Herakleidès Ponticus mentions nothing either about equality of Spartan lots or fresh partition of lands by Lykurgus (adcalcem Crusiis, De Spartanaeae Repub. p. 504), though he speaks about the Spartan lots and law of succession as well as about Lykurgus.
greatest weight. Ἰσοκράτης too speaks much about Sparta for good and for evil—mentions Lykurgus as having established a political constitution much like that of the earliest days of Athens—praises the gymasia and the discipline, and compliments the Spartans upon the many centuries which they have gone through without violent sedition, extinction of debts and redivision of the land—those "monstrous evils," as he terms them. Had he conceived Lykurgus as being himself the author of a complete redivision of land, he could hardly have avoided some allusion to it.

It appears then that none of the authors down to Aristotle ascribe to Lykurgus a redivision of the lands, either of Sparta or of Laconia. The statement to this effect in Plutarch, given in great detail and with precise specification of number and produce, must have been borrowed from some author later than Aristotle; and I think we may trace the source of it, when we study Plutarch’s biography of Lykurgus in conjunction with that of Agis and Kleomenes. The statement is taken from authors of the century after Aristotle, either in, or shortly before, the age when both those kings tried extreme measures to renovate the sinking state: the former by a thorough change of system and property, yet proposed and accepted according to constitutional forms; the latter by projects substantially similar, with violence to enforce them. The accumulation of landed property in few hands, the multiplication of poor, and the decline in the

1 Ἰσοκράτης, Παναθην. Ον. xii. pp. 266, 270, 278; ἀπὸ γενέσεων ἐκ τῶν ἀρίστων ἀνθρώπων σαφεῖς λέξεις τῶν ἀγαθώταις καὶ πλούσιωσιν.
number of citizens, which are depicted as grave mischiefs by Aristotle, had become greatly aggravated during the century between him and Agis. The number of citizens, reckoned by Herodotus in the time of the Persian invasion at 8000, had dwindled down in the time of Aristotle to 1000, and in that of Agis to 700, out of which latter number 100 alone possessed most of the landed property of the state¹. Now by the ancient rule of Lykurgus, the qualification for citizenship was the ability to furnish the prescribed quota, incumbent on each individual, at the public mess: so soon as a citizen became too poor to answer to this requisition, he lost his franchise and his eligibility to offices². The smaller lots of land, though it was held discreditable either to buy or sell them³,

¹ Pliarch. Agis, c. iv.
² Aristotle, Pol. ii. 6, 21: Παρὰ δὲ τοῖς Λυκόσεις ἦκαντο δὲι φέρειν, και σφόδρα πενήντα ἵκον δοτον, και τούτο τὸ ανάλημα σὲ δυνάμεις δια-

      παυτυ... Οροὶ δὲ τῆς πολιτείας αὐτὸς ἔστι ο πάτριος, τὸν μὴ

      διαιρεῖντο, τοῦτο τὸ τίλος φέρειν, μὴ μετέχειν αὐτῆς. Σοι ἂν

      Ἰχθυρίου, Ρεπ. Lec. ο. τι. ἵνα μὲν φέρειν τι τὸ ἀντίθεμα, δεῖ

The existence of this rate-paying qualification is the capital fact in the history of the Spartan constitution, especially when we couple it with the other fact, that no Spartan acquired anything by any kind of industry.


Aristotle (ii. 6. 10) states that it was discreditable to buy or sell a lot of land, but that the lot might be either given or bequeathed at pleasure. He mentions nothing about the prohibition to divide, and he even states what contradicts it,—that it was the practice to give a large dowry when a rich man’s daughter married (ii. 6. 11). The sister of Agesilas, Kynaka, was a person of large property, which apparently implies the division of his father’s estate (Pliarch. Agesilas, 30).

Whether there was ever any law prohibiting a father from dividing his lot among his children may well be doubted. The Rheta of the
and though some have asserted (without ground I think) that it was forbidden to divide them—became insufficient for numerous families, and seem to have been alienated in some indirect manner to the rich; while every industrious occupation being both interdicted to a Spartan citizen and really inconsistent with his rigorous personal discipline, no other means of furnishing his quota, except the lot of land, was open to him. The difficulty felt with regard to these smaller lots of land may be judged of from the fact stated by Polybius, that three or four Spartan brothers had often one

ephbe Epitaulus (Plutarch, Ages. 5), granted unlimited power of testamentary disposition to the possessor, so that he might give away or bestow his land to a stranger if he chose. To this law great effects are ascribed: but it is evident that the tendency to accumulate property in few hands and the tendency to diminution in the number of qualified citizens, were powerfully manifested before the time of Epitaulus, who came after Lysander. Plutarch in another place notices Hesiod, Xerokratos and Lykgurges, as having concurred with Plato in thinking that it was proper to leave only one single heir (τὸν μόνον θηρόκρατον καθάρισον) (Ὑπαρχομενα το Κορινθιου, Fragm. vol. v. p. 777, Wyttenh.). But Hesiod does not lay down this as a necessity or as a universal rule; he only says that a man is better off who has only one son (Opp. Di. 374). And if Plato had been able to cite Lykgurges as an authority for that system of an invariable number of separate καθαρίσματα or lots, which he sets forth in his treatise De Legibus (p. 740), it is highly probable that he would have done so. Still less can Aristotle have supposed that Lykgurges or the Spartan system either insured, or intended to ensure, the maintenance of an unalterable number of distinct proprietary lots; for he expressly notices that scheme as a peculiarity of Philolaus the Corinthian, in his laws for the Thebans (Polit. ii. 9, 7).


Perhaps, as O. Müller remarks, this may mean only, that none except the eldest brother could afford to marry; but the feelings of the Spartans in respect to marriage were in many other points so different from ours, that we are hardly authorised to reject the literal statement (History of the Dorians, ii. 10, 2)—which indeed is both illustrated and rendered credible by the permission granted in the laws of Solon to an elder son who had been elosed in marriage by a relative in his old age—to ὑπαρχομενα καθαρισματα καθαρα τοιουτοι κατα τον καθαρισμον τον μη δυνατον...
and the same wife, the paternal land being just sufficient to furnish contributions for all to the public mess, and thus to keep alive the citizen-rights of all the sons. The tendency to diminution in the number of Spartan citizens seems to have gone on uninterruptedly from the time of the Persian war, and must have been aggravated by the foundation of Messēnē, with its independent territory around, after the battle of Leuktra, an event which robbed the Spartans of a large portion of their property. Apart from these special causes, moreover, it has been observed often as a statistical fact, that a close corporation of citizens, or any small number of families, intermarrying habitually among one another, and not reinforced from without, have usually a tendency to diminish.

The present is not the occasion to enter at length into that combination of causes which partly sapped, partly overthrew, both the institutions of Lykurgus and the power of Sparta. But taking the condition of that city as it stood in the time of Agis III. (say about 250 B.C.), we know that its citizens had become few in number, the bulk of them miserably poor, and all the land in a small number of hands. The old discipline and the public mess (as far as the rich were concerned) had degenerated into mere forms—a numerous body of strangers or non-citizens (the old xenēlasy, or prohibition of resident strangers, being long discon-

I may observe, that of O. Müller's statements respecting the lots of land at Sparta, several are unsupported and some incorrect.
tinned) were domiciled in the town, forming a powerful moneyed interest; and lastly, the dignity and ascendancy of the state amongst its neighbours were altogether ruined. It was insupportable to a young enthusiast like king Agis, as well as to many ardent spirits among his contemporaries, to contrast this degradation with the previous glories of their country; nor did they see any other way of reconstucting the old Sparta except by again admitting the disfranchised poor citizens, redividing the lands, cancelling all debts, and restoring the public mess and military training in all their strictness. Agis endeavoured to carry through these subversive measures, (such as no demagogue in the extreme democracy of Athens would ever have ventured to glance at,) with the consent of the senate and public assembly, and the acquiescence of the rich. His sincerity is attested by the fact, that his own property, and that of his female relatives, among the largest in the state, was cast as the first sacrifice into the common stock. But he became the dupe of unprincipled coadjutors, and perished in the unavailing attempt to realise his scheme by persuasion. His successor Kleomenēs afterwards accomplished by violence a change substantially similar, though the intervention of foreign arms speedily overthrew both himself and his institutions.

Now it was under the state of public feeling which gave birth to these projects of Agis and Kleomenēs at Sparta, that the historic fancy, unknown to Aristotle and his predecessors, first gained ground, of the absolute equality of property as a
primitive institution of Lykurgus. How much such a belief would favour the schemes of innovation is too obvious to require notice; and without supposing any deliberate imposture, we cannot be astonished that the predispositions of enthusiastic patriots interpreted according to their own partialities an old unrecorded legislation from which they were separated by more than five centuries. The Lykurgian discipline tended forcibly to suggest to men's minds the idea of equality among the citizens,—that is, the negation of all inequality not founded on some personal attribute—inasmuch as it assimilated the habits, enjoyments and capacities of the rich to those of the poor; and the equality thus existing in idea and tendency, which seemed to proclaim the wish of the founder, was strained by the later reformers into a positive institution which he had at first realised, but from which his degenerate followers had receded. It was thus that the fancies, longings, and indirect suggestions of the present assumed the character of recollections out of the early, obscure, and extinct historical past. Perhaps the philosopher Sphærus of Borysthenes (friend and companion of Kleomenes¹), disciple of Zeno the

¹ Plutarch, Cleomenes, cap. 2-11, with the note of Schömann, p. 175; also Lyeng. cap. 8; Athenae. ix. p. 141.

Phylarchus also described the proceedings of Kleomenes, seemingly with favour (Athenae. ix.); compare Plutarch, Ages, v. 9.

Polybius believed that Lykurgus had introduced equality of landed possession both in the district of Sparta and throughout Laconia; his opinion is probably borrowed from those same authors, of the third century before the Christian era. For he expresses his great surprise how the best-informed ancient authors (οἱ ἐπισκοποῦσι τὰς ἀρχαὶς εὐγενείας) Plato, Xenophan, Epictetus, Kallisthenes, can compare the Kretan polity to the old Laconian, the main features of the two
Stoic and author of works now lost both on Lykurgus and Sokratēs and on the constitution of Sparta) may have been one of those who gave currency to such an hypothesis. And we shall readily believe that if advanced, it would find easy and sincere credence, when we recollect how many similar delusions have obtained vogue in modern times far more favourable to historical accuracy—how much false colouring has been attached by the political feeling of recent days to matters of ancient history, such as the Saxon Witenagemote, the Great Charter, the rise and growth of the English House of Commons, or even the Poor Law of Elizabeth.

When we read the division of lands really proposed by king Agis, it is found to be a very close copy of the original division ascribed to Lykurgus. He parcel the lands bounded by the four limits of Pellēné, Sellasia, Malea, and Taygetus, into 4500 lots, one to every Spartan; and the lands beyond these limits into 15,000 lots, one to each Pericekus; and he proposes to constitute in Sparta fifteen Pheiditia or public mess-tables, some including 400 individuals, others 200,—thus providing a place for each of his 4500 Spartans. With respect to the division originally ascribed to Lykurgus, different accounts were given. Some considered it to have being (as he says) so different—equality of property at Sparta, great inequality of property in Kreta, among other differences (Polyb. vi. 45–49).

This remark of Polybius exhibits the difference of opinion of the earlier writers, as compared with those during the third century before the Christian era. The former compared Spartan and Kretan institutions, because they did not conceive equality of landed property as a feature in old Sparta.
set out 9000 lots for the district of Sparta, and 30,000 for the rest of Laconia; others affirmed that 6000 lots had been given by Lykurgus, and 3000 added afterwards by king Polydorus; a third tale was, that Lykurgus had assigned 4500 lots, and king Polydorus as many more. This last scheme is much the same as what was really proposed by Agis.

In the preceding argument respecting the redivision of land ascribed to Lykurgus, I have taken that measure as it is described by Plutarch. But there has been a tendency, in some able modern writers, while admitting the general fact of such redivision, to reject the account given by Plutarch in some of its main circumstances. That, for instance, which is the capital feature in Plutarch's narrative, and which gives soul and meaning to his picture of the lawgiver—the equality of partition—is now rejected by many as incorrect, and it is supposed that Lykurgus made some new agrarian regulations tending towards a general equality of landed property, but not an entirely new partition; that he may have resumed from the wealthy men lands which they had unjustly taken from the conquered Achaans, and thus provided allotments both for the poorer citizens and for the subject Laconians. Such is the opinion of Dr. Thirlwall, who at the same time admits that the exact proportion of the Lykurgean distribution can hardly be ascertained.

1 Respecting Sphoerus, see Plutarch, Lyurg. c. 8; Kleomen, c. 2; Athenae, iv. p. 141; Diog. Laert. vii. sect. 137.
2 Hist. of Greece, ch. viii. vol. i. p. 344-347.
C. F. Hermann, on the contrary, considers the equal partition of La-
I cannot but take a different view of the statement made by Plutarch. The moment that we depart from that rule of equality, which stands so prominently marked in his biography of Lykurgus, we step into a boundless field of possibility, in which there come into lota inderisible and inefishile as "an essential condition" (eine wesentliche Bedingung) of the whole Lykurgian system (Lehrbuch der Griechischen Staatsalterthümer, sect. 28).

Tyttmann (Griechische Staatsverfassungen, p. 588–596) states and seems to admit the equal partitum as a fact, without any commentary.

Wackenroth (Hellenisch Alterthumskunde, v. 4, 42, p. 217) supposes "that the best land was already parcelled, before the time of Lykurgus, into lots of equal magnitude, corresponding to the number of Spartans, which number afterwards increased to nine thousand." For this assertion I know no evidence; it departs from Plutarch, without substituting anything better authenticated or more plausible. Wackenroth notices the partition of Laconia among the Periechi in 30,000 equal lots, without any comment, and seemingly as if there were no doubt of it (p. 218).

Manso also supposes that there had once been an equal division of land prior to Lykurgus—that it had degenerated into abuse—and that Lykurgus corrected it, restoring, not absolute equality, but something near to equality (Manso, Sparta, vol. i. p. 110–121). This is the same gratuitous supposition as that of Wackenroth.

O. Müller admits the division as stated by Plutarch, though he says that the whole number of 9000 lots cannot have been set out before the Messenian war; and he adheres to the idea of equality, as contained in Plutarch; but he says that the equality consisted in "equal estimate of average produce,"—not in equal measurable dimensions. He goes so far as to tell us that "the lots of the Spartans, which supported twice as many men as the lots of the Periechi, must upon the whole have been twice as extensive (i. e. in the aggregate), each lot most therefore have been seven times greater" (compare History of the Dorians, iii. 3, 6; iv. 10, 2). He also supposes that "similar partitions of land had been made from the time of the first occupation of Laconia by the Dorians." Whoever compares his various positions with the evidence brought to support them, will find a painful disproportion between the basis and the superstructure.

The views of Schömann, as far as I collect from expressions somewhat vague, seem to coincide with those of Dr. Thirlwall. He admits however that the alleged Lykurgian equalisation is at variance with the representations of Plato (Schömann, Antiq. Jut, Pub, iv. 1, 7, note 4, p. 116).
is nothing to determine us to one point more than to another. The surmise started by Dr. Thirlwall, of lands unjustly taken from the conquered Acheans by wealthy Spartan proprietors, is altogether gratuitous; and granting it to be correct, we have still to explain how it happened that this correction of a partial injustice came to be transformed into the comprehensive and systematic measure which Plutarch describes; and to explain, farther, from whence it arose that none of the authors earlier than Plutarch take any notice of Lykurgus as an agrarian equalizer. These two difficulties will still remain, even if we overlook the gratuitous nature of Dr. Thirlwall's supposition, or of any other supposition which can be proposed respecting the real Lykurgean measure which Plutarch is affirmed to have misrepresented.

It appears to me that these difficulties are best obviated by adopting a different canon of historical interpretation. We cannot accept as real the Lykurgean land division described in the life of the lawgiver; but treating this account as a fiction, two modes of proceeding are open to us. We may either consider the fiction, as it now stands, to be the exaggeration and distortion of some small fact, and then try to guess, without any assistance, what the small fact was; or we may regard it as fiction from first to last, the expression of some large idea and sentiment so powerful in its action on men's minds at a given time, as to induce them to make a place for it among the realities of the past. Now the latter supposition, applied to the times of Agis III,
best meets the case before us. The eighth chapter of the life of Lycurgus by Plutarch, in recounting the partition of land, describes the dream of king Agis, whose mind is full of two sentiments—grief and shame for the actual condition of his country—
together with reverence for its past glories, as well as for the lawgiver from whose institutions those glories had emanated. Absorbed with this double feeling, the reveries of Agis go back to the old ante-Lykarugean Sparta as it stood more than five centuries before. He sees in the spirit the same mischiefs and disorders as those which afflict his waking eye—gross inequalities of property, with a few insolent and luxurious rich, a crowd of mutinous and suffering poor, and nothing but fierce antipathy reigning between the two. Into the midst of this froward, lawless and distempered community steps the venerable missionary from Delphi,—breathes into men’s minds new impulses, and an impatience to shake off the old social and political Adam—and persuades the rich, voluntarily abnegating their temporal advantages, to welcome with satisfaction a new system wherein no distinction shall be recognised, except that of good or evil desert¹. Having thus regenerated the national mind, he parcels out the territory of Laconia into equal lots, leaving no superiority to any one. Fraternal harmony becomes

¹ Plutarch, Lykurg. c. 8. οὐκέπει τὴν χώραν ἄπωθεν καὶ μέσον δίσμα, ἢ ἐκείνη ἀμώσιατον, καὶ τὴν μετὰ ἀλλήλων ἀναγκαία ἀναπαύσεις, ἡ ονομαζόμεναι τὰς μίας μεγάλας, τό ἐπὶ προτότοις ἀριθμοῖς ἀλήθειας ἀνέπτυχος, τὸ ἀληθεύοντος, πλὴν ἀναλύοντος μέσον ὑπερεθνόν ὅποιον ὁμίλος καὶ καλὸν ἔστωσε. Τοίχων δὲ τῷ λόγῳ τὸ ἔργον, διενεμής, etc.
the reigning sentiment, while the coming harvests present the gratifying spectacle of a paternal inheritance recently distributed, with the brotherhood contented, modest and docile. Such is the picture with which "mischievous Oneirus" cheats the fancy of the patriotic Agis, whispering the treacherous message that the gods have promised him success in a similar attempt, and thus seducing him into that fatal revolutionary course, which is destined to bring himself, his wife and his aged mother to the dungeon and the hangman's rope.

That the golden dream just described was dreamt by some Spartan patriots is certain, because it stands recorded in Plutarch; that it was not dreamt by the authors of centuries preceding Agis, I have already endeavoured to show; that the earnest feelings, of sickness of the present and yearning for a better future under the colours of a restored past, which filled the soul of this king and his brother reformers—combined with the levelling tendency between rich and poor which really was inherent in the Lykurgean discipline—were amply sufficient to beget such a dream and to procure for it a place among the great deeds of the old lawgiver, so much venerated and so little known,—this too I hold to be unquestionable. Had there been any evidence that Lykurgus had interfered with private property, to the limited extent which Dr. Thirlwall and other able critics imagine—that he had resumed certain lands unjustly taken by the rich from the Achaean—I should have been glad to record it; but finding no such evidence, I cannot think it necessary to
presume the fact simply in order to account for the story in Plutarch.

The various items in that story all hang together, and must be understood as forming parts of the same comprehensive fact, or comprehensive fancy. The fixed total of 9000 Spartan, and 30,000 Laconian lots, the equality between them, and the

A I read with much satisfaction in M. Kopstadt's Dissertation, that the general conclusion which I have endeavoured to establish respecting the alleged Lykurgian redivision of property, appears to him successfully proved. (Dissert. De Rerum Laconic. Const. sect. II. p. 128.)

He supposes, with perfect truth, that at the time when the first section of these volumes was published, I was ignorant of the fact that Lachmann and Kestin had both called in question the reality of the Lykurgian redivision. In regard to Professor Kestin, the fact was first brought to my knowledge by his notice of these two volumes in the Heidelberger Jahrbücher, 1846. No. 41. p. 649.

Since the first section, I have read the treatise of Lachmann (Die Spartaische Staats-Verfassung in ihrer Entwicklung und ihrem Verfalle, sect. 10. p. 170), wherein the redivision ascribed to Lykurgus is canvassed. He too attributes the origin of the tale as a portion of history, to the social and political feelings current in the days of Agis III. and Kleomenes III. He notices also that it is in contradiction with Plato and Isocrates. But a large proportion of the arguments which he brings to disprove it, are connected with ideas of his own respecting the social and political constitution of Sparta, which I think either untrue or unverified. Moreover he believes in the monomancy as well as the indivisibility of the separate lots of land—which I believe to be just as little correct as their supposed equality.

Kopstadt (p. 139) thinks that I have gone too far in rejecting every middle opinion. He thinks that Lykurgus must have done something, though much less than what is affirmed, tending to realise equality of individual property.

I shall not say that this is impossible. If we had stronger evidence, perhaps such facts might appear. But as the evidence stands now, there is nothing whatsoever to show it. Nor are we entitled (in my judgment) to presume that it was so, in the absence of evidence, simply in order to make out that the Lykurgian myth is only an exaggeration, and not entire fiction.

7 Aristot. (Polit. i. 6. 11) remarks that the territory of the Spartans would maintain 1500 horsemen and 30,000 hoplites, while the number of citizens was in point of fact less than 1000. Dr. Thirlwall
rent accruing from each, represented by a given quantity of moist and dry produce,—all these particulars are alike true or alike uncertain. Upon the various numbers here given, many authors have raised calculations as to the population and produce of Laconia, which appear to me destitute of any trustworthy foundation. Those who accept the history, that Lykurgus constituted the above-mentioned numbers both of citizens and of lots of land, and that he contemplated the maintenance of both numbers in unchangeable proportion—are perplexed to assign the means whereby this adjustment was kept undisturbed. Nor are they much assisted in the solution of this embarrassing problem by the statement of Plutarch, who tells us that the number remained fixed of itself, and that the succession ran on from father to son without either consolidation or multiplication of parcels, down to the period when foreign wealth flowed into Sparta, as a consequence of the successful conclusion of the Peloponnesian war. Shortly after that period (he tells us) a citizen named Epitædæus became ephor—a vindictive and malignant man, who, having had a quarrel with his son, and wishing to oust him from the succession, introduced and obtained sanction to a new Rhetra, whereby power was granted to every father of a family either to make over during life, or to bequeath after death, his house and his estate to any one whom he chose1. But it is plain that this story (whatever be the truth about

1 Plutarch, Ages, p. 5.
the family quarrel of Epitadeus) does not help us out of the difficulty. From the time of Lykurgus to that of this disinheriting archon, more than four centuries must be reckoned: now had there been real causes at work sufficient to maintain inviolate the identical number of lots and families during this long period, we see no reason why his new law, simply permissive and nothing more, should have overthrown it. We are not told by Plutarch what was the law of succession prior to Epitadeus. If the whole estate went by law to one son in the family, what became of the other sons, to whom industrious acquisition in any shape was repulsive as well as interdicted? If, on the other hand, the estate was divided between the sons equally (as it was by the law of succession at Athens), how can we defend the maintenance of an unchanged aggregate number of parcels?

Dr. Thirwall, after having admitted a modified interference with private property by Lykurgus, so as to exact from the wealthy a certain sacrifice in order to create lots for the poor, and to bring about something approaching to equi-producing lots for all, observes:—"The average amount of the rent (paid by the cultivating Helots from each lot) seems to have been no more than was required for the frugal maintenance of a family with six persons. The right of transfer was as strictly confined as that of enjoyment: the patrimony was indivisible, inalienable, and descended to the eldest son; in default of a male heir, to the eldest daughter. The object seems to have been, after the number of the allotments became fixed, that each should be constantly
represented by one head of a household. But the nature of the means employed for this end is one of the most obscure points of the Spartan system. In the better times of the commonwealth, this seems to have been principally effected by adoptions and marriages with heiresses, which provided for the marriages of younger sons in families too numerous to be supported on their own hereditary property. It was then probably seldom necessary for the state to interfere, in order to direct the childless owner of an estate, or the father of a rich heiress, to a proper choice. But as all adoption required the sanction of the kings, and they had also the disposal of the hand of orphan heiresses, there can be little doubt that the magistrate had the power of interposing on such occasions, even in opposition to the wishes of individuals, to relieve poverty and check the accumulation of wealth.” (Hist. Gr. ch. 8. vol. i. p. 367.)

I cannot concur in the view which Dr. Thirlwall here takes of the state of property, or the arrangements respecting its transmission, in ancient Sparta. Neither the equal modesty of possession which he supposes, nor the precautions for perpetuating it, can be shown to have ever existed among the pupils of Lykurgus. Our earliest information intimates the existence of rich men at Sparta: the story of king Aristo and Agetua, in Herodotus, exhibits to us the latter as a man who cannot be supposed to have had only just “enough to maintain six persons frugally”—while his beautiful wife, whom Aristo coveted and entrapped from him, is expressly described as the daughter of opulent parents. Sperthics and
Bulis the Talthybiads are designated as belonging to a distinguished race, and among the wealthiest men in Sparta. Demaratus was the only king of Sparta, in the days of Herodotus, who had ever gained a chariot victory in the Olympic games; but we know by the case of Lichas during the Peloponnesian war, Evagoras, and others, that private Spartans were equally successful; and for one Spartan who won the prize, there must of course have been many who bred their horses and started their chariots unsuccessfully. It need hardly be remarked that chariot-competition at Olympia was one of the most significant evidences of a wealthy house: nor were there wanting Spartans who kept horses and dogs without any exclusive view to the games. We know from Xenophon, that at the time of the battle of Leuktra, "the very rich Spartans" provided the horses to be mounted for the state-cavalry. These and other proofs, of the existence of rich men at Sparta, are inconsistent with the idea of a body of citizens each possessing what was about enough for the frugal maintenance of six persons, and no more.

As we do not find that such was in practice the state of property in the Spartan community, so neither can we discover that the lawgiver ever tried either to make or to keep it so. What he did was to impose a rigorous public discipline, with simple clothing and fare, incumbent alike upon the rich

1 Herod. vii. 51. als d'hermannus et J. Blain Saptica, &c.; vii. 134.
2 Herod. iv. 103; Thucyd. i. 50.
and the poor (this was his special present to Greece, according to Thucydides, and his great point of contact with democracy, according to Aristotle); but he took no pains either to restrain the enrichment of the former, or to prevent the impoverishment of the latter. He meddled little with the distribution of property, and such neglect is one of the capital deficiencies for which Aristotle censures him. That philosopher tells us, indeed, that the Spartan law had made it dishonourable (he does not say, peremptorily forbidden) to buy or sell landed property, but that there was the fullest liberty both of donation and bequest; and the same results (he justly observes) ensued from the practice tolerated as would have ensued from the practice disapproved—since it was easy to disguise a real sale under an ostensible donation. He notices pointedly the tendency of property at Sparta to concentrate itself in fewer hands, unopposed by any legal hindrances: the fathers married their daughters to whomever they chose, and gave dowries according to their own discretion, generally very large; the rich families moreover intermarried among one another habitually and without restriction. Now all these are indicated by Aristotle as cases in which the law might have interfered, and ought to have interfered, but did not—for the great purpose of disseminating the benefits of landed property as much as possible among the mass of the citizens. Again, he tells us that the law encouraged the multiplication of progeny, and granted exemptions to

1 Thucyd. i. 6; Aristot. Polit. iv. 7, 4, 5, viii. 1, 3.
such citizens as had three or four children—but took no thought how the numerous families of poorer citizens were to live, or to maintain their qualification at the public tables, most of the lands of the state being in the hands of the rich. The notice, and condemnation of that law, which made the franchise of the Spartan citizen dependent upon his continuing to furnish his quota to the public table—has been already adverted to; as well as the potent love of money which he notes in the Spartan character, and which must have tended continually to keep together the richer families among themselves; while amongst a community where industry was unknown, no poor citizen could ever become rich.

If we duly weigh these evidences, we shall see that equality of possessions neither existed in fact, nor ever entered into the scheme and tendencies of the lawgiver at Sparta. And the picture which Dr. Thirlwall has drawn of a body of citizens each

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1 Aristot. Polit. ii, 6, 10-13; v. 6, 7.
2 The panegyrist Xenophon acknowledges much the same respecting the Sparta which he witnessed; but he maintains that it had been better in former times (Repub. Liti. c. 11).
3 The view of Dr. Thirlwall agrees in the main with that of Mano and O. Müller (Maso, Sparta, vol. i, p. 118-128; and vol. ii, Beilage, 9, p. 129; and Müller, History of the Dorians, vol. ii. B. iii. c. 10, sect. 2, 3).

Both these authors maintain the proposition stated by Plutarch (Agr. c. 5, in his reference to the ephor Epitadas, and the new law carried by that ephor), that the number of Spartan lots, nearly equal and rigorously indivisible, remained with little or no change from the time of the original division down to the return of Lysander after his victorious close of the Peloponnesian war. Both acknowledge that they cannot understand by what regulations this long unalterability, so improbable in itself, was maintained; but both affirm the fact positively.
possessing a lot of land about adequate to the frugal maintenance of six persons—of adoptions and

The period will be more than 400 years, if the original division be referred to Lykurgus: more than 300 years, if the 9000 lots are understood to date from the Messenian war.

If this alleged fact be really a fact, it is something almost without a parallel in the history of mankind: and before we consent to believe it, we ought at least to be satisfied that there is considerable show of positive evidence in its favour, and not much against it. But on examining Mauo and Müller, it will be seen that not only is there very slender evidence in its favour—there is a decided balance of evidence against it.

The evidence produced to prove the indivisibility of the Spartan lot is a passage of Herakleides Ponticus, v. 2 (ad. calc. Graeco, p. 304), πάντες δέ γὰρ διαδοθόμενον αὐτὸν ἀναδόθεν—τὴν ἑαυτοῦ μηγεῖαν διαιμερισάμεθα (οὐ διαμερισάμεθα) ἀλλὰ ἔχομεν. The first portion of this assertion is confirmed by, and probably borrowed from, Aristotle, who says the same thing nearly in the same words: the second portion of the sentence ought, according to all reasonable rules of construction, to be understood with reference to the first part: that is, to the sale of the original lot. "To sell land is held disgraceful among the Lacedaemonians, nor is it permitted to sever off any portion of the original lot," i.e. for sale. Herakleides is not here speaking of the law of succession to property at Lacedaemon, nor can we infer from his words that the whole lot was transmitted entire to one son. No evidence except this very irrelevant sentence is produced by Müller and Mauo to justify their positive assertion, that the Spartan lot of land was indivisible in respect to inheritance.

Having thus determined the indivisible transmission of lots to one son of a family, Mauo and Müller presume, without any proof, that that son must be the eldest; and Müller proceeds to state something equally unsupported by proof:—The extent of his rights, however, was perhaps no farther than that he was considered master of the house and property; while the other members of the family had an equal right to the enjoyment of it. The master of the family was therefore obliged to contribute for all these to the synoitia, without which contribution no one was admitted."—pp. 199, 200.

All this is completely gratuitous, and will be found to produce as many difficulties in one way as it removes in another.

The next law as to the transmission of property which Mauo states to have prevailed, is, that all daughters were to marry without receiving any dowry—the case of a sole daughter is here excepted. For this proposition he cites Plutarch, Apoll. Laco. p. 227; Justin, iii. 3; Elin. V. II. vi. 6. These authors do certainly affirm that there was such a regulation, and both Plutarch and Justin assign reasons for it.
mariages of heiresses arranged with a deliberate view of providing for the younger children of natural or supposed. "Lycurgus being asked why he directed that maidsen should be married without dowry, answered.—In order that maidens of poor families might not remain unmarried, and that character and virtue might be exclusively attended to in the choice of a wife." The same general reason is given by Justin. Now the reasons here given for the prohibition of dowry, goes indirectly to prove that there existed no such law of general succession as that which had been before stated, viz. the sacred indivisibility of the primitive lot. For had this latter been recognized, the reason would have been obvious why daughters could receive no dowry: the father's whole landed property (and a Spartan could have little of any other property, since he never acquired anything by industry) was under the strictest entail to his eldest son. Plutarch and Justin, therefore, while in their statement as to the matter of fact they warrant Manse in affirming the prohibition of dowry (about this matter of fact, more presently), do by the reason which they give, disavow their former supposition as to the indivisibility of the primitive family lot.

Thirdly, Manse understands Aristotle (Polit. ii. 6, 11), by the use of the adverb εις, to affirm something respecting his own time specially and to imply at the same time that the ancient custom had been the reverse. I cannot think that the adverb, as Aristotle uses it in that passage, bears out such a construction: εις δε there does not signify present time as opposed to past, but the antithesis between the actual custom and that which Aristotle pronounces to be expedient. Aristotle gives no indication of being aware that any material change had taken place in the laws of succession at Sparta; this is one circumstance, for which both Manse and Muller, who both believe in the extraordinary revolution caused by the permissive law of the ἐφθανατος, censure him.

Three other positions are laid down by Manse about the laws of property at Sparta. 1. A man might give away or bequeath his land to whomsoever he pleased. 2. But none except childless persons could do this. 3. They could only give or bequeath it to citizens who had no land of their own. Of these three regulations, the first is distinctly affirmed by Aristotle, and may be relied upon; the second is a restriction not noticed by Aristotle, and supported by no proof except that which arises out of the story of the ἐφθανατος, who is said to have been unable to disinherit his son without causing a new law to be passed; the third is a pure fancy.

So much for the positive evidence, on the faith of which Manse and Muller affirm the starting fact, that the lots of land in Sparta remained distinct, indivisible, and unchanged in number, down to the close of the Peloponnesian war. I venture to say that such positive evidence is far
merous families—of interference on the part of the kings to ensure this object—of a fixed number of

too weak to sustain an affirmation in itself so improbable, even if there were no evidence on the other side for contradiction. But in this case there is powerful contradictory evidence.

First, the assertions of these authors are distinctly in the teeth of Aristotle, whose authority they try to invalidate by saying that he spoke altogether with reference to his own time at Sparta, and that he misconceived the primitive Lykurgian constitution. Now this might form a reasonable ground of presumption against the competency of Aristotle, if the witnesses quoted on the other side were older than he. But it so happens that every one of the witnesses produced by Mansi and Muller are younger than Aristotle: Herodotus Ponticus, Plutarch, Justin, Isid., &c. Nor is it shown that these authors copied from any source earlier than Aristotle—for his testimony cannot be contradicted by any inferences drawn from Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Plato, Isocrates or Ephorus. None of these writers, anterior to or contemporary with Aristotle, countenanced the fancy of equal, indivisible, perpetual lots, or prohibition of dower.

The fact is, that Aristotle is not only our best witness, but also our oldest witness, respecting the laws of property in the Spartan commonwealth. I could have wished indeed that earlier testimonies had existed, and I admit that even the most sagacious observer of 340-330 B.C. is liable to mistake when he speaks of one or two centuries before. But if Aristotle is to be discredited on the ground of late date, what are we to say to Plutarch? To insist on the intellectual eminence of Aristotle would be superfluous: and on this subject he is a witness the more valuable, as he had made careful, laborious and personal inquiries into the Grecian governments generally, and that of Sparta among them—the great point of story for ancient speculative politicians.

Now the statements of Aristotle distinctly exclude the idea of equal, indivisible, inalienable, perpetual lots, and prohibition of dower. He particularly notices the habit of giving very large donations, and the constant tendency of the lots of land to become consolidated in fewer and fewer hands. He tells us nothing upon the subject which is not perfectly consistent, intelligible, and uncontradicted by any known statements belonging to his time or to earlier times. But the reason why men refuse to believe him, and either set aside or explain away his evidence, is, that they sit down to the study with their minds full of the division of landed property ascribed to Lykurgus by Plutarch. I willingly concede that on this occasion we have to choose between Plutarch and Aristotle. We cannot reconcile them except by arbitrary suppositions, every one of which breaks up the simplicity, beauty, and symmetry of Plutarch’s agrarian idea—and every one of which still leaves the perpetuity of the original lots unexplained. And I have no
lots of land, each represented by one head of a household—this picture is one, of which the reality

hesitation in preferring the authority of Aristotle (which is in perfect consonance with what we indirectly gather from other authors, his contemporaries and predecessors) as the better witness on every ground; rejecting the statement of Plutarch, and rejecting it altogether with all its consequences.

But the authority of Aristotle is not the only argument which may be urged to refute this supposition that the distinct Spartan lots remained unaltered in number down to the time of Lyseander. For if the number of distinct lots remained unaltered, the number of citizens cannot have greatly diminished. Now the conspiracy of Kinadon falls during the life of Lyseander, within the first ten years after the close of the Peloponnesian war; and in the account which Xenophon gives of that conspiracy, the paucity of the number of citizens is brought out in the clearest and most emphatic manner. And this must be before the time when the new law of Epitalemus is said to have passed, at least before that law can have had room to produce any sensible effects. If then the ancient 9000 lots still remained all separate, without either consolidation or subdivision, how are we to account for the small number of citizens at the time of the conspiracy of Kinadon?

This examination of the evidence (for the purpose of which I have been compelled to prolong the present note) shows—1. That the hypothesis of indivisible, inalienable lots, maintained for a long period in unaltered number at Sparta, is not only sustained by the very minimum of affirmative evidence, but is contradicted by very good negative evidence. 2. That the hypothesis which represents dowers to daughters as being prohibited by law, is indeed affirmed by Plutarch, Hilar and Justin, but is contradicted by the better authority of Aristotle.

The recent edition of Herakleides Ponticus, published by Schneidewin in 1847 since my first edition, presents an amended text which completely bears out my interpretation. His text, derived from a fuller comparison of existing MSS., as well as from better critical judgment (see his Proleg. v. iii. p. liv.), stands—Hekaleis τὸ Νερακηνειουν ἀγγαρεος ἀποκρινει τῆς τὴν ἀγαλμα τοις χειρὶς ἐκκεντρίζει (p. 7). It is plain that all this passage relates to sale of land, and not to testament, or succession, or division. Thus much negatively is certain, and Schneidewin remarks in his note (p. 83) that it contradicts Müller, Hermann, and Schlimm—adding that the distinction drawn is, between land inherited from the original family lots, and land otherwise acquired, by donation, bequest, &c. Sale of the latter was absolutely illegal: sale of the latter was delectable, yet not absolutely illegal. Aristotle in the Polities (ii. 6:10) takes no notice of any such distinction, between land inherited from the primitive lots, and land otherwise acquired. Nor was there perhaps any well-defined line of distinction, in a country of unwritten.
must not be sought on the banks of the Eurotas. The "better times of the commonwealth," to which he refers, may have existed in the glowing retrospect of Agis, but are not acknowledged in the sober appreciation of Aristotle. That the citizens were far more numerous in early times, the philosopher tells us, and that the community had in his day greatly declined in power, we also know; in this sense the times of Sparta had doubtless once been better. We may even concede that during the three centuries succeeding Lykurgus, when they were continually acquiring new territory, and when Aristotle had been told that they had occasionally admitted new citizens, so that the aggregate number of citizens had once been 10,000—we may concede that in these previous centuries the distribution of land had been less unequal, so that the disproportion between the great size of the territory and the small number of citizens was not so

customs like Sparta, between what was simply disgraceful and what was positively illegal. Schneidewin in his note, however, assumes the original equality of the lots as certain in itself, and as being the cause of the prohibition, neither of which appears to me true.

I speak of this confused compilation still under the name of Herakleides Ponticus, by which it is commonly known; though Schneidewin in the second chapter of his Prolegomena has shown sufficient reason for believing that there is no authority for connecting it with the name of Herakleides. He tries to establish the work as consisting of Excerpts from the lost treatise of Aristotle's ἐπὶ Ἀρκετέαν; which is well made out with regard to some parts, but not enough to justify his inference as to the whole. The article, wherein Weicker vindicates the scrupling of the work to an Excerpt of Herakleides, is unsatisfactory (Kleine Schriften, p. 451).

Beyond this irrelevant passage of Herakleides Ponticus, no further evidence is produced by Müller and Mann to justify their positive assertion, that the Spartan lot of land was indivisible in respect to inheritance.
marked as it had become at the period which the philosopher personally witnessed; for the causes tending to augmented inequality were constant and uninterrupted in their working. But this admission will still leave us far removed from the sketch drawn by Dr. Thirlwall, which depicts the Lykurgian Sparta as starting from a new agrarian scheme not far removed from equality of landed property—the citizens as spontaneously disposed to uphold this equality, by giving to unprovided men the benefit of adoptions and heiress-marriages—and the magistrate as interfering to enforce this latter purpose, even in cases where the citizens were themselves unwilling. All our evidence exhibits to us both decided inequality of possessions and inclinations on the part of rich men the reverse of those which Dr. Thirlwall indicates; nor will the powers of interference which he ascribes to the magistrate be found sustained by the chapter of Herodotus on which he seems to rest them.¹

¹ Herod. vi. 57, in enumerating the privileges and prerogatives of the kings—δικαίως δὲ μοιχίας τῶν διακότων εἰσάγας μοιχῶν φαραγχεῖς τε πολέμων πιέρ, ἵνα τινὰ εἰσίν ίμα τε αυτὸ τὸν οἴρημα καὶ ἀλλὰ διὰμεταν πιέρ καὶ δι' ἀυτὸ δινῶν ποιεῖται ἵνα δὴ ἀνκὰ πάσης ἡμείσθαι ἡμῖν, Τιμίλης ἵπποινος εὐερετήσας.

It seems curious that παραραγόν ωςόσος should mean a damsel who has no father (literally lucus a non lavando); but I suppose that we must accept this upon the authority of Julius Polyx and Timaus. Proceeding on this interpretation, Valesius gives the meaning of the passage very truly: "Οὐχὶ ύπαίται, καρδία ταῖς διασποραί, τί πλούς μῆλα σιδεικαμένα, διακόται, πάντως οὐ Θηριδας, ὡς Τιμίλης δίκαιαιτήσας το ῾Ελλήνης χάριμα ἠλλινά σαλίς.

Now the judicial function here described is something very different from the language of Dr. Thirlwall, that "the kings had the disposal of the hand of orphan heiresses in cases where the father had not signified his will." Such disposal would approach somewhat to that om-
To conceive correctly, then, the Lykurgean system, as far as obscurity and want of evidence will permit, it seems to me that there are two current misconceptions which it is essential to discard. One of these is, that the system included a repartition of landed property, upon principles of exact or approximative equality (distinct from that appropriation which belonged to the Dorian conquest and settlement), and provisions for perpetuating the number of distinct and equal lots. The other is, that it was first brought to bear when the Spartans were masters of all Laconia. The illusions created

The potence which Aristophanes (Vesp. 586) makes old Philodemos claim for the Athenian dikasts (an exaggeration well-calculated to serve the poet's purpose of making the dikasts appear monsters of caprice and injustice), and would be analogous to the power which English kings enjoyed three centuries ago as feudal guardians over wards. But the language of Herodotus is inconsistent with the idea that the kings chose a husband for the orphan heiress. She was claimed as of right by persons in certain degrees of relationship to her. Whether the law about "mecoias" (affinity carrying legal rights) was the same as at Athens we cannot tell; but the question submitted for adjudication, at Sparta to the kings and at Athens to the dikasteries, was certainly the same, agreeably to the above note of Valekema—namely, to whom, among the various claimants for the marriage, the best legal title really belonged. It is indeed probable enough, that the two royal descendants of Herakles might abuse their judicial function, as there are various instances known in which they take bribes; but they were not likely to abuse it in favour of an unprovided youth.

Next, as to adoption: Herodotus tells us that the ceremony of adoption was performed before the kings: probably enough there was some fee paid with it. But this affords no ground for presuming that they had any hand in determining whom the childless father was to adopt. According to the Attic law about adoption, there were conditions to be fulfilled, and consent to be obtained, the absence of disqualifying circumstances verified, &c.; and some authority before which this was to be done was indispensable (See Meier und Schumann, Attisch. Prozen, b. ii. ch. ii. p. 436). At Sparta such authority was vested by ancient custom in the king; but we are not told, nor is it probable, "that he could interpose, in opposition to the wishes of individuals, to relieve poverty," as Dr. Thirlwall supposes.
by the old legend—which depicts Laconia as all one country, and all conquered at one stroke—yet survive after the legend itself has been set aside as bad evidence: we cannot conceive Sparta as subsisting by itself without dominion over Laconia, nor Amyklæ, Pharis, and Geronthrae, as really and truly independent of Sparta. Yet, if these towns were independent in the time of Lykurgus, much more confidently may the same independence be affirmed of the portions of Laconia which lie lower than Amyklæ down the valley of the Eurotas, as well as of the eastern coast, which Herodotus expressly states to have been originally connected with Argos.

Discarding then these two suppositions, we have to consider the Lykurgean system as brought to bear upon Sparta and its immediate circumjacent district, apart from the rest of Laconia, and as not meddling systematically with the partition of property, whatever that may have been, which the Doric conquerors established at their original settlement. Lykurgus does not try to make the poor rich, nor the rich poor; but he imposes upon both the same subjugating drill—the same habits of life, gentlemanlike idleness, and unlettered strength—the same fare, clothing, labours, privations, endurance, punishments, and subordination. It is a lesson instructive at least, however unsatisfactory, to political students—that with all this equality of dealing, he ends in creating a community in whom not merely the love of pre-eminence, but even the love of money, stands powerfully and specially developed.

1 Ζαντερα λαμπροαπερημενε, Σιμονιδης, απει Πθυρα, Αγρελωσ, εκ. 1.
2 Aristotel. Polit. ii. ii. 6, 9, 19, 23. τα φαλάγγα τα θαλαγγικα.
How far the peculiar of the primitive Sparta extended we have no means of determining; but its limits down the valley of the Eurotas were certainly narrow, inasmuch as it did not reach so far as Amyklæ. Nor can we tell what principles the Dorian conquerors may have followed in the original allotment of lands within the limits of that peculiar. Equal apportionment is not probable, because all the individuals of a conquering band are seldom regarded as possessing equal claims; but whatever the original apportionment may have been, it remained without any general or avowed disturbance until the days of Agis III. and Kleomenès III. Here then we have the primitive Sparta, including Dorian warriors with their Helot subjects, but no Perieki. And it is upon these Spartans separately, perhaps after the period of aggravated disorder and lawlessness noticed by Herodotus and Thucydides, that the painful but invigorating discipline above sketched must have been originally brought to bear.

The gradual conquest of Laconia, with the acquisition of additional lands and new Helots, and the formation of the order of Perieki, both of which were a consequence of it—is to be considered as posterior to the introduction of the Lykurgian system at Sparta, and as resulting partly from the increased force which that system imparted. The career of conquest went on, beginning from Téleklus, for nearly three centuries—with some interruptions indeed, and in the case of the Messenian war, with a desperate and even precarious struggle—so that in the time of Thucydides, and for some time previously, the Spartans possessed two-fifths of Peloponnesus.
ponnesus. And this series of new acquisitions and victories disguised the really weak point of the Spartan system, by rendering it possible either to plant the poorer citizens as Periclei in a conquered township, or to supply them with lots of land, of which they could receive the produce without leaving the city—so that their numbers and their military strength were prevented from declining. It is even affirmed by Aristotle, that during these early times they augmented the numbers of their citizens by fresh admissions, which of course implies the acquisition of additional lots of land. But successful war (to use an expression substantially borrowed from the same philosopher) was necessary to their salvation: the establishment of their ascendancy, and of their maximum of territory, was followed, after no very long interval, by symptoms of decline. It will hereafter be seen that at the period of the conspiracy of Kinadon (395 B.C.), the full citizens (called Homoioi or Peers) were considerably inferior in number to the Hypomeïones, or Spartans who could no longer furnish their qualification, and had become disfranchised. And the loss thus sustained was very imperfectly repaired by the admitted practice sometimes resorted to by rich men, of associating with their own children the children of poorer citizens, and paying the contribution for these latter to the public tables, so as to enable them to go through the prescribed course of education and discipline—whereby they became

1 Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 12.
2 Aristot. Polit. ii. 6, 22. ἔγγραφον εἰς ἄρχοντα πολίμαχον, ἀπὸ τοῦ ἄρχοντος ἄρχοντάς, &c. Compare also vii. 13, 15.
(under the title or sobriquet of Mothakes\(^1\)) citizens, with a certain tint of inferiority, yet were sometimes appointed to honourable commands.

Laconia, the state and territory of the Lacedæmonians, was affirmed at the time of its greatest extension to have comprised 100 cities\(^2\)—this after the conquest of Messenia, so that it would in-

\(^1\) Plutarch. Kleomen. c. 8; Phylarch. ap. Athenae. vi. p. 271.

The strangers called Tæphsæna, and the illegitimate sons of Spartans, whom Xenophon mentions with enmity, as "having partaken in the honourable training of the city," must probably have been introduced in this same way, by private support from the rich (Xenoph. Hellen. v. 3, 9). The auxiliary must have then become practically much relaxed, if not extinct.


 Construing the word μεγαλός extensively, so as to include townships small as well as considerable, this estimate is probably inferior to the truth; since even during the depressed times of modern Greece a fraction of the ancient Laconia (including in that term Messenia) exhibited much more than 100 bourgs.

In reference merely to the territory called La Magno, between Calcymata in the Messenian Gulf and Copo di Magna, the lower part of the peninsula of Tarentum, see a curious letter addressed to the Due de Nevers in 1618 (on occasion of a projected movement to liberate the Morea from the Turks, and to ensure to him the sovereignty of it, as descendant of the Palæologi) by a confidential agent whom he despatched thither—M. Chateauneuf—"who sends to him "une sorte de tableau statistique du Magno, on sont énumérés 125 bourgs, ou villages renfermant 4913 hommes, et pourrois fournir 10,000 combattants, dont 4000 armes, et 6000 sans armes (between Calcymata and Copo di Magna)."

(Mémoires de l'Académie des Inscriptions, tom. xiv. 1842, p. 229. Mémoire de M. Berger de Xivrey.)

This estimate is not far removed from that of Colonel Leake towards the beginning of the present century, who considers that there were then in Mani (the same territory) 139 towns and villages, and this too in a state of society exceedingly disturbed and insecure—where private fends and private towers, (or pyrgi) for defence, were universal, and in parts of which, Colonel Leake says, "I see men preparing the ground for cotton, with a dagger and pistols at their girdles. Thus, it seems, is the ordinary armour of the cultivator when there is no particular suspicion of danger; the shepherd is almost always armed with a musket."....." The Maniates reckon their population at 30,000, and
clude all the southern portion of Peloponnesus, from Thyrea on the Argolic Gulf to the southern bank of the river Neda in its course into the Ionian Sea. But Laconia, more strictly so called, was distinguished from Messenia, and was understood to designate the portion of the above-mentioned territory which lay to the east of Mount Taygetus. The conquest of Messenia by the Spartans we shall presently touch upon; but that of Laconia proper is very imperfectly narrated to us. Down to the reign of Têleklus, as has been before remarked, Amyklâ, Pharis and Geronthre were still Achaean: in the reign of that prince they were first conquered, and the Acheans either expelled or subdued. It cannot be doubted that Amyklâ had been previously a place of consequence: in point of heroic antiquity and memorials, this city, as well as Therapæ, seems to have surpassed Sparta. And the war of the Spartans against it is represented as a struggle of some moment—indeed in those times the capture of any walled city was tedious and difficult. Timomachus, an Ægeid from Thebes, at the head of a body of his countrymen, is said to have rendered essential service to the Spartans in their muskets at 10,000." (Lerke, Travels in Morea, vol. i. ch. vii. pp. 243, 263-266.)

Now under the dominion of Sparta all Laconia doubtless enjoyed complete internal security, so that the idea of the cultivator tilling his land in arms would be unheard of. Reasoning upon the basis of what has just been stated about the Manote population and number of townships, 100 πολεμικαί for all Laconia is a very moderate computation.

I agree with M. Boeckh, that Pindar himself identifies this march of the Ægeids to Amyklâ with the original Harukleid conquest of Peloponnesus. (Note Criticæ ad Pindar. Pyth. v. 74. p. 479.)
the conquest of the Achaens of Amyklæ; and the brave resistance of the latter was commemorated by a monument erected to Zeus Tropæus at Sparta, which was still to be seen in the time of Pausanias. The Achaens of Pharis and Geronthrae, alarmed by the fate of Amyklæ, are said to have surrendered their towns with little or no resistance; after which the inhabitants of all the three cities, either wholly or in part, went into exile beyond sea, giving place to colonists from Sparta. From this time forward, according to Pausanias, Amyklæ continued as a village. But as the Amyklæan hoplites constituted a valuable portion of the Spartan army, it must have been numbered among the cities of the Periöcki, as one of the hundred; the distinction between a dependent city and a village not being very strictly drawn. The festival of the Hyacinthia, celebrated at the great temple of the Amyklæan Apollo, was among the most solemn and venerated in the Spartan calendar.

It was in the time of Alkamenês the son of Tèleklus that the Spartans conquered Helus, a maritime town on the left bank of the Eurotas, and reduced its inhabitants to bondage—from whose name, according to various authors, the general title Hełots, belonging to all the serfs of Laconia, was derived. But of the conquest of the other

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1 Pausan. iii. 2, 6; iv. 11, 7.
2 Pausan. iii. 22, 5.
3 Pausan. iii. 19, 5.
4 Xenoph. Hellen. iv. 5, 11.
5 Pausan. iii. 2, 7; Strabo. viii. p. 363.

If it be true (as Pausanias states) that the Argives aided Helus to resist, their assistance must probably have been given by sea; perhaps from Epidaurus Lamiera, or Pausa, when they formed part of the Argive federation.
towns of Laconia—Gythium, Akrie, Therapna, &c.—or of the eastern land on the coast of the Argolic Gulf, including Brasie and Epidaurus Limera, or the island of Kythera, all which at one time belonged to the Argeian confederacy, we have no accounts.

Scanty as our information is, it just enables us to make out a progressive increase of force and dominion on the part of the Spartans, resulting from the organization of Lykurgus. Of this progress a further manifestation is found, besides the conquest of the Achaeans in the south by Teleclus and Alkameines, in their successful opposition to the great power of Pheidon the Argeian, related in a previous chapter. We now approach the long and arduous efforts by which they accomplished the subjugation of their brethren the Messenian Dorians.
CHAPTER VII.
FIRST AND SECOND MESSENIAN WARS.

That there were two long contests between the Lacedaemonians and Messenians, and that in both the former were completely victorious, is a fact sufficiently attested. And if we could trust the statements in Pausanias—our chief and almost only authority on the subject—we should be in a situation to recount the history of both these wars in considerable detail. But unfortunately the incidents narrated in that writer have been gathered from sources which are, even by his own admission, undeserving of credit—from Rhianus, the poet of Bēnē in Krete, who had composed an epic poem on Aristomenēs and the second Messenian war, about a.c. 220—and from Myrōn of Priēnē, a prose author whose date is not exactly known, but belonging to the Alexandrine age, and not earlier than the third century before the Christian era. From Rhianus we have no right to expect trustworthy information, while the accuracy of Myrōn is much depreciated by Pausanias himself—on some points even too much, as will presently be shown. But apart from the mental habits either of the prose writer or the poet, it does not seem that any good means of knowledge were open to either of them, except the poems of Tyrtaeus, which we are by no means sure that they ever consulted. The account of the two
wars, extracted from these two authors by Pausanias, is a string of tableaux, several of them indeed highly poetical, but destitute of historical coherence or sufficiency; and O. Müller has justly observed, that "absolutely no reason is given in them for the subjection of Messenia". They are accounts unworthy of being transcribed in detail into the pages of genuine history, nor can we pretend to do anything more than verify a few leading facts of the war.

The poet Tyrtaeus was himself engaged on the side of the Spartans in the second war, and it is from him that we learn the few indisputable facts respecting both the first and the second. If the Messenians had never been re-established in Peloponnesus, we should probably never have heard any farther details respecting these early contests. That re-establishment, together with the first foundation of the city called Messené on Mount Ithômé, was among the capital wounds inflicted on Sparta by Epameinondas, in the year B.C. 369—between 300 and 250 years after the conclusion of the second Messenian war. The descendants of the old Messenians, who had remained for so long a period without any fixed position in Greece, were incorporated in the new

\[1\] History of the Dorians, i. 7, 10 (note). It seems that Diochon had given a history of the Messenian wars in considerable detail, if we may judge from a fragment of the last seventh book, containing the debate between Kleaus and Aristomenes. Very probably it was taken from Euphorus—though this we do not know.

For the statements of Pausanias respecting Myron and Rhamus, see iv. 6. Besides Myron and Rhamus, however, he seems to have received oral statements from contemporary Messenians and Laconians; at least on some occasions he states and contrasts the two contradictory stories (iv. 4, 41; iv. 5, 1).
city, together with various Helots and miscellaneous settlers who had no claim to a similar genealogy. The gods and heroes of the Messenian race were reverentially invoked at this great ceremony, especially the great Hero Aristomenes; and the site of Mount Ithômê, the ardour of the newly established citizens, the hatred and apprehension of Sparta, operating as a powerful stimulus to the creation and multiplication of what are called traditions, sufficed to expand the few facts known respecting the struggles of the old Messenians into a variety of details. In almost all these stories we discover a colouring unfavourable to Sparta, contrasting forcibly with the account given by Isokratês in his Discourse called Archidamus, wherein we read the view which a Spartan might take of the ancient conquests of his forefathers. But a clear proof that these Messenian stories had no real basis of tradition, is shown in the contradictory statements respecting the principal Hero Aristomenês; for some place him in the first, others in the second, of the two wars. Diodôrus and Myrôn both placed him in the first; Rhianus in the second. Though Pau-


1 Pausan. iv. 27, 2-31; Diodor. xv. 27.
Aristomenes, one in the first and one in the second war. This inextricable confusion respecting the greatest name in Messenian antiquity, shows how little any genuine stream of tradition can here be recognised.

Pausanias states the first Messenian war as beginning in B.C. 743 and lasting till B.C. 724—the second as beginning in B.C. 685 and lasting till B.C. 668. Neither of these dates rest upon any assignable positive authority; but the time assigned to the first war seems probable, while that of the second is apparently too early. Tyrtaeus authenticates both the duration of the first war, twenty years, and the eminent services rendered in it by the Spartan king Theopompus. He says moreover

1 See Diodor. Fragm. lib. viii. vol. iv. p. 30: in his brief summary of Messenian events (v. 66) he represents it as a matter on which authors differed, whether Aristomenes belonged to the first or second war. Clement Alexand. (Prot. p. 36) places him in the first, the same as Myron, by mentioning him as having killed Theopompus.

Wesseling observes (ad Diod. l. c.), " Duo fuerant Aristomenes, uterque in Messenorum contra Spartanos bello illustrissimus, alter posterior, alter preterito." 1

Unless this duplication of huminymous persons can be shown to be probable, by some collateral evidence, I consider it only as tantamount to a confession, that the difficulty is insoluble.

Pausanias is reserved in his manner of giving judgement.—ο χριστὸς Ἀριστομένης δὲ ἤγγι τὰς ἔργας αὐτὸς πέμπον τοῦ εὐτρεποῦ (iv. 6). Müller (Dorians, i. 7, 9) goes much too far when he affirms that the statement of Myron was " in the teeth of all tradition." Müller states incorrectly the citation from Plutarch, Ages, c. 21 (see his Note b). Plutarch there says nothing about Tyrtaeus: he says that the Messenians affirmed that their hero Aristomenes had killed the Spartan king Theopompus, whereas the Lacedaemonians said, that he had only wounded the king. According to both accounts, then, it would appear that Aristomenes belonged to the first Messenian war, not to the second.

1 Tyrtaeus Fragm. 6, Gauthier. But Tyrtaeus ought not to be understood to affirm distinctly (as Pausanias, Mr. Clinton, and Müller, all
(speaking during the second war); "the fathers of our fathers conquered Messène;" thus loosely indicating the relative dates of the two.

The Spartans (as we learn from Isokrátês, whose words date from a time when the city of Messène was only a recent foundation) professed to have seized the territory, partly in revenge for the impiety of the Messenians in killing their own king the Herakleid Kresphontès, whose relative had appealed to Sparta for aid—partly by sentence of the Delphian oracle. Such were the causes which had induced them first to invade the country, and they had conquered it after a struggle of twenty years 1. The Lacedaemonian explanations, as given in Pausanias, seem for the most part to be counter-statements arranged after the time when the Messenian version, evidently the interesting and popular account, had become circulated.

It has already been stated that the Lacedaemonians and Messenians had a joint border temple and sacrifice in honour of Artemis Limnatis, dating from the earliest times of their establishment in Peloponnesus. The site of this temple near the upper course of the river Nédon, in the mountainous

think) that Theopompus survived and put a close to the war: his language might concur with the supposition that Theopompus had been slain in the war—"Or δια (Theopompus), Μεσσηνίων εὔμακτα εὐρυχωρα.

For we surely might be authorised in saying—"It was through Epanoméndas that the Spartans were conquered and humbled; or it was through Lord Nelson that the French fleet was destroyed in the last war," though both of them perished in the accomplishment.

Tyrtæus therefore does not contradict the assertion, that Theopompus was slain by Aristomenes, nor can he be cited as a witness to prove that Aristomenes did not live during the first Messenian war, which is the purpose for which Pausanias quotes him (iv. 6),

1 Isokrátês (Archidamnus), Or. vi. p. 123–122.
territory north-east of Kalamata, but west of the highest ridge of Taygetus, has recently been exactly verified—and it seems in these early days to have belonged to Sparta. That the quarrel began at one of these border sacrifices was the statement of both parties, Lacedaemonians and Messenians. According to the latter, the Lacedaemonian king Téléklus laid a snare for the Messenians, by dressing up some youthful Spartans as virgins and giving them daggers; whereupon a contest ensued, in which the Spartans were worsted and Téléklus slain. That Téléklus was slain at the temple by the Messenians, was also the account of the Spartans—but they affirmed that he was slain in attempting to defend some young Lacedaemonian maidens, who were sacrificing at the temple, against outrageous violence from the Messenian youth. In

Strabo (vii. p. 257) gives a similar account of the sacrilege and murderous conduct of the Messenian youth at the temple of Artemis Limnatis. His version, substantially agreeing with that of the Lacedaemonians, seems to be borrowed from Antiochus, the contemporary of Timotheos, and is therefore earlier than the foundation of Messene by Epameinondas, from which event the philo-Messenian statements take their rise. Antiochus, writing during the plenitude of Lacedaemonian power, would naturally look upon the Messenians as irretrievably prostrate, and the impiety here narrated would in his mind be the natural cause why the divine judgements overtook them. Ephorus gives a similar account (ap. Strabo, vii. p. 280).

Compare Herakleides Ponticus (ad. calcem Cratii De Rep. Laced. p. 528) and Justin, iii. 4.

The possession of this temple of Artemis Limnatis—and of the Ager Dentheliate—was a subject of constant dispute between the Lacedaemonians and Messenians after the foundation of the city of Messene, even down to the time of the Roman emperor Tiberius (Tacit. Annal. iv. 43). See Stephan. Byz. v. Δέθηλαισ; Pausan. iii. 2, 6; iv. 4, 2; vi. 31, 3. Strabo, viii. p. 362.

For the situation of the temple of Artemis Limnatis, and the description of the Ager Dentheliate, see Professor Ross, Reisen im Peloponnes i. p. 5-11. He discovered two boundary-stones with inscriptions, dating
spite of the death of this king, however, the war did not actually break out until some little time after, when Alkamenês and Theopompus were kings at Sparta, and Antiochus and Androklês, sons of Phintas, kings of Messenia. The immediate cause of it was, a private altercation between the Messenian Polycharès (victor at the fourth Olympiad, B.C. 764) and the Spartan Euæphnus. Polycharès, having been grossly injured by Euæphnus, and his claim for redress having been rejected at Sparta, took revenge by aggressions upon other Lacedaemonians; the Messenians refused to give him up, though one of the two kings, Androklês, strongly insisted upon doing so, and maintained his opinion so earnestly against the opposite sense of the majority and of his brother Antiochus, that a tumult arose, and he was slain. The Lacedaemonians, now resolving upon war, struck the first blow without any formal declaration, by surprising the border town of Ampheia, and putting its defenders to the sword. They further overran the Messenian territory, and attacked some other towns, but without success, Euphaêaês, who had now succeeded his father Antiochus as king of Messenia, summoned the forces of the country and carried on the war against them from the time of the early Roman emperors, marking the confines of Lacedaemon and Messenê; both on the line of the highest ridge of Taygetus, where the waters separate east and west, and considerably to the eastward of the temple of Artemis Limnatis, so that at that time the Ager Dentheliate was considered a part of Messenia.

I now find that Colonel Leslie (Peloponnesians, p. 181) regards these Inscriptions discovered by Professor Ross as not proving that the temple of Artemis Limnatis was situated near the spot where they were found. His authority weighs much with me on such a point, though the arguments which he here employs do not seem to me conclusive.
with energy and boldness. For the first four years of the war the Lacedaemonians made no progress, and even incurred the ridicule of the old men of their nation as faint-hearted warriors: in the fifth year, however, they undertook a more vigorous invasion, under their two kings, Theopompus and Polydorus, who were met by Euphaes with the full force of the Messenians. A desperate battle ensued, in which it does not seem that either side gained much advantage; nevertheless the Messenians found themselves so much enfeebled by it, that they were forced to take refuge on the fortified mountain of Ithome, abandoning the rest of the country. In their distress they sent to solicit counsel and protection from Delphi, but their messenger brought back the appalling answer that a virgin of the royal race of Epypus must be sacrificed for their salvation: in the tragic scene which ensues, Aristodemus puts to death his own daughter, yet without satisfying the exigences of the oracle. The war still continued, and in the thirteenth year of it another hard-fought battle took place, in which the brave Euphaes was slain, but the result was again indecisive. Aristodemus, being elected king in his place, prosecuted the war strenuously: the fifth year of his reign is signalised by a third general battle, wherein the Corinthians assist the Spartans, and the Arcadians and Sikyonians are on the side of Messenia; the victory is here decisive on the side of Aristodemus, and the Lacedaemonians are driven back into their own territory. It was now

1 It is perhaps to this occasion that the story of the Epemski in Theopompus referred (ap. Athenae. vi. p. 271).—Helots adopted into
their turn to send envoys and ask advice from the Delphian oracle; while the remaining events of the war exhibit a series, partly of stratagems to fulfil the injunctions of the priestess,—partly of prodigies in which the divine wrath is manifested against the Messenians. The king Aristodémus, agonised with the thought that he has slain his own daughter without saving his country, puts an end to his own life. In the twentieth year of the war the Messenians abandoned Ithômê, which the Lacedæmonians razed to the ground: the rest of the country being speedily conquered, such of the inhabitants as did not flee either to Arcadia or to Eleusis, were reduced to complete submission.

Such is the abridgement of what Pausanias gives as the narrative of the first Messenian war. Most of his details bear the evident stamp of mere late romance; and it will easily be seen that the sequence of events presents no plausible explanation of that which is really indubitable—the result. The twenty years' war, and the final abandonment of Ithômê, is attested by Tyrtaeus beyond all doubt, as well as the harsh treatment of the conquered, the sleeping-place of their masters who had been slain in the war, and who were subsequently enfranchised.

The story of the Partiemæ, obscure and unintelligible as it is, belongs to the foundation of the colony of Tarentum (Strabo, vi. p. 270).

1 See Plutarch, De Superstitione, p. 168.
2 See Pausan. iv. 6-14.

An elaborate discussion is to be seen in Manso's Sparta, on the authorities whom Pausanias has followed in his History of the Messenian Wars, 18th Ed. tom. ii. p. 264.

"It would evidently be folly (he observes, p. 270), to suppose that in the history of the Messenian wars, as Pausanias lays them before us, we possess the true history of these events."
"Like asses worn down by heavy burthens" (says the Spartan poet), "they were compelled to make over to their masters an entire half of the produce of their fields, and to come in the garb of woe to Sparta, themselves and their wives, as mourners at the decease of the kings and principal persons." The revolt of their descendants, against a yoke so oppressive, goes by the name of the second Messenian war.

Had we possessed the account of the first Messenian war as given by Myron and Diodorus, it would evidently have been very different from the above, because they included Aristomenes in it, and to him the leading parts would be assigned. As the narrative now stands in Pausanias, we are not introduced to that great Messenian hero—the Achilles of the epic of Rhiannus—until the second war, in which his gigantic proportions stand prominently forward. He is the great champion of his country in the three battles which are represented as taking place during this war: the first, with indecisive result, at Deræ; the second, a signal victory on the part of the Messenians, at the Boar's Grave; the third, an equally signal defeat, in consequence of the traitorous flight of Aristokrates king of the Arcadian Orchomenus, who, ostensibly embracing the alliance of the Messenians, had received bribes from Sparta. Thrice did Ari-

1 Tyrtaeus, Fragm. 5, 6 (Schneiderstein).

C. F. Hermann remarks the treatment of the Messenians after the first war as mild in comparison with what it became after the second (Lehrbuch der Griech. Staatsgeschichte, sect. iii), a supposition which the emphatic words of Tyrtaeus renders inadmissible.

2 This is the express comparison introduced by Pausanias, iv. 5, 2.
stomenes sacrifice to Zeus Ithomates the sacrifice called Hekatomphonia⁴, reserved for those who had slain with their own hands 100 enemies in battle. At the head of a chosen band he carried his incursions more than once into the heart of the Lacedaemonian territory, surprised Amykle and Pharis, and even penetrated by night into the unfortified precinct of Sparta itself, where he suspended his shield as a token of defiance in the temple of Athene Chalkitekus. Thrice was he taken prisoner, but on two occasions marvellously escaped before he could be conveyed to Sparta; the third occasion was more fatal, and he was cast by order of the Spartans into the Keadas, a deep rocky cavity in Mount Taygetus into which it was their habit to precipitate criminals. But even in this emergency the divine aid⁵ was not withheld from him. While the fifty Messenians who shared his punishment were all killed by the shock, he alone was both supported by the gods so as to reach the bottom unhurt, and enabled to find an unexpected means of escape. For when, abandoning all hope, he had wrapped himself up in his cloak to die, he perceived a fox creeping about among the dead bodies: waiting until the animal approached him, he grasped its tail, defending himself from its

⁴ Plutarch, Dei. Sec. Septem. Convivium, p. 156.
⁵ Pausan. iv. 18. 4. "Ἅρτον καὶ Ἑλλάς θέοι τι, καὶ ἄνω το τοῦ γαῖος αὐτῷ ἔνω οὐκ ἔζωσεν.

Plutarch (De Herodot, Malignit. p. 886) states that Herodotus had mentioned Aristomenes as having been made prisoner by the Lacedaemonians; but Plutarch must have been deceived by his memory, for Herodotus does not mention Aristomenes.
bites as well as he could by means of his cloak; and being thus enabled to find the aperture by which the fox had entered, enlarged it sufficiently for crawling out himself. To the surprise both of friends and enemies he again appeared alive and vigorous at Eira. That fortified mountain, on the banks of the river Nedon and near the Ionian sea, had been occupied by the Messenians after the battle in which they had been betrayed by Aristokratēs the Arcadian; it was there that they had concentrated their whole force, as in the former war at Ithomè, abandoning the rest of the country. Under the conduct of Aristomenēs, assisted by the prophet Theoklūs, they maintained this strong position for eleven years. At length they were compelled to abandon it; but as in the case of Ithomè, the final determining circumstances are represented to have been, not any superiority of bravery or organization on the part of the Lacedaemonians, but treacherous betrayal and stratagem, seconding the fatal decree of the gods. Unable to maintain Eira longer, Aristomenēs, with his sons and a body of his countrymen, forced his way through the assailants and quitted the country—some of them retiring to Arcadia and Elis, and finally migrating to Rhegium. He himself passed the remainder of his days in Rhodes, where he dwelt along with his son-in-law Damagētus, the ancestor of the noble Rhodian family called the Diagorids, celebrated for its numerous Olympic victories.

Such are the main features of what Pausanias
calls the second Messenian war, or of what ought rather to be called the Aristomeneis of the poet Rhianus. That after the foundation of Messénē, and the recall of the exiles by Epameinondas, favour and credence was found for many tales respecting the prowess of the ancient hero whom they invoked in their libations—tales well calculated to interest the fancy, to vivify the patriotism, and to inflame the anti-Spartan antipathies, of the new inhabitants—there can be little doubt. And the Messenian maidens of that day may well have sung in their public processional sacrifices, how "Aristomenēs pursued the flying Lacedaemonians down to the mid-plain of Stenyklērus and up to the very summit of the mountain." From such stories (traditions they ought not to be denominated) Rhianus may doubtless have borrowed; but if proof were wanting to show how completely he looked at his materials from the point of view of the poet and not from that of the historian, we should find it in the remarkable fact noticed by

1 The narrative in Pausanias, iv. 15-21.
According to an incidental notice in Herodotus, the Samians affirmed that they had aided Lacedaemon in war against Messénē—at what period we do not know (Herodot. iii. 56).

2 Ἐπειδὴ Ἀριστομήνης ἐπού πάντως ἐπὶ τῷ ἀρχοντὶ Αριστομήνης Νίκησεν ευλογέται (Pausan. ii. 14, 5). The practice still continued in his time.

Compare also Pausan. iv. 27, 3; iv. 32, 3-4.

3 Pausanias heard the song himself (iv. 16, 4)—Ἐκλέγειν γενομέν τὸ πάντως ὑπὸ τῆς ἀριστομήνης—

"Εἰς τε μὲντο πάντως Στενύκληρος ἐπὶ τῆς ἀρρητοῦ

Rίνετο Ἀριστομήνη τοῖς Λακεδαμονίοις.

According to one story, the Lacedaemonians were said to have got possession of the person of Aristomenes and killed him; they found in him a hairy heart (Steph. Byz. v. "Aërated").

Narrative of Pausanias, borrowed from the poet Rhianus, is undeserving of credit.
Pausanias. Rhianus represented Leotychides as having been king of Sparta during the second Messenian war: now Leotychides (as Pausanias observes) did not reign until near a century and a half afterwards, during the Persian invasion.

To the great champion of Messenia, during this war, we may oppose on the side of Sparta another remarkable person, less striking as a character of romance, but more interesting in many ways to the historian—I mean the poet Tyrtaeus, a native of Aphidnae in Attica, an inestimable ally of the Lacedaemonians during most part of this second struggle. According to a story—which however has the air partly of a boast of the later Attic orators—the Spartans, disheartened at the first successes of the Messenians, consulted the Delphian oracle, and were directed to ask for a leader from Athens. The Athenians complied by sending Tyrtaeus, whom Pausanias and Justin represent as a lame man and a schoolmaster, despatched with a

Pausan. iv. 15, 1.

Perhaps Leotychides was king during the last revolt of the Helots or Messenians in 464 B.C., which is called the third Messenian war. He seems to have been then in exile, in consequence of his rivalry during the Thessalian expedition—but not yet dead (Herodot. vi. 72). Of the reality of what Mr. Clinton calls the third Messenian war in 490 B.C., I see no adequate proof (see Fast. Hell. vol. 1, p. 257).

The poem of Rhianus was entitled Μεσοναμίνα. He also composed Ίμαθινίον, "Haima, "Áxilán. See the Fragments—they are very few—in Dümser's Collection, p. 67-77.

He seems to have mentioned Nykotelia, the mother of Aristomenes (Fr. ii. p. 73); compare Pausan. iv. 14, 6.

I may remark that Pausanias throughout his account of the second Messenian war names king Alexander as leading the Lacedaemonian troops; but he has no authority for so doing, as we see by iv. 15, 1. It is a pure calculation of his own from the various stories of Tyrtaeus.
view of nominally obeying the oracle, and yet ren-
dering no real assistance. This seems to be a col-
louring put upon the story by later writers, but the
intervention of the Athenians in the matter in any
way deserves little credit. It seems more probable
that the legendary connection of the Dioskuri with
Aphidnae, celebrated at or near that time by the
poet Alkman, brought about through the Delphian
oracle the presence of the Aphidnaean poet at
Sparta. Respecting the lameness of Tyrtaeus, we
can say nothing; but that he was a schoolmaster
(if we are constrained to employ an unsuitable
term) is highly probable—for in that day, minstrels
who composed and sung poems were the only per-
sons from whom the youth received any mental
training. Moreover his sway over the youthful
mind is particularly noted in the compliment paid
to him in after-days by king Leonidas—"Tyrtaeus
was an adept in tickling the souls of youth." We
see enough to satisfy us that he was by birth a
stranger, though he became a Spartan by the sub-
sequent recompense of citizenship conferred upon
him—that he was sent through the Delphian oracle
—that he was an impressive and efficacious min-
strel—and that he had moreover sagacity enough
to employ his talents for present purposes and di-
verse needs; being able not merely to re-animate

1 Pausan. iv. 15, 3; Justin, ii. 5, 4. Compare Plato, Legg. ii. p. 630; Diocor. xv. 66; Lycurg, cont. Leukrat. p. 162. Philochorus and Kal-
listheus also represented him as a native of Aphidnae in Attica, which
Stesich controverts upon slender grounds (viii. p. 382); Philochor. Fr.
56 (Diodor).
2 Plutarch, Thes. c. 33. Pausan. i. 41, 5; Weikser, Alkman.
Fragm. p. 29.
3 Plutarch, Kleomen. c. 2. Ἐρέσεσθαι σους ψυχῆς αὐξάνει.
the languishing courage of the baffled warrior, but also to soothe the discontents of the mutinous. That his strains, which long maintained undiminished popularity among the Spartans¹, contributed much to determine the ultimate issue of this war, there is no reason to doubt; nor is his name the only one to attest the susceptibility of the Spartan mind in that day towards music and poetry. The first establishment of the Karneian festival with its musical competition at Sparta, falls during the period assigned by Pausanias to the second Messenian war: the Lesbian harper Terpander, who gained the first recorded prize at this solemnity, is affirmed to have been sent for by the Spartans pursuant to a mandate from the Delphian oracle, and to have been the means of appeasing a sedition. In like manner, the Kretan Thalètas was invited thither during a pestilence, which his art (as it is pretended) contributed to heal (about 620 B.C.); and Alkman, Xenokritus, Polymnastus, and Sakadas, all foreigners by birth, found favourable reception, and acquired popularity by their music and poetry. With the exception of Sakadas, who is a little later, all these names fall in the same century as Tyrtaeus, between 660 B.C.–610 B.C. The fashion which the Spartan music continued for a long time to maintain, is ascribed chiefly to the genius of Terpander².

The training in which a Spartan passed his life consisted of exercises warlike, social, and religious, blended together. While the individual,

¹ Philochorus, Frag. 56, ed. Didot; Lycurgus cont. Leukan. p. 163.
² See Plutarch, De Musica, pp. 1134, 1142, 1146.
strengthened by gymnastics, went through his painful lessons of fatigue, endurance and aggression—the citizens collectively were kept in the constant habit of simultaneous and regulated movement in the warlike march, in the religious dance, and in the social procession. Music and song, being constantly employed to direct the measure and keep alive the spirit of these multitudinous movements, became associated with the most powerful feelings which the habitual self-suppression of a Spartan permitted to arise, and especially with those sympathies which are communicated at once to an assembled crowd; indeed the musician and the minstrel were the only persons who ever addressed themselves to the feelings of a Lacedaemonian assembly. Moreover the simple music of that early day, though destitute of artistical merit and superseded afterwards by more complicated combinations, had nevertheless a pronounced ethical character; it wrought much more powerfully on the impulses and resolutions of the hearers, though it tickled the ear less gratefully, than the scientific compositions of after-days. Farther, each particular style of music had its own appropriate mental effect—the Phrygian mode imparted a wild and maddening stimulus; the Dorian mode created a settled and deliberate resolution, exempt alike from the desponding and from the impetuous sentiments. What is called the Dorian mode, seems

2 See the treatise of Plutarch, De Musica, passim, especially c. 17, p. 1136, &c.; 33, p. 1143. Plato, Republ. iii. p. 369; Aristot. Politi. vim. 6, 5-8.

The excellent treatise De M Ericis Pindari, prefixed by M. Boeckh to
to be in reality the old native Greek mode as contradistinguished from the Phrygian and Lydian—these being the three primitive modes, subdivided and combined only in later times, with which the first Grecian musicians became conversant. It probably acquired its title of Dorian from the musical celebrity of Sparta and Argos, during the seventh and sixth centuries before the Christian era; but it belonged as much to the Arcadians and Achaeans as to the Spartans and Argeians. And the marked ethical effects, produced both by the Dorian and the Phrygian modes in ancient times, are facts perfectly well-attested, however difficult they may be to explain upon any general theory of music.

That the impression produced by Tyrtaeus at Sparta, therefore, with his martial music, and emphatic exhortations to bravery in the field, as well as union at home, should have been very considerable, is perfectly consistent with the character both of the age and of the people; especially as he is represented to have appeared pursuant to the injunction of the Delphian oracle. From the scanty fragments remaining to us of his elegies and anapaests, however, we can satisfy ourselves only of two facts: first, that the war was long, obstinately contested, and dangerous to Sparta as well as to the Messenians; next, that other parties in Peloponnesus took part on both sides, especially on the side of the Messenians. So frequent and harass-

this edition of Pindar, is full of instruction upon this as well as upon all other points connected with the Grecian music (see lib. iii. v. 8, p. 288).
ing were the aggressions of the latter upon the Spartan territory, that a large portion of the border land was left uncultivated; scarcity ensued, and the proprietors of the deserted farms, driven to despair, pressed for a redivision of the landed property in the state. It was in appeasing these discontents that the poem of Tyrtaeus called Eunomia, "Legal order," was found signally beneficial. It seems certain that a considerable portion of the Arcadians, together with the Pisatae and the Triphylians, took part with the Messenians; there are also some statements numbering the Eleians among their allies, but this appears not probable. The state of the case rather seems to have been, that the old quarrel between the Eleians and the Pisatae respecting the right to preside at the Olympic games, which had already burst forth during the preceding century in the reign of the Argeian Phaidon, still continued. Unwilling dependents of Elis, the Pisatae and Triphylians took part with the subject Messenians, while the masters at Elis and Sparta made common cause, as they had before done against Phaidon. Pantaleon king of Pisa, revolting from Elis, acted as commander of his countrymen in co-operation with the Messenians; and he is farther noted for having, at the period of the 34th Olympiad (644 B.C.), marched a body of troops to Olympia, and thus dispossessed the Eleians, on that occasion, of the presidency; that particular festival—as well as the 8th Olympiad, in which Phei-

1 Aristot. Poli. v. 7, 1; Pausan. iv. 18, 2.
2 Pausan. vi. 12, 2; Strabo, viii. p. 355, where the Nereopus slideum near the Pylians of Triphylia.
dön interfered,—and the 104th Olympiad, in which the Arcadians marched in,—were always marked on the Eleian register as non-Olympiads, or informal celebrations. We may reasonably connect this temporary triumph of the Pisatans with the Messenian war, inasmuch as they were no match for the Eleians single-handed, while the fraternity of Sparta with Elis is in perfect harmony with the scheme of Peloponnesian politics which we have observed as prevalent even before and during the days of Pheidón. The second Messenian war will

Respecting the position of the Eleians and Pisatans during the second Messenian war, there is confusion in the different statements; so they cannot all be reconciled, we are compelled to make a choice.

That the Eleians were allies of Sparta, and the Pisatans of Messenia, and that the contests of Sparta and Messenia were mixed up with those of Elis and Pisa about the agonothesia of the Olympic games, is conformable to one distinct statement of Strabo (viii. pp. 355, 358), and to the passage in Phavorinus v. Αέρτης, and is moreover indirectly sustained by the view given in Pantaleon respecting the relations between Elis and Pisa (vi. 22, 2), whereby it clearly appears that the agonothesia was a matter of standing dispute between the two, until the Pisatans were finally crushed by the Eleians in the time of Pyrrhus, son of Pantaleon. Further, this same view is really conformable to another passage in Strabo, which, as now printed, appears to contradict it, but which is recognised by Müller and others as needing correction, though the correction which they propose seems to me not the best. The passage (viii. p. 362) stands thus: ΠΛΕΙΟΝΩΣ ΝΕΟΛΗΞΕΩΝ ΑΧΙΟΝ ΑΘΕΙΟΝ ΠΑΙΣΙΣ (MESSENEAN ΑΝΤΙΑΡΓΟΝ ΤΟΥ ΜΑΤΙΩΝΟΥ). ΤΗΝ ΜΕΤ ΟΙΝ ΠΡΟΓΕΝΗΣΚΟΜΕΝΟΝ ΑΙΤΙΟΝ ΠΟΙΕΙΝ. ΕΥΚΟΛΗΣΟΝ ΤΗΝ ΠΛΕΙΟΝΟΝ ΑΧΙΟΝ ΑΘΕΙΟΝ ΠΑΙΣΙΣ. ΑΡΚΙΤΗΣ ΜΕΝ ΑΡΙΣΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΣ ΤΗΝ ΟΡΘΟΡΡΕΙΑΝ ΜΑΧΗΝ ΕΠΡΑΚΤΗΣΕ ΕΠΤΑΡΕΤΩΝ ΕΠΕΙΓΚΡΑΤΗΣΕ. ΟΛΟΣΟΣ ΟΥ ΠΑΝΤΕΛΟΝΤΑ ΤΟΥ ΟΡΘΟΡΡΕΙΑΝ ΦΟΙΤΗΣ ΠΟΙΕΙΝ ΑΗΤΗΝ ΑΝΤΙΑΡΓΟΝ ΤΟΥ ΠΕΟΡΟΥ ΤΟΥ ΛΑΔΟΥΝΙΟΥ, &C. Here it is obvious that in the enumeration of allies, the Arcadians ought to have been included; accordingly both O. Müller and Mr. Clinton (ad numm. 672 a. c.) agree in altering the passage thus: they insert the words καί 'ΑΡΚΙΤΗΣ after the word ΠΑΙΣΙΣ, so that both Eleians and Pisatans appear as allies of Messenia at once. I submit that this is improbably itself, and inconsistent with the passage of Strabo previously noticed; the proper way of alter-
thus stand as beginning somewhere about the 33rd Olympiad, or 648 B.C., between seventy and eighty years after the close of the first, and lasting, according to Pausanias, seventeen years; according to Plutarch, more than twenty years.

The passage is (in my judgment) to substitute the word "Apolodorus" in place of the word "Hellenikos," which makes the two passages of Strabo consistent with each other, and hardly does greater violence to the text.

As opposed to the view here adopted, there is undoubtedly the passage of Pausanias (iv. 15, 4) which numbers the Eleians among the allies of Messenia, and takes no notice of the Pisatae. The affirmation of Julius Africanus (ap. Eusebium Chronici, p. 145), that the Pisatae revolted from Elis in the 50th Olympiad, and celebrated the Olympic games themselves until Ol. 52, for twenty-two successive ceremonies is in contradiction—first with Pausanias (vi. 22, 1), which appears to me a clear and valuable statement; from its particular reference to the three non-Olympiads—secondly, with Pausanias (v. 9, 4), when the Eleians in the 50th Olympiad determine the number of Hellanodikae. I agree with Corinii (Fasti Attici, t. iii. p. 47) in setting aside the passage of Julius Africanus; Mr. Clinton (F. H, p. 233) is displeased with Corsini for this suspicion, but he himself virtually does the same thing, for in order to reconcile Jul. Africanus with Pausanias, he introduces a supposition quite different from what is asserted by either of them; i.e. a joint agreement by Eleians and Pisatae together. This hypothesis of Mr. Clinton appears to me gratuitous and inadmissible. Africanus himself meant to state something quite different, and I imagine him to have been misled by an erroneous authority. See Mr. Clinton, F. H. ad ann. 660 B.C. to 680 B.C.

1 Plutarch, De Serì Num. Vind. p. 546; Pausan. iv. 15, 1; iv. 17, 3; iv. 23, 2.

The date of the second Messenian war, and the interval between the second and the first, are points respecting which also there is irreconcilable discrepancy of statement; we can only choose the most probable: see the passages collected and canvassed in O. Müller (Dorians, i, 7, 11, and in Mr. Clinton, Fast. Hellen. vol. i. Appendix 2, p. 257).

According to Pausanias, the second war lasted from a.c. 685-668, and there was an interval between the first and the second war of 39 years. Justin (iii. 5) reckons an interval of eighty years; Eusebius an interval of ninety years. The main evidence is the passage of Tyrtaios, wherein that poet, speaking during the second war, says, "The fathers of our fathers conquered Messene."

Mr. Clinton adheres very nearly to the view of Pausanias; he supposes that the real date is only six years lower (679-662). But I agree.
Many of the Messenians who abandoned their country after this second conquest are said to have found shelter and sympathy among the Arcadians, who admitted them to a new home and gave them their daughters in marriage; and who moreover punished severely the treason of Aristokratēs, king of Orchomenus, in abandoning the Messenians at the battle of the Tranch. That perfidious leader was put to death and his race dethroned, while the crime as well as the punishment was farther commemorated by an inscription, which was to be seen near the altar of Zeus Lykaon in Arcadia. The inscription doubtless existed in the days of Kallisthenēs, in the generation after the restoration of Messēnē. But whether it had any existence prior to that event, or what degree of truth there may be in the story of Aristokratēs, we are unable to de-

with Clavius (Histoire des Premiers Temps de la Grèce, t. ii. p. 233) and O. Müller (I.c.) in thinking that an interval of thirty-nine years is too short to suit the phrase of fathers' fathers. Speaking in the present year (1846), it would not be held proper to say, "The fathers of our fathers carried on the war between 1793 and the peace of Amiens;" we should rather say, "The fathers of our fathers carried on the American war and the Seven Years' war." An age is marked by its mature and even elderly members—by those between thirty-five and fifty-five years of age.

Agreeing as I do here with O. Müller, against Mr. Clutton, I also agree with him in thinking that the best mark which we possess of the date of the second Messenian war is the statement respecting Panaiontēros: the 34th Olympiad, which Pantaiontēros celebrated, probably fell within the time of the war; which would thus be brought down much later than the time assigned by Pausanias, yet not so far down as that named by Ennius and Justin: the exact year of its commencement, however, we have no means of fixing.

Kreis, in his discussions on the Fragments of the lost Books of Dio- dorus, thinks that that historian placed the beginning of the second Messenian war in the 35th Olympiad (n.c. 610) (Kreis, Lociiones Diodorum, p. 254–260).
termine: the son of Aristokratēs, named Aristodēmus, is alleged in another authority to have reigned afterwards at Orchomenus. That which stands strongly marked is, the sympathy of Arcadians and Messenians against Sparta—a sentiment which was in its full vigour at the time of the restoration of Messēnē.

The second Messenian war was thus terminated by the complete subjugation of the Messenians. Such of them as remained in the country were reduced to a servitude probably not less hard than that which Tyrtaeus described them as having endured between the first war and the second. In after-times, the whole territory which figures on the map as Messenia,—south of the river Neda, and westward of the summit of Taygetus,—appears as subject to Sparta, and as forming the western portion of Laconia; distributed (in what proportion we know not) between Periekeic towns and Helot villages. By what steps, or after what degree of farther resistance, the Spartans conquered this country we have no information; but we are told that they made over Asinē to the expelled Dryopes from the Argolic peninsula and Mothône to the fugitives from Nauplia. Nor do we hear of any serious revolt from Sparta in this territory until 150 years afterwards.

1 Diodor. xv. 66; Polyb. iv. 33; who quotes Kaisthēmenēs; Paus. viii. 5, 8. Neither the Inscription, as cited by Polybius, nor the allusion in Plutarch (De Serā Numin. Vindicat. p. 546), appear to fit the narrative of Pausanias, for both of them imply secret and long-concealed treason, tardily brought to light by the interposition of the gods; whereas Pausanias describes the treason of Aristokratēs at the battle of the Trench as palpable and flagrant.

2 Herakleid. Pontic. ap. Diog. Laert. i. 34.
3 Pausan. iv. 24, 2; iv. 34, 6; iv. 35, 2.
4 Thucyd. i. 101.
subsequent to the Persian invasion;—a revolt which Sparta, after serious efforts, succeeded in crushing, so that the territory remained in her power until her defeat at Leuktra, which led to the foundation of Messene by Epameinondas. The fertility of the plains—especially of the central portion near the river Pamisus, so much extolled by observers, modern as well as ancient—rendered it an acquisition highly valuable. At some time or other, it must of course have been formally partitioned among the Spartans, but it is probable that different and successive allotments were made, according as the various portions of territory, both to the east and to the west of Taygetus, were conquered. Of all this we have no information.

Imperfectly as these two Messenian wars are known to us, we may see enough to warrant us in making two remarks. Both were tedious, protracted, and painful, showing how slowly the results of war were then gathered, and adding one additional illustration to prove how much the rapid and instantaneous conquest of Laconia and Messenia by the Dorians, which the Herakleid legend sets forth, is contradicted by historical analogy. Both were characterised by a similar defensive proceeding on the part of the Messenians—the occupation of a mountain difficult of access, and the fortification of

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1 Panop. says, τὸ παλαιὸν Μεσσηνίας, πλῆς τῆς Λακωνίας, αὐτοὶ διαδόθισαν, &c. (iv. 24, 2.)

In an apophthegm ascribed to King Polydorus, leader of the Spartans during the first Messenian war, he is asked, whether he is really taking arms against his brethren, to which he replies, "No; I am only marching to the unfortified portion of the territory." (Plutarch, Apophthegm. Lakonic. p. 231.)—ἐνὶ τῷ ἀλήθειαν χαρέων.
it for the special purpose and resistance—Ithômê (which is said to have had already a small town upon it) in the first war, Eîra in the second. It is reasonable to infer from hence that neither their principal town Stényklêrus, nor any other town in their country, was strongly fortified, so as to be calculated to stand a siege; that there were no walled towns among them analogous to Mykênae and Tîrînâ on the eastern portion of Peloponnesus; and that perhaps what were called towns were, like Sparta itself, clusters of unfortified villages. The subsequent state of Helotism into which they were reduced is in consistency with this dispersed village residence during their period of freedom.

The relations of Pîsa and Elîs form a suitable counterpart and sequel to those of Messenîa and Sparta. Unwilling subjects themselves, the Pisatans had lent their aid to the Messenians—and their king Pàntaleôn, one of the leaders of this combined force, had gained so great a temporary success, as to dispossess the Eleians of the agonothësia or administration of the games for one Olympic ceremony, in the 34th Olympiad. Though again reduced to their condition of subjects, they manifested dispositions to renew their revolt at the 48th Olympiad, under Dâmophôn, the son of Pàntaleôn, and the Eleians marched into their country to put them down, but were persuaded to retire by protestations of submission. At length, shortly afterwards, under Pûrrhus, the brother of Dâmophôn, a serious revolt broke out. The inhabitants of Dyspontium and the other villages in the Pisatid, assisted by those of Makístus, Skillus and the other
towns in Triphylia, took up arms to throw off the yoke of Elis; but their strength was inadequate to the undertaking. They were completely conquered; Dyspontium was dismantled, and the inhabitants of it obliged to flee the country, from whence most of them emigrated to the colonies of Epidamnus and Apollonia in Epirus. The inhabitants of Makistus and Skillus were also chased from their abodes, while the territory became more thoroughly subject to Elis than it had been before. These incidents seem to have occurred about the 50th Olympiad, or B.C. 580; and the dominion of Elis over her Perioecid territory was thus as well assured as that of Sparta. The separate denominations both of Pisa and Triphylia became more and more merged in the sovereign name of Elis: the town of Lepraum alone, in Triphylia, seems to have maintained a separate name and a sort of half-autonomy down to the time of the Peloponnesian war, not without perpetual struggles against the Eleians. But towards the period of the Peloponnesian war, the political interests of Lacedemon had become considerably changed, and it was to her advantage to maintain the independence of the subordinate states

1 Pausan. vi. 22, 2; v. 6, 3; v. 10, 2; Strabo. viii. p. 355–357.

The temple in honour of Zeus at Olympia was first erected by the Eleians out of the spoils of this expedition (Pausan. v. 10, 2).

2 Thucyd. v. 31. Even Lepraum is characterised as Eleian, however (Aristoph. Aves, 149): compare also Steph. Byz. v. Taphitius 6 Hdt.

Even in the sixth Olympiad an inhabitant of Dyspontium is proclaimed as victor at the stadium, under the denomination of "as Eleians from Dyspontium," proclaimed by the Eleians of course—the like in the 27th Olympiad: see Stephon. Byz. v. 1815, which shows that the inhabitants of the Pisaid cannot have rendered themselves independent of Elis in the 26th Olympiad, as Strabo alleges (viii. p. 355).
against the superior: accordingly, we find her at that time upholding the autonomy of Lepreum. From what cause the devastation of the Triphylian towns by Elis, which Herodotus mentions as having happened in his time, arose, we do not know; the fact seems to indicate a continual yearning for their original independence, which was still commemorated, down to a much later period, by the ancient Amphiktyony at Samikum in Triphylia in honour of Poseidón—a common religious festival frequented by all the Triphylian towns and celebrated by the inhabitants of Makistus, who sent round proclamation of a formal truce for the holy period. The Lacédæmonians, after the close of the Peloponnesian war had left them undisputed heads of Greece, formally upheld the independence of the Triphylian towns against Elis, and seem to have countenanced their endeavours to attach themselves to the Arcadian aggregate, which however was never fully accomplished. Their dependence on Elis became loose and uncertain, but was never wholly shaken off.

1 Herodot. iv. 149; Strabo, viii. p. 343.
2 Diapor. xiv. 17: xvi. 77: Xenoph. Hellen. m. 2. 23, 26.

It was about this period probably that the idea of the local eponymus, Triphylus, son of Arkas, was first introduced (Polyb. iv. 77).
CHAPTER VIII.

CONQUESTS OF SPARTA TOWARDS ARCADIA AND ARGOLIS.

I have described in the last two chapters, as far as our imperfect evidence permits, how Sparta came into possession both of the southern portion of Laconia along the course of the Eurotas down to its mouth, and of the Messenian territory westward. Her progress towards Arcadia and Argolis is now to be sketched, so as to conduct her to that position which she occupied during the reign of Peisistratus at Athens, or about 560-540 B.C.,—a time when she had reached the maximum of her territorial possessions, and when she was confessedly the commanding state in Hellas.

The central region of Peloponnesus, called Arcadia, had never received any immigrants from without. Its indigenous inhabitants—a strong and hardy race of mountaineers, the most numerous Hellenic tribe in the peninsula, and the constant hive for mercenary troops—were among the rudest and poorest of Greeks, retaining for the longest period their original subdivision into a number of petty hill-villages, each independent of the other; while the union of all who bore the Arcadian name (though they had some common sacrifices, such as

the festival of the Lykeian Zeus, of Despoina, daughter of Poseidon and Demeter, and of Artemis Hymnia!) was more loose and ineffective than that of Greeks generally, either in or out of Peloponnesus. The Arcadian villagers were usually denominated by the names of regions, coincident with certain ethnical subdivisions—the Azanes, the Parrhasii, the Mænaliæ (adjoining Mount Mænalus), the Eutresii, the Ægyæ, the Skiritæ, &c. Some considerable towns however there were—aggregations of villages or demes which had been once autonomous. Of these the principal were Tegea and Mantinea, bordering on Laconia and Argolis—Orthomenus, Pheneus, and Stymphalus, towards the north-east, bordering on Achaia and Phlius—Kleitor and Heraea, westward, where the country is divided from Elis and Triphylia by the woody

1 Pausan. viii. 6, 7; viii. 37, 6; viii. 38, 2. Xenias, one of the generals of Greek mercenary in the service of Cyrus the younger, a native of the Parrhasian district in Arcadia, celebrates with great solemnity, during the march upward, the festival and games of the Lykan (Xenoph. Anab. i. 2, 10; compare Pindar, Olymp. ix. 142).

Many of the forests in Arcadia contained not only wild boars, but bears, in the days of Pausanias (viii. 23, 4).

Strabo, viii. p. 528.

Some geographers distributed the Arcadians into three subdivisions, Arcania, Parrhasia, and Triperuntia. Aeon passed for the son of Arcas, and his lot in the division of the paternal inheritance was said to have contained seventeen towns (ἀπὸ τῶν Ἀκαίων). Stephan. Byz. v. 'Ακαία—Βαλανια. Kleitor seems the chief place in Arcasia, as far as we can infer from genealogy (Pausan. viii. 4, 2, 3). Paus or Pau, from whence the Arcanian sutor of the daughter of Kleisthenes presented himself, was between Kleitor and Polophis (Herod. vi. 127; Paus. viii. 23, 6).

A Delphian oracle, however, reckons the inhabitants of Phigalia, in the south-western corner of Arcadia, among the Arcans (Paus. viii. 42, 3).

The burial-place of Arcas was supposed to be on Mount Mænalus (Paus. viii. 9, 2).
mountains of Pholoe and Erymanthus—and Phigaleia, on the south-western border near to Messenia. The most powerful of all were Tegea and Mantinea—conterminous towns, nearly equal in force, dividing between them the cold and high plain of Tripolitza, and separated by one of those capricious torrents which only escapes through katabothra. To regulate the efflux of this water, was a difficult task, requiring friendly co-operation of both the towns; and when their frequent jealousies brought on a quarrel, the more aggressive of the two inundated the territory of its neighbour as one means of annoyance. The power of Tegea, which had grown up out of nine constituent townships originally separate, appears to have been more ancient than that of its rival; as we may judge from its splendid heroic pretensions connected with the name of Echemus, and from the post conceded to its hoplites in joint Peloponnesian armaments, which was second in distinction only to that of the Lacedaemonians. If it be correct, as Strabo asserts, that the incorporation of the town of

1 Thucyd. v. 65. Compare the description of the ground in Professor Ross (Reisen im Peloponnes. iv. 7).
2 Strabo, viii. p. 337.
3 Herodot. ix. 27.
4 Strabo, i. c. Mantinea is reckoned among the oldest cities of Arcadia (Polyb. ii. 64). Both Mantinea and Orchomenus had originally occupied very lofty hill sites, and had been rebuilt on a larger scale, lower down, nearer to the plain (Pausan. viii. 8, 3; 12, 4; 13, 2).

In regard to the relations, during the early historical period, between Sparta, Argos, and Arcadia, there is a new fragment of Diodorus (among those recently published by Dikaios out of the Excerpta in the Escorial library, Fragment. Historic. Graecor. vol. ii. p. viii.). The Argives had espoused the cause of the Arcadians against Sparta; and at the expense of considerable loss and suffering, had regained such portions of Arcadia
Mantineia, out of its five separate Demes, was brought about by the Argeians—we may conjecture that the latter adopted this proceeding as a means of providing some check upon their powerful neighbours of Tegea. The plain common to Tegea and Mantineia was bounded to the west by the wintry heights of Menalus ¹, beyond which, as far as the boundaries of Laconia, Messenia, and Triphylia, there was nothing in Arcadia but small and unimportant townships or villages—without any considerable town, before the important step taken by Epameinondas in founding Megalopolis, a short time after the battle of Leuktra. The mountaineers of these regions who joined Epameinondas before the battle of Mantineia (at a time when Mantineia and most of the towns of Arcadia were opposed to him) were so inferior to the other Greeks in equipment, that they still carried as their chief weapon, in place of the spear, nothing better than the ancient club ² as she had conquered. The king of Argos restored this recovered territory to the Arpadans; but the Argians generally were angry that he did not retain it and distribute it among them as a reward for their losses in the contest. They rose in insurrection against the king, who was forced to flee, and take refuge at Tegea.

We have nothing to illustrate this fragment, nor do we know to what king, date, or events, it relates.

¹ Μαναλύς δυνατός (Delphian Oracle, ap. Paus. viii. 9, 2).
² Xenophon, in describing the ardour with which Epameinondas inspired his soldiers before this final battle, says (vi. 5, 20), προσθέσα τινα θεοῦ τά χρήμα, ελεύθερον χώραν, ἐπερμίσσων δι' αὐτὸ τὸ ἀργεῖον στρατόν παντὸς ἐπαύσαντο, οὐ θεβάδοι οἴοντες πάντες δι' ἄρεως καὶ λόγχης καὶ μαχαίρων, καὶ ἑλπίζοντες τὰς ἁλπίδας.

It is hardly conceivable that these Arpadian hoplites should have possessed a shield and a full panoply. The language of Xenophon in calling them hoplites, and the term ἐπερμίςσω (properly referring to the inscription on the shield) appear to be conceived in a spirit of cou-
Both Tegea and Mantinea held several of these smaller Arcadian townships near to them in a sort of dependence, and were anxious to extend this empire over others: during the Peloponnesian war, we find the Mantineians establishing and garrisoning a fortress at Kypseli among the Parrhasii, near the site in which Megalopolis was afterwards built¹. But at this period, Sparta, as the political chief of Hellas—having a strong interest in keeping all the Grecian towns, small and great, as much isolated from each other as possible, and in checking all schemes for the formation of local confederacies—stood forward as the protectress of the autonomy of these smaller Arcadians and drove back the Mantineians within their own limits². At a somewhat later period, during the acme of her power, a few years before the battle of Leuktra, she even proceeded to the extreme length of breaking up the unity of Mantinea itself, causing the walls to be razed, and the inhabitants to be again parcelled into their five original Demes—a violent arrangement which the turn of political events very soon reversed³. It was not until after the battle of Leuktra and the depression of Sparta that any mea-
temptsion suffered, proceeding from Xenophon's wise-Theban tendencies: "the Arcadian Lhoplites with their clubs put themselves forward to be as good as the Thebans." That these tendencies of Xenophon show themselves in expressions very unbecoming to the dignity of history (though curious as evidences of the time), may be seen by vi. 8, 12, where he says of the Thebans—καὶ ἀρρητῷ ὑπὸ τοῦ πολιτικῶς, αἱ συνοικίαι τῆς Αρκαδομοίας, ὧν τοῦ ποιῆτο πληρότερον. &c.

¹ Thuryll. v. 39, 47, 81.
² Thuryll. I. c. Compare the instructive speech of Kleon of Calcis, the envy from Akathus, addressed to the Laconians, B.C. 582 (Xen. Hellen. v. 2, 15-16).
³ Xenoph. Hellen. v. 2, 1-6; Diodor. x. 10.
sures were taken for the formation of an Arcadian political confederacy; and even then the jealousies of the separate cities rendered it incomplete and short-lived. The great permanent change, the establishment of Megalopolis, was accomplished by the ascendency of Epameinondas. Forty petty Arcadian townships, among those situated to the west of Mount Mænalus, were aggregated into the new city: the jealousies of Tegea, Mantinea, and Kleitôr, were for a while suspended; and citizens came from all of them, as well as from the districts of the Mænalii and Parrhasii, in order to impart to the new establishment a genuine Pan-Arcadian character.

It was thus that there arose for the first time a powerful city on the borders of Laconia and Messenia, rescuing the Arcadian townships from their dependence on Sparta, and imparting to them political interests of their own, which rendered them both a check upon their former chief and a support to the re-established Messenians.

It has been necessary thus to bring the attention of the reader for one moment to events long posterior in the order of time (Megalopolis was founded in 370 B.C.), in order that he may understand, by contrast, the general course of those

2 Pausan. viii. 27, 5. No ckist is mentioned from Orchomenus, though three of the petty townships contributing (συστήλαιναι) to Orchomenus were embodied in the new city. The feud between the neighbouring cities of Orchomenus and Mantinea was bitter (Xen. Hellan. vi. 5, 11-22). Orchomenus and Korinthe both opposed the political confederation of Arcadia.

The oration of Demosthenes, ἵστορ Μεγαλόπολιν, strongly attests the importance of this city, especially εἰς τὸν μὲν έναντίον την ἐκκαθάρωσιν, ἵστορικ καὶ ἑαυτοῦ τυχεῖν τιμῆν, &c.
incidents of the earlier time, where direct accounts are wanting. The northern boundary of the Spartan territory was formed by some of the many small Arcadian townships or districts, several of which were successively conquered by the Spartans and incorporated with their dominion, though at what precise time we are unable to say. We are told that Charilaus, the reputed nephew and ward of Lykurgus, took Αγγυς, and that he also invaded the territory of Tegea, but with singular ill-success, for he was defeated and taken prisoner\(^1\): we also hear that the Spartans took Phigaleia by surprise in the 30th Olympiad, but were driven out again by the neighbouring Arcadian Oresthasians\(^2\). During the second Messenian war the Arcadians are represented as cordially seconding the Messenians; and it may seem perhaps singular, that while neither Mantinea nor Tegea are mentioned in this war, the more distant town of Orchomenus, with its king Aristokratēs, takes the lead. But the facts of the contest come before us with so poetical a colouring, that we cannot venture to draw any positive inference as to the times to which they are referred.

Gεnus\(^3\) and Karystus seem to have belonged to the Spartans in the days of Alkman: moreover the district called Skiritis, bordering on the territory of Tegea—as well as Belemina and Maleatis, to the westward, and Karyae to the eastward and southeastward, of Skiritis—forming all together the entire

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\(^1\) Pausan. iii. 2, 6; ill. 7, 3; vili. 48, 3.
\(^2\) Pausan. vili. 59, 2.
\(^3\) Alkman, Fr. 15, Welcker: Strabo. x. p. 446.
northern frontier of Sparta and all occupied by Arcadian inhabitants—had been conquered and made part of the Spartan territory before 600 B.C. And Herodotus tells us, that at this period the Spartan kings Leon and Hagesikles contemplated nothing less than the conquest of entire Arcadia, and sent to ask from the Delphian oracle a blessing on their enterprise. The priestess dismissed their wishes as extravagant, in reference to the whole of Arcadia, but encouraged them, though with the usual equivocations of language, to try their fortune against Tegea. Flushed with their course of previous success, not less than by the favourable construction which they put upon the words of the oracle, the Lacedaemonians marched against Tegea with such entire confidence of success, as to carry with them chains for the purpose of binding their expected prisoners. But the result was disappointment and defeat. They were repulsed with loss, and the prisoners whom they left behind, bound in

1 That the Skirites were Arcadians is well-known (Thuc. v. 47; Steph. Byz. v. Σκίρας); the possession of Belmon was disputed with Sparta, in the days of her comparative humiliation, by the Arcadians; see Plutarch, Kleomenes, 4; Pausan. viii. 35, 4.

Respecting Karye (the border town of Sparta, where the ξαφητών were sacrificed, Thuc. v. 55) see Plutarch, Kleomenes—ἐκ της Αμφικτίας του Ἐγρύδος του Ἐρακίου Ἐρακίδας εὐσεβεῖς διηνέκειαν Ἀρκαδικὸς.

The readiness with which Karye and the Malachi revolted against Sparta after the battle of Leuktra, even before the invasion of Lacedaemon by the Thebans, exhibits them apparently as conquered foreign dependencies of Sparta, without any kindred of race (Xenoph. Helen. vi. 5, 24-26; vii. 1, 28). Leuktra in the Malachi seems to have formed a part of the territory of Megalopolis in the days of Kleomenes III. (Plutarch, Kleomenes, 6); in the Peloponnesian war it was the frontier town of Sparta towards Mount Lyktrum (Thuc. v. 55).

2 Herod. i. 65. καταραθείσης Ἀρκαδίως κρατάντων κτείναι, ἀντετραμώτος ἐν δῆλοις ἔτσι πάντα τῇ Ἀρκαδίῳ χάραι.
the very chains which their own army had brought, were constrained to servile labour on the plain of Tegea—the words of the oracle being thus literally fulfilled, though in a sense different from that in which the Lacedaemonians had first understood them.

For one whole generation, we are told, they were constantly unsuccessful in their campaigns against the Tegeans, and this strenuous resistance probably prevented them from extending their conquests farther among the petty states of Arcadia.

At length in the reign of Anaxandridés and Aristó, the successors of León and Hegesiklés (about 560 B.C.), the Delphian oracle, in reply to a question from the Spartans—which of the gods they ought to propitiate in order to become victorious—enjoined them to find and carry to Sparta the bones of Orestês son of Agamemnon. After a vain search, since they did not know where the body of Orestês was to be found, they applied to the oracle for more specific directions, and were told that the son of Agamemnon was buried at Tegea itself, in a place "where two blasts were blowing under powerful constraint,—where there was stroke and counter-stroke, and destruction upon destruction." These mysterious words were elucidated by a lucky accident. During a truce with Tegea, Lichas, one of the chiefs of the 800 Spartan chosen youth who acted as the moveable police of the country under the ephors, visited the place, and entered the forge of a black-

1 Herod. i. 67 ; Pausan. iii. 3. 5 : xii. 45. 2.
2 Herodotus saw the identical chains suspended in the temple of Athéna Alea at Tegea.
smith—who mentioned to him, in the course of conversation, that in sinking a well in his outer court he had recently discovered a coffin containing a body seven cubits long; astounded at the sight, he had left it there undisturbed. It struck Lichas that the gigantic relic of aforesight could be nothing else but the corpse of Orestes; and he felt assured of this when he reflected how accurately the indications of the oracle were verified; for there were the "two blasts blowing by constraint," in the two bellows of the blacksmith; there was the "stroke and counter-stroke" in his hammer and anvil, as well as the "destruction upon destruction" in the murderous weapons which he was forging. Lichas said nothing, but returned to Sparta with his discovery, which he communicated to the authorities, who, by a concerted scheme, banished him under a pretended criminal accusation. He then again returned to Tegea, under the guise of an exile, prevailed upon the blacksmith to let to him the premises, and when he found himself in possession, dug up and carried off to Sparta the bones of the venerable hero.

From and after this fortunate acquisition, the character of the contest was changed; the Spartans found themselves constantly victorious over the Tegeans. But it does not seem that these victories led to any positive result, though they might perhaps serve to enforce the practical conviction of Spartan superiority; for the territory of Tegea remained unimpaired, and its autonomy noway restrained. During the Persian invasion Tegea ap-

1 Herod. i. 69-70.
pears as the willing ally of Lacedæmon, and as the second military power in the Peloponnesus; and we may fairly presume that it was chiefly the strenuous resistance of the Tegeans which prevented the Lacedæmonians from extending their empire over the larger portion of the Arcadian communities. These latter always maintained their independence, though acknowledging Sparta as the presiding power in Peloponnesus, and obeying her orders implicitly as to the disposal of their military force. And the influence which Sparta thus possessed over all Arcadia was one main item in her power, never seriously shaken until the battle of Leuktra; which took away her previous means of ensuring success and plunder to her minor followers.

Having thus related the extension of the power of Sparta on her northern or Arcadian frontier, it remains to mention her acquisitions on the eastern and north-eastern side, towards Argos. Originally (as has been before stated) not merely the province of Kynuria and the Thyreaitis, but also the whole coast down to the promontory of Malea, had either been part of the territory of Argos or belonged to the Argeian confederacy. We learn from Herodotus, that before the time when the embassy from Croesus king of Lydia came to solicit aid in Greece (about 547 B.C.), the whole of this territory had fallen into the power of Sparta; but how long be-

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1 Herod. ix. 26.
2 Xenoph. Hellen. v. 2, 19. "Ως τότε ἐπηρεασθείκα την πόλιν ἱππος ἱππος, εἶναι αὐτὸ τῷ μεσαίῳ ταῖς ἄλλοις δυναστείαις, τοιαίτερον την Λακερμονίαν ὕπαρσεν, τοιαίτερον την Σπάρτην." This was said to the Lacedæmonians about ten years before the battle of Leuktra.
3 Herod. i. 82.
fore, or at what precise epoch, we have no information. A considerable victory is said to have been gained by the Argeians over the Spartans in the 27th Olympiad or 669 B.C., at Hysiae, on the road between Argos and Tegea. At that time it does not seem probable that Kynuría could have been in the possession of the Spartans—so that we must refer the acquisition to some period in the following century; though Pausanias places it much earlier, during the reign of Theopompus—and Eusebius connects it with the first establishment of the festival called Gymnopædia at Sparta in 678 B.C.

About the year 547 B.C., the Argeians made an effort to reconquer Thyrea from Sparta, which led to a combat long memorable in the annals of Grecian heroism. It was agreed between the two powers that the possession of this territory should be determined by a combat of 300 select champions on each side; the armies of both retiring, in order to leave the field clear. So undaunted, and so equal was the valour of these two chosen companies, that the battle terminated by leaving only three of them alive—Alkénor and Chromius among the Argeians, Othyriadés among the Spartans. The two Argeian warriors hastened home to report their victory, but Othyriadés remained on the field, carried off the arms of the enemy’s dead into the Spartan camp, and kept his position until he was joined by his countrymen the next morning. Both Argos and Sparta claimed the victory for their respective champions, and the dispute after all was decided by a general conflict, in which the Spartans were

1 Pausan. ii. 29, 1. 2 Pausan. iii. 7, 5.
the conquerors, though not without much slaughter on both sides. The brave Óthereidés, ashamed to return home as the single survivor of the 300, fell upon his own sword on the field of battle.

This defeat decided the possession of Thyreia, which did not again pass until a very late period of Grecian history, under the power of Argos. The preliminary duel of 300, with its uncertain issue, though well-established as to the general fact, was represented by the Argians in a manner totally different from the above story, which seems to have been current among the Lacedaemonians. But the most remarkable circumstance is, that more than a century afterwards—when the two powers were negotiating for a renewal of the then expiring truce—the Argians, still hankering after this their ancient territory, desired the Lacedaemonians to submit the question to arbitration; which being refused, they next stipulated for the privilege of trying the point in dispute.

1 Herod. i. 82: Strabo, viii. p. 376.
2 The Argians shaved at Argos a statue of Perilaus, son of Alkéndes, killing Óthereidés (Pausan. n. 20, 61; n. 38, 5; compare x. 9, 6, and the references in Lardner ad Herodot. i. 82). The narrative of Chrýseus, ἐκ τριγυ Πελευσισικῶν (as given in Plutarch, Parallel. Hellenic, p. 306), is different in many respects.
3 Pausanias found the Thyreatic in possession of the Argians (n. 33, 5). They told him that they had recovered it by adjudication; when or whom we do not know; it seems to have passed back to Argos before the close of the reign of Kleomenes III. at Sparta (220 n.c.), Polyb. iv. 36.
4 Strabo even reckons Pausanias as Argian, to the south of Kyminia (vi. p. 366), though in his other passage (p. 374), seemingly cited from Ephorus, it is treated as Lacedaemonian. Compare Muson. Sparta. vol. ii. Hellewe. i. p. 49.
5 Eusebius, placing this duel at a much earlier period (Ch. 27, § 678 n.c.), ascribes the first foundation of the Gymnopaedia at Sparta to the desire of commemorating the event. Pausanias (iii. 7, 3) places it still further back, in the reign of Thropompos.
by a duel similar to the former, at any time except during the prevalence of war or of epidemic disease. The historian tells us that the Lacedaemonians acquiesced in this proposition, though they thought it absurd, in consequence of their anxiety to keep their relations with Argos at that time smooth and pacific. But there is no reason to imagine that the real duel, in which Othryades contended, was considered as absurd at the time when it took place or during the age immediately succeeding. It fell in with a sort of chivalrous pugnacity which is noticed among the attributes of the early Greeks, and also with various legendary exploits, such as the single combat of Echemus and Hyllus, of Melanthus and Xanthus, of Menelaus and Paris, &c. Moreover, the heroism of Othryades and his countrymen was a popular theme for poets not only at the Spartan gymnopedia, but also elsewhere, and appears to have been frequently celebrated. The absurdity attached to this proposition, then, during the Peloponnesian war—in the minds even of the Spartans, the most old-fashioned and unchanging people in Greece—is to be ascribed to a change in the Grecian political mind, at and after the Persian war. The habit of political calculation had made such decided progress among them, that the leading states especially had become

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1 Thucyd. v. 41. Τῶν οὖν Λακεδαιμονίων τὸ μὲν πρῶτον Οθηραδίων τὸ δὲ 

2 Ηροδ. v. 9. Compare the challenge which Herodotus alleges to have been proclaimed to the Spartans by Mardonius, through a herald, just before the battle of Plataea (ix. 48):

3 Athenae. xv. p. 678.
familiarised with something like a statesmanlike view of their resources, their dangers, and their obligations. How lamentably deficient this sort of sagacity was during the Persian invasion, will appear when we come to describe that imminent crisis of Grecian independence: but the events of those days were well calculated to sharpen it for the future, and the Greeks of the Peloponnesian war had become far more refined political schemers than their forefathers. And thus it happened that the proposition to settle a territorial dispute by a duel of chosen champions, admissible and even becoming a century before, came afterwards to be derided as childish.

The inhabitants of Kynuria are stated by Herodotus to have been Ionians, but completely derided through their long subjection to Argos, by whom they were governed as Periceki. Pausanias gives a different account of their race, which he traces to the eponymous hero Kynūrus son of Perseus; but he does not connect them with the Kynurians whom he mentions in another place as a portion of the inhabitants of Arcadia. It is evident that even in the time of Herodotus, the traces of their primitive descent were nearly effaced. He says they were "Orneates and Periceki" to Argos; and it appears that the inhabitants of Orneae also, whom Argos had reduced to the same dependent condition, traced their eponymous hero to an Ionic stock—Orneus was the son of the Attic Erechtheus.

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1 Herod. viii. 73; Pausan. iii. 2, 27, viii. 27, 3.
2 Pausan. ii. 25, 5. Mambert (Geographie der Griechen und Römer, Griechenland, book ii. ch. xix, p. 618) connects the Kynurians of Ar-
Strabo seems to have conceived the Kynurians as occupying originally, not only the frontier district of Argolis and Laconia, wherein Thyrea is situated, but also the north-western portion of Argolis, under the ridge called Lyrcium, which separates the latter from the Arcadian territory of Stymphalus. This ridge was near the town of Orneas, which lay on the border of Argolis near the confines of Phlius; so that Strabo thus helps to confirm the statement of Herodotus, that the Orneates were a portion of Kynurians, held by Argos along with the other Kynurians in the condition of dependent allies and Perioeci, and very probably also of Ionian origin.

The conquest of Thyrea (a district valuable to the Lacedaemonians, as we may presume from the large booty which the Argeians got from it during the Peloponnesian war) was the last territorial acquisition made by Sparta. She was now possessed of a continuous dominion, comprising the whole southern portion of the Peloponnesus, from the southern bank of the river Nedon on the western coast, to the northern boundary of Thyreatis on the eastern coast. The area of her territory, including as it did both Laconia and Messenia, was equal to two-fifths of the entire peninsula, all governed from the single city, and for the

...and Argolis, though Herodotus tells us that the latter were Ionians: he gives to this name much greater importance and extension than the evidence bears out.

1 Strabo, viii. p. 370—"δ' Ἰωνίου Ἰονίον τῆς πατρίδος ἐκ Ἀπρόσιος τοῦ κατὰ Κυσσαίαν ὄρους τῆς Ἀρκαδίας." Coray and Grosskurd gain nothing here by the conjectural reading of Ἀργείαν in place of Ἀρκαδίαν, for the ridge of Lyrcium ran between the two, and might therefore be connected with either without impropriety.

2 Timaei, vi. 95.
exclusive purpose and benefit of the citizens of Sparta. Within all this wide area there was not a single community pretending to independent agency. The townships of the Perioeci, and the villages of the Helots, were each individually unimportant; nor do we hear of any one of them presuming to treat with a foreign state: both consider themselves as nothing else but subjects of the Spartan ephors and their subordinate officers. They are indeed discontented subjects, hating as well as fearing their masters, and not to be trusted if a favourable opportunity for secure revolt presents itself. But no individual township or district is strong enough to stand up for itself, while combinations among them are prevented by the habitual watchfulness and unscrupulous precautions of the ephors, especially by that jealous secret police called the Krypteia, to which allusion has already been made.

Not only therefore was the Spartan territory larger and its population more numerous than that of any other state in Hellas, but its government was also more completely centralised and more strictly obeyed. Its source of weakness was the discontent of its Perioeci and Helots, the latter of whom were not (like the slaves of other states) imported barbarians from different countries, and speaking a broken Greek, but genuine Hellen—if one dialect and lineage, sympathising with each other, and as much entitled to the protection of Zeus Hellanios as their masters—from whom indeed they stood distinguished by no other line except the perfect training, individual and collective, which was peculiar to the Spartans. During the period
on which we are at present dwelling, it does not seem that this discontent comes sensibly into operation; but we shall observe its manifestations very unequivocally after the Persian and during the Peloponnesian war.

To such auxiliary causes of Spartan predominance we must add another—the excellent military position of Sparta, and the unassailable character of Laconia generally. On three sides that territory is washed by the sea, with a coast remarkably dangerous and destitute of harbours; hence Sparta had nothing to apprehend from this quarter until the Persian invasion and its consequences—one of the most remarkable of which was, the astonishing development of the Athenian naval force. The city of Sparta, far removed from the sea, was admirably defended by an almost impassable northern frontier, composed of those districts which we have observed above to have been conquered from Arcadia—Karyátis, Skiritis, Maleátis, and Belemínáts. The difficulty as well as danger of marching into Laconia by these mountain passes, noticed by Euripidés, was keenly felt by every enemy of the Lacedaemonians, and has been powerfully stated by a first-rate modern observer, Colonel Leake. No site could be better chosen for hold-

1 Xenophou, Hellen. iv. 8, 7: ἡθοδοσίας τῆς Ναυαγίου τῆς Χέριας.  

"It is to the strength of the frontiers, and the comparatively large extent of country enclosed within them, that we must trace the primary cause of the Lacedaemonian power. These enabled the people, when strengthened by a rigid military discipline, and put in motion by an ambitious spirit, first to triumph over their weaker neighbours of Messenia, by this additional strength to overawe the disunited republics of

2 Χ. 2
ing the key of all the penetrable passes than that of Sparta. This well-protected frontier was a substitute more than sufficient for fortifications to Sparta itself, which always maintained, down to the times of the despot Nabis, its primitive aspect of a group of adjacent hill-villages rather than a regular city.

When, along with such territorial advantages, we contemplate the personal training peculiar to the Spartan citizens, as yet undiminished in their numbers,—combined with the effect of that training upon Grecian sentiment, in inspiring awe and admiration,—we shall not be surprised to find, that

Arcadia, and at length for centuries to hold an acknowledged military superiority over every other state in Greece.

"It is remarkable that all the principal passes into Laconia lead to one point: this point is Sparta; a fact which shows at once how well the position of that city was chosen for the defence of the province, and how well it was adapted, especially as long as it continued to be unshalled, to maintain a perpetual vigilance and readiness for defence, which are the surest means of offensive success.

"The natural openings into the plain of Sparta are only two; one by the upper Eurotas, as the course of that river above Sparta may be termed; the other by its only large branch (Enmus, now the Kallenus, which, as I have already stated, joins the Eurotas opposite to the north-eastern extremity of Sparta. All the natural approaches to Sparta from the northward lead to one or the other of these two valleys. On the side of Messenia, the northerly prolongation of Mount Taygetum, which joins Mount Lyceum at the pass of Andania, now the pass of Mahrypli; forms a continued barrier of the loftiest kind, admitting only of routes easily defensible; and which—whether from the Creomis of Arcadia to the south-westward of the modern Loniad, from the Stumpykern plain, from the plain of the Pamian, or from Phen, now Kalamata—all descend into the valley of the upper Eurotas, and conduct to Sparta by Pellana. There was indeed a branch of the last-mentioned route which descended into the Spartan plain at the modern Mistra, and which must have been a very frequent communication between Sparta and the lower part of Messenia, but, like the other direct passes over Taygetum, it was much more difficult and defensible than those which I have called the natural entrances of the province."
during the half-century which elapsed between the
year 600 B.C., and the final conquest of Thyreatis
from Argos, Sparta had acquired and begun to ex-
cercise a recognised ascendency over all the Grecian
states. Her military force was at that time supe-
rior to that of any of the rest, in a degree much
greater than it afterwards came to be; for other
states had not yet attained their maximum, and
Athens in particular was far short of the height
which she afterwards reached. In respect to dis-
cipline as well as number, the Spartan military force
had even at this early period reached a point which
it did not subsequently surpass, while in Athens,
Thebes, Argos, Arcadia, and even Elis (as will be
hereafter shown), the military training in later days
received greater attention, and improved consider-
ably. The Spartan (observes Aristotle) brought
to perfection their gymnastic training and their
military discipline, at a time when other Greeks
neglected both the one and the other: their early
superiority was that of the trained men over the
untrained, and ceased in after-days when other
states came to subject their citizens to systematic
exercises of analogous character or tendency. This
fact—the early period at which Sparta attained her
maximum of discipline, power, and territory—is
important to bear in mind when we are explaining
the general acquiescence which her ascendency met

1 Aristot. Polit. viii. 3, 4. "Ετι δέ αὔτοις τοῖς Αθηναῖοι ἴσοι, ἀλλὰ
μηδὲν αὔτοι προσέδρασον τοῖς Φιλιστηρίωσι, αὑτούς πάντα τοὺς άλλους τοὺς δὲ,
kai τὰς γυμνασίας καὶ τὰς στρατιωτικὰς ἀργῶσι, διατηροῦσιν ἑτὼν μὲν
γὰρ τὰ τῶν άλλων γυμνασίες τῶν τρόπων τούτων ἀλλὰ ταῦτα τοῖς
μη πρὸς οὐκοῦντας ἀνετὰς μὴ ἄνευ τῆς παθίνες παῦν
φύσως πρῶτον δὲ αὔτοι εἶχον.
with in Greece, and which her subsequent acts would certainly not have enabled her to earn. That acquiescence first began, and became a habit of the Grecian mind, at a time when Sparta had no rival to come near her—when she had completely shot ahead of Argos—and when the vigour of the Lykurgean discipline had been manifested in a long series of conquests, made during the stationary period of other states, and ending only (to use the somewhat exaggerated phrase of Herodotus) when she had subdued the greater part of Peloponnesus.

Our accounts of the memorable military organisation of Sparta are scanty, and insufficient to place the details of it clearly before us. The arms of the Spartans, as to all material points, were not different from those of other Greek hoplites. But one grand peculiarity is observable from the beginning, as an item in the Lykurgean institutions. That lawgiver established military divisions quite distinct from the civil divisions, whereas in the other states of Greece, until a period much later than that which we have now reached, the two were confounded—the hoplites or horsemen of the same tribe or ward being marshalled together on the field of battle. Every Lacedemonian was bound to military service from the age of twenty to sixty, and the ephors, when they sent forth an expedition, called to arms all the men within some given limit of age. Herodotus tells us that Lykurgus established both the Syassitia or public mess and the Enomoties and

1 Herodot. i. 68, ἐν ὑπὸ τῆς καὶ θυραμένης ἰπῆς λειτουργήσατο παντείνης.
Triākads, or the military subdivisions peculiar to Sparta\(^1\). The Triākads are not mentioned elsewhere, nor can we distinctly make out what they were; but the Enōmoty was the special characteristic of the system, and the pivot upon which all its arrangements turned. It was a small company of men, the number of whom was variable, being given differently at 25, 32, or 36 men—drilled and practised together in military evolutions, and bound to each other by a common oath\(^2\). Each Enōmoty had a separate captain or enomotarch, the strongest and ablest soldier of the company, who always occupied the front rank, and led the Enōmoty when it marched in single file, giving the order of march as well as setting the example. If the Enōmoty was drawn up in three, or four, or six files, the enomotarch usually occupied the front post on the left, and care was taken that both the front rank men and the rear rank men, of each file, should be soldiers of particular merit\(^3\).

\(^1\) Herodot. i. 67; compare Larcher's note.

Concerning the obscure and difficult subject of the military arrangements of Sparta, see Crantor, Repuh. Lacon. iv. 4; Mann, Sparta, ii. Beilage i. p. 224; O. Müller, Hist. Dorians, ii. 12; Dr. Arnold's note on Thucydides, v. 68; and Dr. Thirlwall, History of Greece, vol. i. Appendix 3, p. 520.

\(^2\) Pollux, i. 10, 129. 'Ibhs ἀνάρνα για Ἀναλογοινάς, ἀναρνά, σι νόηαν; compare Suidas and Hesych. v. ἀνανάρνας; Xenoph. Rep. Lacon. c. 11; Thucyd. v. 67-68; Xenoph. Hellen. vi. 4, 12.

Suidas states the enomoty as 25 men; in the Lacedaemonian army which fought at the first battle of Mantinea (418 B.C.), it seems to have consisted of about 32 men (Thuc. l. c.); at the battle of Leuktra of 36 men (Xen. Hellm. l. c.). But the language of Xenophon and Thucydides does not imply that the number of each enomoty was equal.

O. Müller states that the enomotarch, after a σαμποσσιφνυ, or deployment into phalanx, stood in the right hand, which is contrary to Xenoph.
It was upon these small companies that the constant and severe Lacedaemonian drilling was brought to act. They were taught to march in concert, to change rapidly from line to file, to wheel right or left in such manner as that the enomotarch and the other protostates or front rank men should always be the persons immediately opposed to the enemy. Their step was regulated by the sile, which played in martial measures peculiar to Sparta, and was employed in actual battle as well as in military practice; and so perfectly were they habituated to the movements of the Enomoty, that if their order was deranged by any adverse accident, scattered

Rep. I. 11, 9.—"Orte de ὁ ἄρχων εὐθὺς αὐτῷ γίγνεται, οὐδὲ τοῦτο ἐπιμελεῖται δὴ ἢ γίγνεται καὶ ἐπιμελεῖται—the ἄρχω was the first enomotarch of the lochus, the protostates (as appears from 11, 9), when the enomoty marched in single file. To put the ἤγερμον on the right flank, was done occasionally for special reason—ὁ δὲ ποτὲ ἐκεί tawo ἐκ ἐπόμενον, the ἤγερμον διήθη εἰς τὰ ἔξω, &c. I understand Xenophon's description of the παραγγελία or deployment differently from Müller—it rather seems that the enomoties which stood first made a side movement to the left, so that the first enomotarch still maintained his place on the left, at the same time that the opportunity was created for the enomoties in the rear to come up and form equal front (τῷ ἐσμον αὐτῶν παραγγελία ἔτσι μετανα τῇ ἄρχων εὐθὺς ἐκλήθη)—the words τῷ παρ' ἄρχεια have reference, as I imagine, to the proceeding of the first enomotarch, who set the example of side-movement to the left-hand, as it is shown by the words which follow—καὶ δέ μετὰ τετελεῖσθαι ὁ πρῶτος ἐν τῶν ἐνόμων ἐπεισοδεύεται. The phalanx was constituted when all the lochae formed an equal and continuous front, whether the sixteen enomoties (of which each lochus was composed) might be each in one file, or in six files.

1 See Xen. Anab. iv. 8, 10 upon the advantage of attacking the enemy with ὅλην λαοὺς, in which case the strongest and best soldiers all came first into contact. It is to be recollected, however, that the practice of the Cyrenian troops cannot be safely quoted as authority for the practice at Sparta. Xenophon and his colleagues established Lochi, Pentekosties and Enomoties in the Cyrenian army; the Lochus consisted of 100 men, but the numbers of the other two divisions are not stated (Anab. iii. 4, 21; iv. 3, 26; compare Arrian, Tactic. cap. 6).
soldiers could spontaneously form themselves into the same order, each man knowing perfectly the duties belonging to the place into which chance had thrown him. Above the Enómoty were several larger divisions—the Pentekostys, the Lochus, and the Mora, of which latter there seem to have been

1 The words of Thucydides indicate the peculiar marshalling of the Lacedaemonians, as distinguished both from their enemies and from their allies at the battle of Mantinea—καὶ εἰς ὑπὸ οὐκοῦν κατοίκησαν ἐν κάποιῳ τῶν ἐπιτων, ἄγιος τὸν θουλίου ἔκαστο ἐγγυμήεον κατὰ τέκνων. again, c. 66.

About the music of the flute or sile, Thucyd. v. 69; Xen. Rep. Lac. 13, 9; Plutarch, Lycurg. c. 22.

2 Meursius, Dr. Arnold, and Racchetti (Della Milizia dei Grechi Antichi, Milan, 1807, p. 166) all think that Lochus and Mora were different names for the same division; but if this is to be reconciled with the statement of Xenophon in Repub. Lac. c. 11, we must suppose an actual change of nomenclature after the Peloponnesian war, which appears to be Dr. Arnold’s opinion—yet it is not easy to account for.

There is one point in Dr. Thirlwall’s Appendix which is of some importance, and in which I cannot but dissent from his opinion. He says, after stating the nomenclature and classification of the Spartan military force as given by Xenophon, “Xenophon speaks only of Spartans, as appears by the epithet σωληνικός,” p. 521: the words of Xenophon are, ἐκεῖστι δὲ τῶν σωληνικῶν μορῶν ἡμισελήνου ἡμείον &c. (Rep. Lac. 11.)

It appears to me that Xenophon is here speaking of the aggregate Lacedaemonian heavy-armed force, including both Spartans and Periakoi—not of Spartans alone. The word σωληνικός does not mean Spartan as distinguished from Periakoi, but Lacedaemonians, as distinguished from allies. Thus when Agesilaus returns home from the blockade of Philium, Xenophon tells us that τὸν πολέμον τὸν μὲν σωληνικόν ἀφένει, τὸ δὲ σωληνικόν ἔκαστο ἐγγυμήεον (Hellen. v. 3, 25).

O. Müller also thinks that the whole number of 5740 men, who fought at the first battle of Mantinea in the thirteenth year of the Peloponnesian war, were furnished by the city of Sparta itself (Hist. of Doria, iii. 12, 2): and to prove this he refers to the very passage just cited from the Hellenics of Xenophon, which, as far as it proves anything, proves the contrary of his position. He gives no other evidence to support it, and I think it in the highest degree improbable. I have already remarked that he understands the expression σωληνικός χώμα (in Polybius, vi. 45) to mean the district of Sparta itself as contradistinguished from
six in all. Respecting the number of each division, and the proportion of the larger to the smaller, we find statements altogether different, yet each resting upon good authority,—so that we are driven to suppose that there was no peremptory standard, and that the Enômoty comprised 25, 32, or 36 men; the Pentekostys two or four Enômoties; the Lochus two or four Pentekosties, and the Mora, 400, 500, 600, or 900 men—at different times, or according to the limits of age which the ephors might prescribe for the men whom they called into the field.

What remains fixed in the system is, first, the small number, though varying within certain limits, of the elementary company called Enômoty, trained to act together, and composed of men nearly of the same age, in which every man knew his place: see—

Leoначia—a construction which seems to me not warranted by the passage in Polybius.

1 Aristotle, Ἀνθοογορ Βολτερίδι, Fragn. 5–6; ed. Neumann; Phoeni v. Λόξες. Harpokration, Μένα. Etymologic. Mag. Μένα. The statement of Aristotle is transmitted so imperfectly that we cannot make out clearly what it was. Xenophon says that there were six moræ in all, comprehending all the citizens of military age (Rep. Lac. 11, 3). But Ephorus stated the moræ at 500 men, Kalisthenes at 700, and Polybius at 900 (Plutarch; Pelopis 17; Diocon. xv. 32). If all the citizens competent to bear arms were comprised in six moræ, the numbers of each moræ must of course have varied. At the battle of Mantinea there were seven Lacedaemonian lochi, each lochus containing four pentekosties, and each pentekostis containing four enomoties; Turydides seems (as I before remarked) to make each enomoty thirty-two men. But Xenophon tells us that each moræ had four lochi, each lochus two pentekosties, and each pentekostis two enomoties (Rep. Lac. 11, 4). The names of these divisions remained the same, but the numbers varied.

2 This is implied in the fact, that the men under thirty, or under thirty-five years of age, were often detached in a battle to pursue the light troops of the enemy (Xen. Hellen. iv. 5, 15–16).
condly, the scale of divisions and the hierarchy of officers, each rising above the other,—the Ἐνὸμοταρχ, the Πεντεκοντῆς, the Λοχάγη, and the Πολεμαρχ, or commander of the Mora,—each having the charge of their respective divisions. Orders were transmitted from the king, as commander-in-chief, through the Polemarchs to the Lochages,—from the Lochages to the Pentekonters, and then from the latter to the Enōmotarchs, each of whom caused them to be executed by his Enōmoty. As all these men had been previously trained to the duties of their respective stations, the Spartan infantry possessed the arrangements and aptitudes of a standing army. Originally they seem to have had no cavalry at all, and when cavalry was at length introduced into their system, it was of a very inferior character, no provision having been made for it in the Lykurgeon training. But the military force of the other cities of Greece, even down to the close of the Peloponnesian war, enjoyed little or no special training, having neither any small company like the enōmoty, consisting of particular men drilled to act together—nor fixed and disciplined officers—nor triple scale of subordination and subdivision. Gymnastics and the use of arms made a part of education everywhere, and it is to be presumed that no Grecian hoplite was entirely without some practice of marching in line and military evolutions, inasmuch as the obligation to serve was universal and often enforced. But such practice was casual and unequal, nor had any individual of Argos or Athens a fixed military place and duty. The citi-

1 Xenoph. Hellen. vi. 4, 12.
zen took arms among his tribe, under a Taxiarch chosen from it for the occasion, and was placed in a rank or line wherein neither his place nor his immediate neighbours were predetermined. The tribe appears to have been the only military classification known to Athens\(^1\), and the taxiarch the only tribe officer for infantry, as the phylarch was for cavalry, under the general-in-chief. Moreover, orders from the general were proclaimed to the line collectively by a herald of loud voice, not communicated to the taxiarch so as to make him responsible for the proper execution of them by his division. With an arrangement thus perfunctory and unsystematised, we shall be surprised to find how well the military duties were often performed: but every Greek who contrasted it with the symmetrical structure of the Lacedaemonian armed force, and

\(^1\) Herodot. vi. 111; Thucyd. vi. 98; Xenoph. Hellen. iv. 2, 19.

The same marshalling of hoplites, according to the civil tribes to which they belonged, is seen in the inhabitants of Messénæ in Sicily as well as of Syrakusae (Thucyd. iii. 90; xi. 100).

At Argos there was a body of 1000 hoplites, who during the Peloponnesian war received training in military manoeuvres at the cost of the city (Thucyd. v. 67), but there is reason to believe that this arrangement was not introduced until about the period of the peace of Nikias in the tenth or eleventh year of the Peloponnesian war, when the tree between Argos and Sparta was just expiring, and when the former began to entertain schemes of ambition. The Eparchii in Arcadia began at a much later time, after the battle of Leuktra (Xenoph. Hellen. vii. 4, 33).

About the Athenian Taxiarchs, one to each tribe, see Xenocris de Fals. Leg. c. 83, p. 300 R.; Lysias, pro Manthineo, Or. xvi. p. 147; Demosth. adv. Rosarium pro nomine, p. 399 R. Philippic. i. p. 47.

See the advice given by Xenophon (in his Treatise De Officio Magistri Equitum) for the remodelling of the Athenian cavalry, and for the introduction of small divisions, each with its special commander. The division into tribes is all that he finds recognised (Off. M. E. C. ii. 2-iv. 9); he strongly recommends giving orders—διὰ παραγγελίαν, and not ἀπὸ κήρυκας.
with the laborious preparation of every Spartan for his appropriate duty, felt an internal sentiment of inferiority which made him willingly accept the headship of "these professional artists in the business of war," as they are often denominated.

It was through the concurrence of these various circumstances that the willing acknowledgment of Sparta as the leading state of Hellas became a part of Grecian habitual sentiment, during the interval between about 600 B.C. and 547 B.C. During this period too, chiefly, Greece and her colonies were ripening into a sort of recognised and active partnership. The common religious assemblies, which bound the parts together, not only acquired greater formality and more extended development, but also became more numerous and frequent—while the Pythian, Isthmian, and Nemean games were exalted into a national importance, approaching to that of the Olympic. The recognised superiority of Sparta thus formed part and parcel of the first historical aggregation of the Grecian states. It was about the year 547 B.C., that Cre'sus of Lydia, when pressed by Cyrus and the Persians, solicited aid from Greece, addressing himself to the Spartans as confessed presidents of the whole Hellenic body. And the tendencies then at work, towards a certain degree of increased intercourse and co-

1 Plutarch, Pelopid. c. 23. Πάντων δέ εστὶν τεχνίτης καὶ σοφότατι τῶν πολεμικῶν ἄττις αἱ Σπαρτιάται, &c. (Xenoph. Rep. Lex. c. 14) ἡγεσία ἐν τοῖς μὲν Ἀλίας κάτωθεν ἤπειρα οἱ πολεμικοὶ, ἐπειδὴ ἔβαλε τὸ ὄνομα τῶν τεχνίτων τῶν πολεμικῶν... ἔστε τῶν δείκνυσιν γιγνομένην ὁδὸν ἀκορείαν ὁδὸν γὰρ ἀπροςεπτών ὑπέρ τῶν ἄττιν ἄττων.

2 Ὑπόμενον γὰρ περὶ αὐτῶν εἰρετικὰ τῆς Ἑλλάδος (Herodot. i. 69); compare i. 182; v. 49; vi. 84, about Spartan hegemony.
operation among the dispersed members of the Hellenic name, were doubtless assisted by the existence of a state recognised by all as the first—a state whose superiority was the more readily acquiesced in, because it was earned by a painful and laborious discipline, which all admired, but none chose to copy 1.

Whether it be true (as O. Müller and other learned men conceive) that the Homeric mode of fighting was the general practice in Peloponnesus and the rest of Greece anterior to the invasion of the Dorians, and that the latter first introduced the habit of fighting with close ranks and pretended spears, is a point which cannot be determined. Throughout all our historical knowledge of Greece, a close rank among the hoplites, charging with spears always in hand, is the prevailing practice; though there are cases of exception, in which the spear is hurled, when troops seem afraid of coming to close quarters 2. Nor is it by any

1 Xenoph. Repub. Iac. 10, 8. ἕπανενάτι μὲν πάντες τὰ τουματα ἐκτυ- διάχατο, μμείνωσα δὲ ἄντα ὀδηγία πάλιν έσται.

The magnificent funeral discourse, pronounced by Periklès in the early part of the Peloponnesian war over the deceased Athenian warriors, includes a remarkable contrast of the unconstrained patriotism and bravery of the Athenians, with the austere, repulsive and ostentatious drilling to which the Spartans were subject from their earliest youth; at the same time it attests the powerful effect which that drilling produced upon the mind of Greece (Thucyd. ii. 37–39). παρέχοντοι καὶ τοις μάρτυρεσι τὰ πλέον καὶ δύνασι, ἐν τῷ δέθ- ὑμέν ἔμελλεν εἰς τὰς ἐπαγγελίας καὶ τοῖς παρθένοις οἱ μὲν (the Spartans) ἐπιστύλων ἑκατον ἐξ- θέλειν αὐτὰ τὰ ἄλλα ἔργα μετεργασθῆται, &c.

The impression of the light troops when they first began to attack the Lacedaemonian hoplites in the island of Sphakteria is strongly expressed by Thucydides (iv. 31) —τῇ γενομ βαθεολύμπηνοι ἡ ἐν τοῖς ἐπαξιομοιοί, &c.

means certain, that the Homeric manner of fighting ever really prevailed in Peloponnesus, which is a country eminently inconvenient for the use of war-chariots. The descriptions of the bard may perhaps have been founded chiefly upon what he and his auditors witnessed on the coast of Asia Minor, where chariots were more employed, and where the country was much more favourable to them. We have no historical knowledge of any military practice in Peloponnesus anterior to the hoplites with close ranks and pretended spears.

One Peloponnesian state there was, and one alone, which disdained to acknowledge the superiority or headship of Lacedaemon. Argos never forgot that she had once been the chief power in the peninsula, and her feeling towards Sparta was that of a jealous, but impotent, competitor. By what steps the decline of her power had taken place, we are unable to make out, nor can we trace the succession of her kings subsequent to Pheidon. It has been already stated that about 669 B.C., the Argians gained a victory over the Spartans at Hysiae, and that they expelled from the port of Nauplia its pre-existing inhabitants, who found shelter, by favour of the Lacedaemonians, at the port of Mothone in Messenia: Damokratidas was then king of Argos. Pausanias tells us that Melitas the son of Lakidès was the last descendant of Temenus who succeeded to this dignity; he being condemned and deposed by the people. Plutarch however states that the family of the Herakleids

1 Xenoph. Hell. iii. 4, 19.
2 Pausan. iv. 24, 2; iv. 35, 2.
died out, and that another king, named Αεγών, was chosen by the people at the indication of the Delphian oracle. Of this story, Pausanias appears to have known nothing. His language implies that the kingly dignity ceased with Meltas—wherein he is undoubtedly mistaken, since the title existed (though probably with very limited functions) at the time of the Persian war. Moreover there is some ground for presuming that the king of Argos was even at that time a Ηερακλείδ—since the Spartans offered to him a third part of the command of the Hellenic force, conjointly with their own two kings. The conquest of Thyreutis by the Spartans deprived the Argeians of a valuable portion of their Periekeis, or dependent territory; but Ornéæ and the remaining portion of Kynuria still continued to belong to them: the plain round their city was very productive; and, except Sparta, there was no other power in Peloponnesus superior to them. Mykene and Tiryns, nevertheless, seem both to have been indepen-

1 Pausan. ii. 19, 2. Plutarch (Curt. Pyth. num. non reddat oracula, &c. c. 5. p. 396; De Fortun. Alexandri, c. 8. p. 340), Λακιδέα, king of Argos, is also named by Plutarch as luxurious and effeminate (De reipublica ab hostibus utilitate, c. 6. p. 89).

2 O. Müller (Hist. Dorians, iii. 6, 10) identifies Λακιδέα, son of Meltas, named by Pausanias, with Λέοκιδας son of Phaidón, named by Herodotus as one of the suitors for the daughter of Kleisthenes the Sikyonian (vi. 127); and he thus infers that Meltas must have been deposed and succeeded by Αεγών, about 560 B.C. This conjecture seems to me not much to be trusted.

3 Herodot. vi. 149.

4 Herodot. vii. 73.

Strabo distinguishes two places called Ornéæ: one a village in the Argeian territory, the other a town between Corinth and Sikyôn; but I doubt whether there ever were two places so called: the town or village dependent on Argos seems the only place (Strabo, vii. p. 376).
dent states at the time of the Persian war, since both sent contingents to the battle of Plataea, at a time when Argos held aloof and rather favoured the Persians. At what time Kleōnæ became the ally or dependent of Argos, we cannot distinctly make out. During the Peloponnesian war it is numbered in that character along with Ornea; but it seems not to have lost its autonomy about the year 470 B.C., at which period Pindar represents the Kleonæans as presiding and distributing prizes at the Nemean games. The grove of Nemea was less than two miles from their town, and they were the original presidents of this great festival—a function of which they were subsequently robbed by the Argians, in the same manner as the Pisatans had been treated by the Eleians with reference to the Olympic Agón. The extinction of the autonomy of Kleōnæ, and the acquisition of the presidency of the Nemean festival by Argos, were doubtless simultaneous, but we are unable to mark the exact time; for the statement of Eusebius, that the Argians celebrated the Nemean festival as early as the 53rd Olympiad, or 568 B.C., is contradicted by the more valuable evidence of Pindar.

1 Thucyd. v. 67—vi. 96.

The Kleonæans are also said to have aided the Argians in the destruction of Mykes, conjointly with the Tegeans; from hence, however, we cannot infer anything as to their dependence at that time (Strabo, viii. p. 377).

2 Pindar, Nem. ii. 42. Kleonoias πρὸς εἰδρῷν ντεροικε (compare Nem. iv. 17), Κλεοναια τινι ἀγώνει, &c.


The tenth Nemean Ode of Pindar is on this point peculiarly good evidence, maximally as it is composed for, and supposed to be sung by Theius, a native of Argos. Had there been any jealousy then sub-
Of Corinth and Sikyōn it will be more convenient to speak when we survey what is called the Age of the Tyrants or Despots; and of the inhabitants of Achaia (who occupied the southern coast of the Corinthian Gulf, westward of Sikyōn, as far as Cape Araxus, the north-western point of Peloponnesus), a few words exhaust our whole knowledge, down to the time at which we are arrived. These Achaeans are given to us as representing the ante-Dorian inhabitants of Laconia, whom the legend affirms to have retired under Tisamenus to the northern parts of Peloponnesus, from whence they expelled the pre-existing Ionians and occupied the country. The race of their kings is said to have lasted from Tisamenus down to Ogygus—how long we do not know. After the death of the latter, the Achaean towns formed each a separate republic, but with periodical festivals and sacrifice at the temple of Zeus Homarius, affording opportunity of settling differences and arranging their common concerns. Of these towns, twelve are known from Herodotus and Strabo—Pellēnē, Ἑγίρα, Ἐγακ, Bura, Helikē, Ἑγίουμ, Rhypes, Patræ, Phara, Olenus, Dymē, Tritaeα. But there must originally have been some other autonomous towns besides these twelve; for in the 23rd Olympiad, Ikarus of Hyperēsia was proclaimed as victor, and

"..."
there seems good reason to believe that Hyperésia, 
an old town of the Homeric Catalogue, was in 
Achaia¹. It is affirmed, that before the Achæan 
occupation of the country, the Ionians had dwelt 
in independent villages, several of which were sub-
sequently aggregated into towns; thus Patræ was 
formed by a coalescence of seven villages, Dymé 
from eight (one of which was named Teuthea), and 
Ægium also from seven or eight. But all these 
towns were small, and some of them underwent a 
farther junction one with the other; thus Ægæ was 
joined with Ægeira, and Olenus with Dymé². All 
the authors seem disposed to recognise twelve 
cities, and no more, in Achaia; for Polybius, still 
adhering to that number, substitutes Leontium and 
Keryneia in place of Ægæ and Rhypes; Pausanias 
gives Keryneia in place of Patræ³. We hear of no 
facts respecting these Achæan towns until a short 
time before the Peloponnesian war, and even then 
their part was inconsiderable.

The greater portion of the territory comprised 
under the name of Achaia was mountain, form-
ing the northern descent of those high ranges, 
passable only through very difficult gorges, which 
separate the country from Arcadia to the south, 
and which throw out various spurs approaching 
closely to the Gulf of Corinth. A strip of flat

¹ Pausan. iv. 15, 1; Strabo, viii. p. 383; Homer; Iliad, ii. 573. Pan-
sanias seems to have forgotten this statement when he tells us that the 
name of Hyperésia was exchanged for that of Ægeira, during the time of 
the Ionian occupation of the country (vii. 26, 1; Steph. Byz. copies 
him, v. Argyra). It is doubtful whether the two names designate the 
same place, nor does Strabo conceive that they did.
² Strabo, viii. p. 337, 342, 386.
³ Polyb. ii. 41.
land, with white clayey soil, often very fertile, between these mountains and the sea, formed the plain of each of the Achæan towns, which were situated for the most part upon steep outlying eminences overhanging it. From the mountains between Achaia and Arcadia, numerous streams flow into the Corinthian Gulf, but few of them are perennial, and the whole length of coast is represented as harbourless.

1 See Leake's Travels in Morea, c. xxvii. and xxxi.
APPENDIX.

Vol. II. p. 52.

[The Italics here are added by myself, simply for the purpose of distinguishing those parts of the citation on which the argument chiefly turns.]

Colonel Mure, in an Appendix to the Third Volume of his History of the Literature of Ancient Greece, (Appendix I. p. 501) has impugned the correctness of my views about early Grecian chronology, and especially my criticisms on Mr. Clinton. He says:—

"More weight is due to the acute and cautious criticism of K. O. Müller than to the scepticism of Mr. Grote. The latter author, while admitting the authenticity of the Olympian register in its full extent, denies all authenticity to the earlier Doric archives, on the ground that, as they are not mentioned or cited until a comparatively late period, there is no evidence that they were a genuine contemporary notation of events, and not rather, as he conjectures, a mere retrospective compilation of fabulous names and dates. This hypothesis, sufficiently arbitrary in itself in the case of documents the genuine character of which was recognised by Eratosthenes, proves too much for Mr. Grote’s own argument: for the same test of authenticity on which he insists in their case, fails to an equal or greater extent in that of the Olympic register itself. Neither Herodotus, Thucydides, nor any other historian prior to Timaeus, as Mr. Grote himself has remarked, knew or appreciated the latter. When therefore we find Herodotus quoting
the Spartan genealogical records as valid data, and overlooking the Olympic register altogether: when we find Charon of Lampsaenus, a historian prior to Herodotus, also overlooking the Elean authorities, and making the Spartan series the basis of his commentaries on Greek national antiquity—we have at least, in so far as priority of citation is concerned, an argument of good two centuries in favour of the genuine character of the Spartan chronicles. Nor can it be denied, if any weight be given to the hypothesis of imposture in either case, that the temptation to pious fraud was quite as likely to operate on the Elean Hellanodice as on the magistrates or priesthood of Sparta or Argos. Is it not further obvious, admitting the full authenticity of the Olympic paraphrasmata, that the very fact of the Hellenic confederacy combining for the adoption of a common national system of chronology in 776 B.C., implies that the value of such registers had already been partially experienced and appreciated in the separate communities, especially in the neighbouring states of Peloponnese?"

I am here accused of unreasonable scepticism, because I refuse to admit what Colonel Mure calls the "earlier Dorian archives," to be "a contemporary notation of events." On this point, however, "the acute and cautious criticism of K. O. Müller" brings him to the same conclusion. For he says (see the citation from him in my note of page 37), "I do not contend that the chronological accounts in the Spartan lists form an authentic document, more than those in the catalogue of the priestesses of Hérè and in the list of Halicarnassian priests. The chronological statements in the Spartan lists may have been formed from imperfect memorials: but the Alexandrine chronologists must have found such tables in existence." &c.

On the general character of these Dorian lists, that they are not a contemporary notation of events, and that they are analogous to the catalogue of the priestesses of Halikarnassus, (Inscript. No. 2655 Boeckh) my opinion is just the same as that of Müller. "Herodotus cites the Spartan genealogical records as valid data." So Colonel Mure truly remarks, and he might have added that Herodotus carries up the succession of Spartan Kings not merely to Héraklès, but still higher up, to Persæus, and Zeus. The statement of Herodotus, strengthened by the subsequent approval of Kratos Thémenes, ought (in Colonel Mure's judgment) to convince me that the names of these personages were registered by contemporary notation at the time when they actually lived. To doubt or deny this, Colonel Mure calls "an
arbitrary hypothesis." It is however an hypothesis which I hold in common with Mr. Fynes Clinton, who certainly does not believe that these early personages were registered by contemporaneous notation, since he recognises a marked difference between chronological evidence before and after 776 B.C., and since he takes much pains to draw the distinction between real and mythical names.

I have remarked more than once in the text, that the Spartan regal genealogy was only one among a thousand others in Greece. Every great family—every town, deme, or gens—even the historian Hekataeus, a private citizen of Miletus—cherished the honour of a pedigree, cast in the same general mould: a mould, which not only excludes all real notation, by contemporaneous hands, of each separate member of the list, but also shows that such an idea did not enter into the minds of those who believed in it. The higher members of any one among these genealogies were gods, heroes, eponymous or autochthonous (earthborn) personages; the lowest members, at the unknown time when it was first framed, were real men; the intermediate space being filled up by names purporting to be real, but which were both conceived, and believed in, only as parts of the whole. The Gods and Heroes at the top were not only as firmly believed in as the other members, but were the real persons who gave to the entire genealogy its hold upon the Greek mind. The primary and most essential feature of the series, in fact, is, its consecrated beginning. Now I contend that the very structure and principle of such genealogies, with the state of mental belief in which they originated and by which they were profoundly cherished, forbids the supposition that a contemporary record for each of the names could ever have been looked for or thought of. That the genealogy, when first framed, contained some of its lower names real, I do not doubt; but that it also contained in its upper portions "a retrospective compilation of fabulous names and dates," is so far from being "an arbitrary hypothesis," (as Colonel Mure pronounces it) that no other hypothesis will explain the semi-divine character which pervades these lists generally. Not being able to ascertain the time at which these genealogies were first framed, I confess my inability to draw the line of separation between the fabulous and the real.

Mr. Clinton recognises the problem, and tries partially to solve it. On his success in the attempt I have made some remarks in the text, explaining my own reasons for declining to follow him.
Now the register of Olympic victors in the stadium, beginning at 776 B.C., is a record generically different from these genealogies, or from the list of priestesses at Argos and priests at Halikarnassus. It has none of their semi-divine or heroic character; it rests upon no similar sentiment of religious, national, or family faith; it has no value, as a whole, for any one's feelings: it is purely human and unpretending, even from Koréæus its highest member. It is in fact the earliest among a new class of records totally different from the genealogies: records such as the list of annual archons at Athens, beginning from 683 B.C., or the list of victors in the Kameian festival at Sparta, beginning in 676 B.C. Lastly, the mere fact that this Olympic series of victors begins at a period so much later than the genealogies, and so much nearer to well-known times, is in itself a ground for totally different treatment before the tribunal of historical criticism.

To measure fairly its authority in this point of view, we ought to compare it, not with the entire stretch of the Spartan genealogical lists, but with that portion of the latter which falls later than 776 B.C. Now as to the authenticity of this lower portion of the lists, I have never raised the least question. I admit, to the Spartan and various other genealogical documents, a credibility equal to that of the Olympic register, for the same space of time. It is only when they profess to carry me into more distant and less cognizable regions, that my suspicions begin, and that I apply to them different principles of criticism.

When therefore the argument is put to me—if you admit the Olympic register from 776 B.C. downwards, on the authority of Timæus, why not admit the authenticity of the Spartan and other genealogies, on the authority of Herodotus—both witnesses being alike posterior in time to the names and dates which they mention? I reply:

First, the Olympic register does not derive its credibility from having been cited by Timæus, nor the Spartan genealogies from being cited by Herodotus. Each has its own intrinsic credibility, to be measured by its character and circumstances.

Secondly, the genealogies, at Sparta and in so many other parts of Greece, are of a structure and pretension which forbids the idea of contemporaneous and successive notation of each component name. The Olympic register from 776 B.C. is of a purely human and unpretending character, which not only does not negative the contemporaneous notation of each successive name, but is more consistent with that hypothesis than with any other.
Thirdly, the genealogies, professing to go back for so many centuries of time, make by that circumstance alone a more exorbitant demand upon my credence, which requires to be countervailed by a greater force of positive attestation, than the Olympic register. If the latter, instead of going back to 776 B.C., had professed to go back to 1776 B.C. or 2776 B.C., its credibility would have stood upon a very different footing. Following out this principle, I accord to the genealogies as much confidence as to the Olympic register, for I recognize their authenticity up to 776 B.C.—but I accord no more.

Fourthly, when Colonel Mure says that "the temptation to pious fraud was quite as likely to operate on the Elean Hellanodiceas as on the magistrates and priesthood of Sparta or Argos," I deny the position altogether. The series of uninteresting names contained in the Olympic register, the large majority of them not names of Eleans, from 776 B.C. downwards, appealed to no sentiment or interest of the Elean Hellanodiceas. Whereas the genealogies both grew out of, and contributed to satisfy, a profound sentiment of religion, self-esteem, and anxious curiosity as to the past, yearning after some consecrated beginning. The historian Hekateus would have been wounded in all these associations, if his genealogy, of fifteen ancestors with a God at the summit, had been impeached and disallowed. "Fraud" is not a term which appears to me suitable to describe the state of mind out of which these genealogies grow, beginning as they do at a time when contemporaneous records are not known, and when the difference between what is certified or uncertified is not consciously appreciated.

The inconsistency of reasoning, therefore, which Colonel Mure imputes to me, is not at all borne out, even upon his own statement of the case. But now let us examine one or two points of his statement, in regard to the Olympic register.

He says, "Neither Herodotus, nor Thucydides, nor any other historian prior to Timaus, as Mr. Grote himself has remarked, knew or appreciated the Olympic register." I have never stated that Herodotus and Thucydides did not know the Olympic register. My conviction is, that they knew it perfectly well. What I have asserted is, respecting the beginning of the Olympic register (p. 52), "Of this important epoch in Grecian development—the commencement of authentic chronological life—Herodotus and Thucydides had no knowledge or took no account."
This occurs in my comments on Mr. Clinton's opinion, who recognizes (in my judgment, very properly) a material difference in the chronological evidence of Grecian events before and after 776 B.C. I pointed out that in this respect he departed from the point of view both of Herodotus and of Thucydides, and that names such as those of Hellen and his sons, whom he noted as unreal, were by these two authors spoken of with as much confidence as we now speak of William the Conqueror. Neither Herodotus nor Thucydides take notice at what period the Olympic register began, nor do they mention in specific terms the fact that such a register was kept. But both of them mention several Olympic victories, and several Olympic victors by name, even long before their own time. Besides the Olympic register, there were doubtless other analogous registers, Pythian, Isthmian, Nemean, &c.; with this difference, that none of the others reached equally high in continuous series of ascending periodical dates. It would be preposterous to infer, because Herodotus and Thucydides do not in express terms inform us that there were such catalogues, and at what time each began—that therefore none such existed in their time, and that Themistocles was the first person to find them out. And I have before remarked that Herodotus and Thucydides, by simply mentioning any series of names, attest its existence as a matter of fact, but do not of themselves establish its credibility, unless in combination with other intrinsic evidences.

Colonel Mure accuses me of advocating "the exclusive infallibility" of the Olympic register. I have made no such pretensions on its behalf. I have admitted the Spartan and other genealogies to be equally credible up to the same point of time or 776 B.C., I admit the series of Athenian annual archons up to 683 B.C., and I claim for the Olympic register no other pre-eminence except that it reaches higher, in contemporaneous and successive notation of names, than any of the other analogous catalogues, either of victors at the games or of archons.

But on the other hand, Colonel Mure himself has advanced, on behalf of this Olympic register, a pretension which never occurred to me until I read it in his work. He says—"Is it not obvious, admitting the full authenticity of the Olympic paraphernalia, that the very fact of the Hellenic confederacy combining for the adoption of a common national system of chronology in 776 B.C. implies that the value of such registers had already been partially..."
experienced and appreciated in the separate communities, especially in the neighbouring states of Peloponnesus?".

Here the Olympic register is indeed placed upon a much loftier pedestal than I have ever ventured to claim for it. It is announced as a national system of chronology, adopted by the combination of the Hellenic confederacy in 776 B.C. I have not affirmed that the Hellenic confederacy ever at any time combined for the adoption of a national system of chronology; far less, that they so combined in 776 B.C. I do not believe the fact, nor shall I believe it, until Colonel Mure produces some authority to prove it. Nothing can be more at variance with my conception of the state of the Hellenic world in 776 B.C., than the idea of combination among all the several members of the race for any purpose, much more for the purpose of adopting a common national system of chronology. I have stated my belief that the Olympic festival in 776 B.C., and for more than half a century afterwards, was comparatively insignificant, and that it only grew up by gradual steps, and aided by the increasing power of Sparta, into that supreme Panhellenic celebrity which we find it enjoying afterwards. But the habit of noting down at the time the name of each successive victor in the stadium, is neither dependent on, nor necessarily connected with, the celebrity of the festival. It may have been perfectly well commenced at a time when the importance of the festival was comparatively local and circumscribed. I believe that the habit of such notation began in 776 B.C., and was from that time continued; this is all which I claim for the Olympic register: a claim far humbler than that preferred by Colonel Mure, who talks of it as having been adopted in 776 B.C. by the combined Hellenic confederacy as a national system of chronology.

What Timaeus did, was "to compare the lists of Ephors with those of the Kings of Sparta, and the lists of Archons at Athens and priestesses of Argos with those of the Olympic victors. In going through this process he pointed out many errors committed by the different cities, sometimes not less than periods of three months, in respect to the succession of their different magistrates." (Polyb. xii. 13.)

Here is no claim for exclusive or superior authority advanced on behalf of the Olympic register. On the contrary, in this very comparison, the authenticity of the other lists, subject only to errors of detail, is assumed as beyond suspicion: always, let it
be remembered, within the same limits of time as the Olympic register comprises. Timaeus cites the Olympic register as valid chronology; and he also cites the other lists as equally valid chronology, always under the same limits of time, which is implied in the very fact of comparison. By the side of these others, the Olympic register enjoys no greater pre-eminence than what is derived from its carrying contemporaneous, regular, and successive, notation up to a higher period,—from its being distributed into more convenient fractions of time—from its being most public and easily verifiable—and from the force of Panhellenic interest which at that time attached to it. These combined considerations induced chronological writers, after Timaeus, to prefer it as a more convenient standard of reference, for the notation of synchronous or successive events. In this sense only did it ever become a national system of chronology.

The argument of Colonel Mure really comes to this: If you believe the names in the Olympic register from 776 B.C. to have been set down by contemporaneous and successive notation, you ought to believe the same respecting the Spartan and other genealogies, "the antiquity and credibility of which is at least as well or better attested," according to him.

Now, I have shown grounds for my belief that these genealogies were generically different, and less worthy of trust, than the registers of Olympic, Pythian, Isthmian, and other victors. But even if I waive this distinction, yet, since I accept the Spartan genealogies as high as the year 776 B.C., and since therefore the only controversy between us relates to the earlier portion—his argument may be stated in this form:—"You believe in the Spartan genealogies up to 776 B.C., why not also admit them up to 876, 976, 1076, 1176, 1276, 1376 B.C. &c?" To me, this alleged inconsistency appears no inconsistency at all: nor am I ashamed to acknowledge that I do believe in the lower period, and do not believe in the higher.

Colonel Mure gives a splendid flourish upon Eratosthenes, which (considering that we have nothing now remaining of the chronological works of that author, and even know very imperfectly what he actually did in this department of inquiry) is just as much beyond the limits of evidence as his talk about "Sicyonian or Spartan chronicles"—"Peloponnesian archives": language so different from that of Thucydides and Herodotus, who allude only to "statements which the Peloponnesians had
received by memory from their ancestors"—and to "poems"—
as the stock of information accessible to them¹. "Erato-
thenes, (says Colonel Mure) an author proverbial above all
others of antiquity for critical scepticism in such matters, was,
comparatively speaking, quite as well qualified to draw the di-
stinction between historical truth and popular fiction in the Sic-
yanion or Spartan chronicles, as David Hume or Sismondi in those
of Britain or Tuscany." I know by extant works, and duly
esteem, the acuteness of David Hume: that of Eratosthenes I
pretend not to measure. But among the various proofs which
Hume gives me of his acuteness, one is, that he declines in En-
glish history the parallel problem to that which Eratosthenes
professed to have solved in Greece. Hume does not attempt to
dissect the early British "archives or chronicles" (to employ the
phrase of Colonel Mure) from Brute the Trojan down to Julius
Caesar; he does not claim to be able "to draw the distinction
between historical truth and popular fiction" in the stories about
King Lear or King Illadus; nor does he guarantee to me a cer-
tain year before the Christian era, as the date of accession for
either of these princes, (as Eratosthenes does for the Trojan war)
on the faith that this regal line must have been set down "by
contemporary notation." On all these points, he admits his
inability to enlighten the reader: and I follow his example in
reference to that which prefers to be the early history of
Greece, having no faith in the contrary process pursued by Er-
atosthenes.

If at the opening of what I consider real history in Greece,
and in arranging the various sections of the Greek name in the
places which they occupy at the dawn of historical daylight, I
introduce into my narrative some matters derived from legend,
the reader will have to judge whether I do this in such manner
as to justify Colonel Mure in charging me with discrediting my
own canon. He says that I admit a Dorian conquest of portions
of Peloponnesus—an Ionic and Æolic emigration to Asia, &c.—
all matters resting upon traditions. It will not be found however

¹ Herodot., vi. 52. Αυτοιανους γαρ, θρόλαγοντες ευάνει πoίησι, λέγει η τους Αρατόδωρον—βασιλέως αυτογαν σφάλη εις τούς τις
χηρίμης των ενε ιστοταί, θλα πο του Αρατόδωρον παίδων.

Thucyd., i. 3. Τεκμέρια η εις μάλτα Ομήρων.—I. 4. Μίμη γαρ ταπα
τατον εις αυς ιστοτα.—I. 9. λέγοντες δι και εις εις αυς Πελατο
ντατον μισομ χαν των πρεσεντ ιεγερμεν εις.—I. 10. Τα μοι ενε
πιλιντα τε ισιν, χαλα Ου Ταξιτ εις τακαρεφ τουτασθα. Ί κα
δεμοτε τας Αικας των προγειρασθεν, και τν επιχαροι σφάλη γ.
ότοινα οταναντοτα ποι ολης εισαγων.
that I have stated any of these matters as historically true, simply on the authority of tradition; but only where the certified course of events and position of the people afterwards, point to them as the natural and probable antecedents: insomuch that if there were no tradition, an acute interpreter would have suggested from conjecture some such causes as those which the tradition is found to indicate. The evidentiary value of Grecian tradition, —or, as I prefer to say, of Grecian popular belief,—in reference to the ante-historical past, appears to me such as no historian of the present day can accept. There is undoubtedly a certain difference between earlier and later. The farther what is called tradition professes to go hack in point of time, the less it will count either as certifying reality, or even as indicating in what direction we are to look out for reality: while the more closely it borders on times known and certified, the greater will be the attention which it deserves as an indication; so that it will even, in particular cases, add a certain confirmatory force to probabilities deduced from later and ascertained reality. Such is the highest evidentiary value which I ever assign to popular belief, embodied in the early current stories or poems. The reader, who peruses my chapters on the opening of Historical Greece, will find that the great stress is always laid on later facts and collocations, as the only trustworthy ground on which inferences can be raised as to antecedent phenomena; and that in the absence of such proof, traditionary or legendary evidence is never appealed to as an adequate substitute; though as a suggestive auxiliary, it is often noticed, and though its consilience with the better order of proofs is occasionally produced as strengthening my assurance. Where the traditionary matter stands alone, I have never given it as anything beyond the popular belief, in which character simply it is often highly deserving of being known.

Such are the general principles of inference and verification which I have adopted in my opening Chapters of Historical Greece. That in every particular case, they have been strictly adhered to, it would be presumptuous in any author to assert; but the departures will not be found such as to justify Colonel Mure's charge, that I claim for myself a greater latitude of affirmation than I allow to Mr. Clinton. Nor have I ever disguised, either from my readers or myself, that this vestigial of real history was after all so dim and doubtful, that the most diligent investigator can rarely feel unqualified confidence in his results, even for times immediately preceding 776 B.C., much more for earlier periods.
Upros the statement contained in this page, that "the Spartans were destitute even of the elements of letters," Colonel Mure, (in his History of the Literature of Ancient Greece, vol. iii. Appendix K. p. 506), has remarked as follows:—

"It is to be regretted, that in the face of these facts, and others referred to in the text of the present and previous chapters of this work, so intelligent a writer as Mr. Grote should, in a critical history of the Greek nation, have formally pronounced the Spartan people, the type and representative of one of the two grand subdivisions of that nation, to have been, at the same of their moral and political power and influence in Greece and in the civilized world, "destitute even of the elements of letters." This conclusion is grounded on the sole authority of a text of the Panatheismica of Isocrates, a most partial and prejudiced witness at the best, and more especially so in a treatise, the plain object of which is to exalt the glory of Athens at the expense of Sparta, by a tissue of unscrupulous exaggeration and misrepresentation. The passage of that treatise here more immediately in question is but one among other gross falsehoods which could never have found favour with any but a bigoted Athenian public; and the only apology for which, on the part of the otherwise amiable author, is that suggested by himself, the advanced age of ninety-four, at which his work was composed, and the consequent failure of his faculties, which he himself acknowledges and excuses on the same plea."

Before I proceed to discuss the precise point which Colonel Mure raises against me—one word of preface on the sweeping condemnation, which he here passes as well upon the Athenians as upon Isocrates.

No public ever less deserved the epithet "bigoted" than the Athenian. There was at Athens a liberty of thought, speech and writing, unknown anywhere else in the ancient world. In no other city was the privilege of individual censure, as well against institutions as against eminent citizens, exercised with such un-
measured latitude, or accepted to so great an extent in the public morality (πράξεως—πολιτεία). In no other city was there so much argumentative discussion, or so great an interest in the novelties of speculative inquiry. In no other city were the positive varieties of individual taste and impulse so numerous, as openly manifested, or so little bound down to any peremptory canon of law or authority. All this, as matter of fact, is attested not less by opposing critics like Plato and Xenophon, who denounced it as a portion of democratical licence, than by a panegyrist like Perikles (in his Funeral Discourse), who dwells upon it with pride. But even if we had no other witnesses, either favourable or unfavourable, Aristophanes and the other writers of the old comedy would in themselves be sufficient proof. Year after year did the Athenian public not only hear with patience, but reward and crown, those comedies in which both individual citizens, great as well as small, and the democracy itself, were turned into derision and presented in the most degrading point of view, with a comic genius far more poignant and unsparking than has ever been allowed to outpour itself upon any other society; in-comparably more, for example, than has ever been tolerated in England against English institutions. A public whose ears were thus open may have other faults; but the last of all reproaches which they deserve is that of being a "bigoted public." Indeed it is not too much to say, that the constant habit of hearing both sides fully, solemnly, and ably argued in the public assembly and dikastery, in matters of real business, upon which they were free to decide, and obliged to decide, imparted to the mass of Athenian citizens a quality the very reverse of bigotry—a judicial habit of appreciating evidence and balancing conflicting impressions, such as has never yet become diffused among any large body of non-professional citizens—a positive and serious mental stimulus which no other source could then have supplied.

Next, even had the Athenian public deserved the character given to them by Colonel Mure, the discourses of Isokratès are not calculated to gratify their bigotry, nor can they have been composed with any such view. Whoever looks through his public orations or pamphlets, from the Panegyric (earliest) to the Panatheniac (latest), in the expectation of reading unqualified praise or admiration of Athens, will find himself much disappointed. The tone which reigns through them is that of a monitor or censor, not that of an unreflecting eulogist; still less that of a blind flatterer, looking only to the momentary
gratification of hearers. His praise of Athens is usually bestowed upon the past, and chiefly upon the early and obscure past: in regard to the present, it is comparatively rare and measured; mingled with much blame directly, and still more blame indirectly—since the admiration of forefathers is so set forth as to shame by contrast the implied degeneracy of their descendants. He speaks like one who feels that his remarks are not likely to prove acceptable. It is true that he always maintains Athens to be better than Sparta, nobler in her sentiment, greater in her actions, more beneficent in her influence over Greece, more moderate and excusable even in her wrongs. On this point the readers may adopt his conclusions or not; but the manner in which he supports them gives no man a right to discredit him by wholesale, as a more unscrupulous advocate of bigoted Athenian sentiment.

Nevertheless, I am fully aware that Isokratēs must be used with caution as authority for historical statement. This is not because he is blindly partial or corrupt in his advocacy either of Athens or of any other particular cause; but because he is, by habit and character, a rhetorician: an attribute, which shows itself habitually, and quite as much (in my judgement) in his censures upon Athens as in those upon Sparta. Without either adopting or admitting any such language as that of Colonel Mure, "gross falsehood, tissue of exaggerations and misrepresentations," I have never copied either this or any other statement from Isokratēs without attentively contemplating it by such other lights as the history of the time enables us to consult; and I willingly admit the like deduction from the evidentiary value of his statement in the present case, in so far as it stands opposed to any counter-proof. As to his great age, which Colonel Mure cites as an extenuation for the man, or as a disqualification for the witness, the Panatheniac Oration itself dispenses me from all farther answer on that head. We read in the biography of the poet Sophoklēs, that he was brought before the dikastery in his extreme old age, by his son Iophon, as having lost his mind, and as being unfit for the management of his affairs. In reply, he read to the dikasts a chorēma of the tragedy of OEdipus at Kolōmus, which he had just finished; and the suit of Iophon was dismissed. In like manner, the man who could compose the Panatheniac Oration, whatever be his age, has quite sufficient intelligence left to be a competent witness as to any present matter of fact. No judge
in any court would hold him to be disqualified on the ground of senile incapacity.

I dwell particularly on the circumstance, that the point on which Isokrates here appears as a witness, is, a distinct and present (to him, present) matter of fact. We are not called upon to measure the correctness of the historical views of the Panathenic Oration as to Athens and Sparta, but to consider whether his express affirmation, that the Spartans did not learn reading or writing, be true or false. The Spartan discipline was in all its particulars essentially public, common to all the citizens, prescribed and enforced by authority, pursuant to customs of older date than those which ruled any other Grecian state. Whether it comprised reading and writing, or not—was a point on which Isokrates had the best means of informing himself; and on which indeed, he could hardly omit to inform himself, concerned as he was personally throughout a long life, in the business of teaching at Athens. If he states what is untrue, it will not be for want of knowledge. He is therefore in every respect a competent witness; not to be put down, even if he stood alone, except by a stronger force of counter-evidence, direct or collateral. Before I proceed to discuss the counter-evidence produced, I shall first examine whether he does stand alone (as Colonel Mure asserts), on the affirmative side.

First, if we had nothing else remaining but the Panathenic Oration as it now stands, we should see that Isokrates did not stand alone in this affirmation. At the end of that oration, he publishes the sentiments and remarks of various friends to whom he had read it after it was composed. Among these friends was one, not only an able man and an excellent speaker, but also distinguished as an oligarchical politician, and as an admirer of Sparta. "I sent for him (says Isokrates, who is described by Colonel Mure as taking no heed except to the bigoted Athenian public), in order that if any incorrect statement had escaped me, he might detect it and point it out:" (ὅταν μέτα καταφέρσων τόν τῶν ὑμών μὲν πελεκαιατῶν, ἐν ἀληθείᾳ ἐκ πεπληρωμένως, προσφέροντο ἐπὶ Λακεδαιμονίων ἑαυτοῖς, ἤ τινι παραλλαγῇ ήταν δεικνύσις, εἰσέρχετο κατάλληλος ἡμῖν (s. 217).—Ἄλλος δεύτερος τοῦ χρόνου γεγονότα ὑπέστη ἀνέλθαι δια τῶν ὑμῶν πεπληρωμάτων (s. 248). The criticisms of this philo-Laconian friend, though seasoned with compliments on the general merits of the composition, manifested
dissent on the subject of Sparta in a way so marked and
effective, as to cast painful doubt and mistrust upon the mind
of Isokratês; who tells us that not only he was induced to
believe that he had spoken too severely of Sparta, but also was
on the point of consigning his discourse to the flames, had he
not been dissuaded as well by this critic himself as by many
other friends (σ. 218, 220, 233, 231). All of them advised
him to preserve and circulate the discourse, but to tack to it by
way of appendix a record of the debate and criticism of which it
had been the subject. With these additions it accordingly now
appears (289–291); the strictures of the philo-Laconian friend
being on many points not only free-spoken, but severe.

It is in his reply to the first remarks of this critic (who is in-
troduced as speaking thrice), that Isokratês advances his asser-
tion about the Spartan ignorance of letters. θέναι δὲ γνωσθὲν
ἀπαλλαγμένοι τῷ κυβερνῆσαι ταῖς φιλοσοφίαις εἰσὶν δὲν ἄλλα
γράμματα παραπομπόν (σ. 290). "The Spartans are so far
behind the common education and love of knowledge that they
do not even learn letters." Now if (as Colonel Mure maintains)
reading and writing were familiar acquisitions at Sparta, publicly
taught and possessed by all citizens poor as well as rich, are we
to suppose that Isokratês would advance this express falsehood in
adverse talk with an acute philo-Laconian critic, and before an
audience? Or, if advanced, would that critic pass it over with-
out contradiction? In point of fact, not only does this latter
leave it at the time uncontradicted, (τῶν ἰδίων θραυσμῶν μὲ
οὔτε τὸν τῶν εἰρημένων, σ. 232), but in the course of
his last remarks, delivered at a subsequent interview, he himself
confirms its correctness:—"Most of the Spartans (he says to
Isokratês), will pursue their own customs, and without taking
the least heed to any discourses written at Athens; while the
most intelligent of them, who now possess and admire some of
your other compositions, will understand, if they find a man to
read this discourse to them with time to talk it over among them-
sew, that it contains much to the glory of their city, and that
its reproofs are too loose and calumnious to deserve their
notice." (Νῦν δὲ οἶμαι τὰς μὲν πλείστας Σπαρτακῶν ἐρωμένες
τῶν ἡλικίας ολίγης καὶ τῶν ἄλλων χρόνων, τινὶ πέρας ταῖς ἐντατὲς
γραμμέναι ὡσὶν μαλλον προσέχειν τὸν τινὰ ἢ τὸν ἔς τῶν
Παλαιῶν στυλον λεγομένης, των ἐν φρασιματίας αὐτῶν καὶ
τῶν λόγων τους ἰμένας τῶν σῶν καὶ θεωροῦντα, ταῦταν, ἢ
λάβωσι τὰς ἀναγγελόμενον, καὶ χρόνων οὐκ εὐθειατρικὰν.
... the discourses of Isokratês, were obliged to procure a reader, and unable themselves to read them. And we thus have from the philo-Laconic critic, not merely such negative testimony to the truth of the main assertion of Isokratês, as is implied in passing it over without contradiction; but also a strong force of positive confirmation, not the less impressive for being embodied in an intimation incidentally dropped, when the speaker is addressing himself directly to another point.

Even if nothing but the Panatheniac Oration as it now stands remained, therefore, Isokratês would not be a solitary witness on this point. But let us now see what is said by another author—Xenophon. That author (in his treatise 'De Republlicâ Lacedemoniorum') announces his intention of describing the Lykurgian education or training (παιδεία) as pursued at Sparta, setting it in contrast with that which was pursued in other Grecian cities.

"Lykurgus (he says) departed altogether from the plan pursued elsewhere, and thus made Sparta the happiest city in Greece (ἐποίησαν τὴν πόλιν § 2). Other Greeks, who profess to give their sons the best training, place them, as soon as they can understand what is said to them, under the care of pedagogues or supervising servants, and send them to the houses of teachers, in order that they may learn letters, music, and the exercises of the palestra. Besides this, they make their feet tender with shoes, and their bodies delicate with changes of clothing, giving them so much to eat as they like. But Lykurgus, instead of placing over the boys a private supervising slave, appointed over them as public moderator a citizen called the Pædonomus, taken from those citizens by whom the greatest offices of state are filled. This citizen he empowered to muster the boys, to keep them under review, and to chastise them severely if any one shirked his duty: for which purpose red-heaters of the military age were assigned to him. Modesty and obedience were thus abundantly secured. To harden the feet, instead of letting them grow tender by wearing slippers, he insisted that the boys should go barefoot,

1 Xen. Rep. Lacr. II. 1. Τοιαύτα γάρ ἔργα ἔλθε, ἐξίσου αἰσχρᾶν καὶ φησιντικῶν κολλητῶν τοῖς οἷς παρεσθείσεσθαι, εἴπερ οἱ παιδικοὶ οὐκ αὐτοὶ τὰ λεγύμενα εκείνοις, εἴπερ μὲν εἰ νομίζουσιν οὐκεταίναι τὸ πατρικόν, εἴπερ εἰ σφαγίας εἰς εὐανάλον, καὶ δειμνοςκότως καὶ γράφοντας, καὶ μοιώσοις καὶ τὰ ταύτα παλαιτορὶ, &c.
convinced that by such a habit they would be far better able to move up and down the steepest ground, to run swiftly, and to jump. He made them hardly also, by allowing only one and the same garment for winter and summer. Besides this, he restricted them to a moderate quantity of food, thus inuring them to privation; while, in order to ensure that they should not be too much pressed by hunger, he allowed them to steal various articles of food, thinking that the artifices requisite for successful theft were useful in making them handy. If the Pedonumus is ever by accident absent, then any citizen who is present may assume the command provisionally, and inflict chastisement if necessary; if there be no man present, then the most forward of the youths present may do so, in order that in no case may the boys ever be left without a commander."

So much for the training of boys; now for youths. "In other cities (says Xenophon), when the boys grow to be youths, it is customary to withdraw them both from the supervising attendants and from the teachers, and to leave them their own masters. But Lykurgus does quite the contrary, knowing that this is the season of strongest passion and insolence, it is just then that he imposes upon them the severest toils, and leaves them the least leisure; toils, which none are allowed to evade. He enforces the extreme of modesty and reserve, so that their voices are hardly ever heard in public, nor do they move their hands from under their garments, or take their eyes off the ground."

Xenophon concludes his description of the training of the boys and youths with these words: "I have now described the training, both of the Lacedaemonians and of other Greeks. Which of the two produces the most obedient, the most modest, and the most continent, men, in all cases where continence is required—any one who chooses may judge for himself."

The description which Xenophon gives of education as it stood in other Grecian cities, coincides with that which we read in Plato and elsewhere: letters, music, and the gymnastic exercises, each taught at the establishment of a special paid master, whose names figure in Plato as the γυμναστήριον, the κιθαριστήριον, and the πολεμιστήριον, and each master called into action by the choice of the father, who sent a faithful servant to take care of his boy. This is the system which Xenophon opposes to that of Sparta. He mentions none of these subjects as taught, and none of these classes as existing, at Sparta; and we may fairly assume that none of them did exist there. Had there been teachers of letters,
or teachers of music, publicly named and acting by public authority at Sparta, the contrast upon which he insists would not have existed. Not only it would not have existed, but the contrast would have been in the opposite direction; for on Colonel Mure’s supposition, every citizen without exception learnt letters; which assuredly I do not believe to have been the case at Athens or anywhere else in Greece. Professing his intention to set forth a contrast, Xenophon specifies letter-teaching and music-teaching as characteristics of the one system; his total omission of them in the other is a sufficient proof that it did not include them. If the Spartan boys did learn reading and writing, by whom were they taught? Not surely by the Pedonomus, whom Xenophon expressly describes as a citizen of the highest class; nor by the rod-bearers who inflicted chastisement under his orders; but not a word is said about any teacher. Xenophon is very explicit in describing the Lykurgian system of bodily drill and moral education; the bare feet, the restricted diet, with supplementary permission of thieving; &c., &c. If that system had comprised literary teaching, but only under different modifications, is it possible that Xenophon could have omitted to notice what those modifications were? especially when the teaching must have been compulsory and universal, and when the teachers, if such there were, must have been a part of the state establishment, not mere private professors as they were at Athens and elsewhere. His total silence appears to me only explicable by the total absence of public literary teaching at Sparta. The Spartan training was purely physical and moral—not intellectual: the results upon which Xenophon dwells with so much pride belong exclusively to the two former categories; high bodily perfection and activity,—power of bearing privation and fatigue,—exemplary obedience, modesty, endurance, courage, and self-command. The boys were regimented (ρυγίς ἄγγελος, II. 11) from the earliest age, and were placed under the eye of the Pedonomus, going through the same bodily collective discipline (of course in proportion to their strength), as they were destined to pursue afterwards both as youths and men.

That the Spartan discipline was really what I have stated, and that Xenophon meant to describe it as such, may be farther seen by looking at the description which he gives in the Cyropædia, of the education of the Persian chosen citizens or persæ (σωφρόνες). The general similarity of this education with the Spartan system, in scope as well as in details, has often been remarked. — ""
cities (says he), leaving the citizens to educate their children as every man pleases, enact laws prohibiting murder, theft, and so forth, with penalties on transgressors. But the Persian laws take good care beforehand that the citizens shall never contract such a character as to desire what is wicked or base." — I shall state what is prescribed to each of the four ages, boys, youths, men, and elders, that it may be seen how the laws accomplish their purpose of ensuring that the citizens shall be of excellent character. The boys, when they go to the schools, are put to learn, and continue to learn, justice; they state that they come for that express purpose, just as those in our cities say that they come to learn letters. Their commanders continue throughout the greater part of the day administering justice to them. For among these boys, as among men, there are accusations against each other for violence, theft, deception, injurious language, and other matters. Those who are found guilty, as well as those who falsely accuse, are punished. Accusations are also brought for ingratitude, which they number among the greatest crimes. Moreover they teach the boys temperance, obedience to commanders, continence of hunger and thirst. The boys all take their meals, not at home, but in public; each brings with him bread from home, with cresses as condiment, and a cup to drink out of the river. They learn besides to shoot with the bow and hurl the dart. Thus do they pass their time until the age of sixteen or seventeen, when they pass into the roll of young men.

Here we find prescribed for boys a training systematic, watchful, and elaborate, far beyond what is ever seen in an actual society: a training, physical, moral, and to a certain extent intellectual, since doubtless Xenophon knew well that the public judicial trials, which he mentions, would have considerable effect in sharpening the capacity. But absolutely no provision is made for teaching letters, that is, reading and writing; which are mentioned only once, for the express purpose of remarking that here the teaching of justice is their equi-

1 Xenoph. Cyroped. 1. 2, 6. "Α ι ο  ἕς ταύτη τῇ ἡμέρᾳ προστίθαι τοιχή, διαγραφὴν, διὰ μέλλων ἄλλων μικτοῦ, γε συνέλειται, οὐ γὰρ διέλθεται ἐξ ἡμῶν τούτον τοῖς ἑδαμονίας αὐτῶν."
valent. In describing both the real education of the Spartan citizens and the ideal education of the leading Persians, Xenophon alludes to letters just in the same manner. Not only he does not include them, but he sets them aside as characteristic of the vulgar practice out of Sparta and Persia; he notices them only by way of antithesis to each of the two other systems which he prefers and extols. That the real Spartan training, and the ideal Persian training of the Cyropædia, were exactly alike, I by no means assert. Improving upon the exclusively warlike purposes of the former, the latter aims at the creation of a loftier and better moral character, substitutes a gentler, continuous pressure instead of that extreme and subjugating violence which pervaded the Lykurgus scheme, and provides, for cultivating the practical intelligence, means never suggested by any of the realities of Sparta. But the system in the Cyropædia is after all an enlargement and improvement upon the Spartan; and the two have this common negative characteristic—that both exclude that training by letters or words, (λόγος) of which Athens stood out in Greece as the pre-eminent example.

It is interesting to remark the ideal model which Xenophon has worked out in his beautiful narrative of the Cyropædia. Himself an Athenian, a master of the Athenian democratical accomplishments (as appears by the Anabasis), and a man of great ability, practical as well as intellectual, he nevertheless prefers to build upon the model of Sparta. To say of the Spartans that they never learned to read or write—which Colonel Mure treats as so false and insulting, that he only excuses Isokrates as the superannuated spokesman of a bigoted public—would appear to Xenophon, even if it had been false, to be no insult at all. He reproduces the same feature in his Cyropædia. Society, as his imagination delights to contemplate it, stands in no need of letters or written compositions, or book-learning. He is earnest for the perfection of the physical frame, the moral character, and the practical intelligence; but he looks for no aid, in the attainment of these ends, to epic poets, rhetors, historians or philosophers. Plato, in his imaginary community, admits these dangerous classes, yet not without alarm, and under severe restrictions; Xenophon ignores them altogether. To one, in whose canon of moral perfection so much stress was laid on the attributes of silent and uncomplaining submission to all the minutiae of an established routine—reverential deference to old age—endurance of severe restriction and suffering—repression of all spontaneous impulse,
and diversity—universal military drillings and aptitude—to one
who greatly admired this type of society, and who required
besides all the hardly-earned excellences of a well-trained body,
it is not surprising that reading and writing should appear an
occupation useless at least, if not mischievous, to the citizens, as
distracting their attention and reducing their minds from the or-
thodox influences. By a conservative Spartan like king Archi-
damus, they would be numbered among "the futile accomplish-
ments," and the ignorance consecrated by the Lykurgian educa-
tion would appear as one essential condition of respect for the
Lykugean customs.

Let us now examine another witness—Aristotle—on this ques-
tion about the Spartan education.

Aristotle begins the eighth Book of his Politics by giving a
decided opinion that the training of youth ought to be prescribed
and enforced by state authority, instead of being left to the de-
termination of each father of a family. On this general principle
he cordially approves of the Spartan system. But what sort of
training ought the legislator to prescribe? This (says Aristotle)
is a question of much difficulty, and admitting great difference of
opinion. In stating his own views about it, he remarks as
follows upon the Spartan practice:

"Among the cities which are now most notorious for their
care in training youth, some aim at imparting to them the condi-
tion of athletes, and thus spoil both the shape and the growth of
their bodies; while the Lacedaemonians, though not guilty of
this mistake, make them brutal by excessive toils, as the best way
of generating courage. Now (as I have often before observed),
we ought not to direct our training towards any one single
mental quality; and certainly not towards courage as the first of
all qualities. But even if we grant that courage ought to be
studied first of all, the Lacedaemonian practice is ill-suited to its
end. For neither in other animals, nor in other nations of men,
do we see courage connecting itself with the most savage dispo-
sitions, but rather with such as are gentler and more lion-like; nor are the murderous and predatory cannibals, near the Euxine
sea and elsewhere, at all courageous. Besides, to look at actual

1 Thucyd. i. 81. εἶδε τοὺς ἄρμος τῆς τοιαύτης στρατιωτικῆς, καὶ τὴν νομοκρατίαν παρθενετάλην ὁ ὀφεῖν ἀνέφερεν ἀληθε-

2 It is more surprising to find language very similar held by Klesm, even in
the Athenian democracy. Thucyd. iii. 37.

3 Compare also what he says in the Ethic. Nikomach. x. 9.
history: it was only so long as they stood alone in laborious exercises, that the Lacedaemonians were victorious over others. At present they are inferior to others in gymnastic practice as well as on the field of battle. For their former superiority did not arise from their own peculiar gymnastic method, but from the fact that they alone drilled while their enemies did not. Honour ought to stand foremost in our educational purpose—not the acquisition of a brutal temperament, for wolves and other brutes will never afront any honourable danger as a good man will. But the Lacedaemonians, by setting their youth to excess towards this latter purpose, and by leaving them without any instruction even on necessary subjects, make them in the fullest sense of the word vulgar and ignoble; for they turn them out both as efficient only for one single purpose in political society—and even for that purpose, less efficient than others; a result which reason would lead us to expect. We must judge them not by their deeds of former days, but by those of the present day; for they have now competitors in their training, whereas formerly they had none."

1 Aristotle, Polit. vili. 3, 3.4-5.
The criticism which Aristotle here presents, upon the Lykurgean training, is one of great moment and emphasis. He insists on the narrow, single, and exclusive purpose which it contemplated—the acquisition of courage. He tells us that even to that purpose it was badly adapted, since the forced bodily action was such as to make the citizens savage, like wild beasts, but not to implant the maximum of courage, for which a higher stimulus ought to be employed. He goes on to remark, that partly from exclusive absorption in these violent bodily efforts, partly from being left "destitute of instruction even in necessary subjects," the Spartan citizen when turned out was in reality nothing but a sort of Homerous, fit only for one business in society—and less fit even for that than some others.

(especially when taken in conjunction with the clause preceding in the sentence) cannot reasonably have any other subject than of Acharnæ. Aristotle is well aware that his remarks will appear shocking to admirers of Sparta, who would produce in reply the earlier victorious career of the city. He therefore thinks it necessary to repeat once again the same contrast which he had drawn before, (in the sentence beginning ἔστι ἀρετή, &c.) between the enemies of Sparta in his day and in earlier days. To make clear the meaning, I have placed a comma after at—I which does not stand in the editions. In fact the punctuation beginning with αὐτός repeats over again, with enlargement and emphasis, only the same criticism on the Laconianomians as had been already once given in the former sentences.

1 I am compelled to retain the Greek word Homerous, because it can only be rendered by a paraphrase. Properly it denoted the artisan, who being pressed from morning to night indoors with one single slavish occupation, by which he got his living, was supposed to be dispassionate, both in body and mind, for every other pursuit, and especially for every social duty requiring high or varied mental qualities. Now in the natural sense of the word, a Homerous was as unlike as possible to a Spartan citizen, who never meddling with any occupation either within doors or for profit. But Aristotle remarks, that though the scope of the Spartan system was so totally different, nevertheless it produced individuals with analogous defects and disqualifications: because its training was just as narrow, monotonous, altogether bodily, and divested of mental culture, as the routine of the most common artisan. The word Homerous carried with it very contemptuous associations in Grecian discussion. And when Aristotle selects it as one term of comparison, taking savage beasts as the other term, for the Spartan training—it is not easy to imagine a more disparaging judgment.

Plato also makes a similar extensive application of the disparaging word Homerous, as comprehending all varieties of exclusive special training, either towards money-getting, towards bodily strength, or towards any separate accomplishment. But he does not refer the observation particularly to Sparta (Legg. i. p. 644 A.)
But what is his express meaning when he states that the Spartans were "without instruction on necessary subjects?" What precise instruction is this phrase intended to negative? If we turn back a page or two in the Politica, we shall find that (VIII. 2, 3), he classifies the subjects of a complete training, as usually understood, into—1, letters; 2, gymnastics; 3, music; 4, drawing. The fourth item was not universally recognised; though in many places taught along with the rest.

When Aristotle says, therefore, that the Spartans gave no instruction "on necessary subjects," he must mean that they left out either letters, or music, or both; for gymnastics they certainly did not leave out. Now if we examine his remarks upon music, we shall see that he does not include it, nor does any one else seem to have included it among what he calls the "necessary subjects" of education. He considers it to be honourable and freemanlike—extremely valuable as a ruined accomplishment, sweetening those intervals of leisure which every citizen must alternate with his active duties,—and also as exercising, if properly taught, an improving influence on the ethical temper. But he expressly excludes it from those subjects of education which can properly be called necessary or useful.

It remains therefore, that when Aristotle says that the Spartan system gave no instruction on necessary subjects, he meant to affirm that it gave no instruction on letters. And such I do not doubt to be his real meaning. Had reading and writing formed an essential part of the ordinary and universal training of Spartan citizens, he could hardly have brought them into juxtaposition with two such subjects as wild beasts on the one side, and vulgar speciality on the other: he could hardly have repeated and sanctioned the reproach of Plato, that the entire Spartan system was devoted to one single branch of virtue—military courage and en-
durance—and that it comprised no other description of training calculated to serve as relief or alternative.

It is right to notice here, that (apart from the special question under discussion, about the teaching of letters) the general tone of Aristotle towards the Spartan system clears Isokrates from that suspicion by which Colonel Mure impraches his credibility as a witness. We have no right to say that Isokrates disparages Sparta for the purpose of courting Athenian prejudice, when we find Aristotle equally and even more disparaging. And while the former asserts distinctly and explicitly that the Spartan training did not include letters,—a fact which he had perfectly good means of knowing—we obtain positive support to his accuracy, not only from his philo-Lacanian opponent in the Panathenian Oration, but also from Xenophon and Aristotle—from an admirer as well as from a censor of the Lacedaemonians. All of them, though less directly and explicitly, confirm the negative.

To this we may add, so far as it goes, the testimony of Plato, which tends nowhere to refute, and in some passages to favour, the same supposition. In his dialogue called Hippias Major, Hippias the sophist is described as saying that he could not procure a hearing, when he visited Sparta, for any thing which he had to say on astronomy, arithmetic, geometry, letters, syllables, rhythm, or harmony; that many among the Spartans could not so much as count, and that they would listen only to ancient legendary stories, or moral discourses. Again, when Plato, after having constructed his Republic, describes the transition whereby, in the course of years it will pass into degeneracy and ruin, he predicts that it will first slide into a system like that of Sparta, the change being accomplished by retaining its public interference with individual habits, its public mass, its warlike and gymnastic drilling, and its prohibition of industrial occupation,—but by discarding its intellectual and musical elements.

That which we collect from Plato, therefore, so far as it goes, indicates the absence of intellectual and literary teaching at Sparta. Nor can I believe that he could have made the remarks which we now read, had all the Spartan boys been regularly taken to school by the Pedonous, and had there actually existed an establishment of paid masters or grammatists for uni-

1. Aristotle, Polt. ii. 6, 22; compare ii. 6, 3, and ii. 6, 16, viii. 13, 10.
2. Plato, Hippias Major, p. 269, C. ὡσαμὲν ἐγὼ οὖν ἀποπέμψας ἀρχαῖον γάρ, ὡς οὖν εἰτεῖς, τόλμῃ ἐρρηταίτο.
versal teaching. It is only under the latter condition that literary teaching, as part of an universal and compulsory system, could have been realised; and Plato himself constitutes such masters, when he introduces literary teaching as an integral portion of the community, imagined in his Treatise de Legibus. At Sparta, we must recollect, the training was public, common, and obligatory; either every boy was taught to read, or none were taught. At Athens, on the contrary, there was neither public provision for teaching, nor public obligation to be taught; each boy got his acquaintance with letters as his father chose or could afford; some, to the extent of long-continued study under the best teachers, others in a loose way from the best whom they could afford to pay. At Sparta no such difference was known; each boy learnt whatever he did learn as a public duty, from the same teachers and for the same length of time; every teacher taught by public appointment to all indiscriminately. If letters had been among the subjects taught, the process must have been among the most impressive phenomena, and the teachers among the most notorious personages, in the whole Spartan ritual. On such a supposition, who can believe that Isocrates would have explicitly advanced, and advanced without contradiction, in debate with a Philo-Laconic opponent, the assertion that there existed no literary teaching at Sparta?—or that Xenophon, Aristotle, and Plato, would have expressed themselves in the language above-cited?

I adhere therefore, with full confidence, to this negative of Isocrates. And here the question stands between universal teaching, and no teaching at all, or next to none. For the Spartan public training, whatever it was, absorbed the whole time and energies of the youthful citizen: if there were no public teachers, he would have neither leisure nor inclination to purchase instruction for himself. Moreover it is hard to imagine any community in which writing and reading would be less profitable, either for recreation or for utility, than on the banks of the Eurotas: where the citizen was absorbed by violent bodily exercise and incessant drill, where all industrial occupation was interdicted to him; where the business of government was habitually transacted with the greatest secrecy, where parsimony of words, and repression of feeling, was the imperious fashion; lastly, where there was

1 Aristophanes, Equit. 184,—a speech of the ass-valet:—

\[ \text{XXX, πέπλω, πέπλω παραπέπλω,} \]

\[ \text{Πληρώ γωρρυτος και ταύτα μίας καὶ} \]

\[ \text{αὐτός εἰς} \]

nothing to solicit, and everything to discourage, the intellectual appetite.

Nevertheless, since no social system, however stringent, can be believed to have been absolutely universal in its action upon individuals, I do not doubt that there were some few men who could read and write at Sparta, having learnt it by their own choice and means. Such exceptions do not discredit the affirmation of Isokrates. Among them may probably have been the kings, after the time when the foreign relations of Sparta became complicated, from 300 B.C.; men marked out from their earliest years as prominent in public affairs, and exempted doubtless, in a great degree, from the exigencies of the public drill. Some of the public business, too, required the agency of men who could read and write. Written communications must occasionally have been read to the Senate and the Board of Ephors, and written orders must have been issued by them. For this purpose a secretary who could read and write must have been required for each; more especially for the Ephors, who were annually changed, to keep up the thread of continuous business. We need not suppose, however, that either the Senators or the Ephors were themselves competent to these clerical duties. A collective Board, however instructed its members may be, habitually transacts its business with nothing but speech on the part of any of them. For example, the Senate at Athens, of which doubtless most of the members could read and write, nevertheless wrote and read only through its secretary; who read aloud what it was necessary for the members to hear, and after they had debated, recorded in writing the resolution to which they had come. The same would have happened if the Athenian Senators had all been absolutely unlettered. Accordingly, when we hear of written orders issued by the Ephors, we are not authorized to conclude that these magistrates themselves either did write or could have written them. A certain number of clerks or secretaries, indispensable upon every hypothesis, were quite competent to the performance of all such public duties. Like the scribes or secretaries at Athens, these persons cannot but have been of considerable trust and importance, though we have no positive information about them. Altogether, however, the amount of business transacted by writing at Sparta, must have been exceedingly small compared with that which was so transacted at Athens.

I now proceed to examine the various proofs cited by Colonel Mure, in his Appendix K, to controvert the general position
above, maintained, and to establish his opinion that reading and
writing were general—publicly taught, and universally diffused,
at Sparta.

1. Demaratus, the exiled king of Sparta, writes a secret dis-
patch from Susa to his countrymen, apprising them of the im-
perial (Persian) project of invading Greece. On the letter being
read at Sparta, copies of it are circulated among the Greek states,
(Herod. vii. 239). 2. Pausanias, the Spartan commander at
Platae, opens up a traitorous correspondence with Xerxes, and
the contents of one of his letters are given by Thucydides. On
his return to Sparta, he continues the secret negotiation. One
of his confidential messengers at length becomes suspicious, and
determines, before starting, to open and read his master’s letter.
Finding that it contained, among other matters, an injunction to
destroy the messenger, he shows it to the Ephori, and Pausanias
is put to death. (Thuc. i. 128.)

Now, in regard to these two statements, even if they were
open to no comment as matter of evidence, the utmost which
could fairly be inferred from them is, that the Spartan kings
(from and after some period about 500 B.C.) could read and write.
I have already observed that this is not improbable, though I do
not consider it as proved.

But let us look at the two matters of evidence as they stand.
The story of Demaratus appears to me one of the most pre-
posterous and inadmissible to be found in Herodotus. Who can
believe that the Lacedaemonians needed to be informed, by secret
and elaborate contrivance, of the intentions of Xerxes? Or that,
if they did need it, Demaratus would inform them? The expedi-
tion was one of the most gigantic events recorded in history.
For four successive years did Xerxes carry on his preparations
(Herod. vii. 29); for three successive years magazines were ac-
cumulated on the line of march in Thrace, multitudes of men
under two Persian grandees were employed in digging the canal
through Mount Athos for the passage of Mount Athos, near to
and by the aid of the Greek city of Akathus. Moreover, at that
time, the Persian empire included almost half the Grecian world,
all the Asiatic and Thracian Greeks, with the islanders in the
Ægean. From all these Greeks,—troops, ships, and provisions
were called for in the largest measure. All of them, too, were
still in the habit of visiting Greece and the Grecian festivals.
The preparations being thus monstrous and glaring, the story of
a private message or writing, guarded by elaborate precautions,
to inform the Lacedaemonians, is in my judgement out of the question. Next, look at the conduct of Demaratus himself. He behaved throughout the whole expedition like a hearty enemy of Sparta and a hearty friend of Xerxes; like one who ardently wished the expedition to succeed. He gave to Xerxes, on more than one occasion, the most prudent and sincere counsel, even at the hazard of displeasing him; counsel, which, if it had been followed, would inevitably have led to the subjugation of Sparta as well as of Athens. If therefore the expedition had been of a nature to need private notice beforehand, Demaratus was the last man to give it. And this difficulty suggests itself to the mind of Herodotus while he is recounting the story. He starts the supposition that Demaratus, though hostile in mind to Sparta, may have sent the news "in a spirit of boastful triumph" (εἰς καταρχήν τερματικόν). To me, the motive thus assigned appears not less unadmissible than the story itself. I will only add that when Colonel Mare says—"On the letter being read, copies of it were circulated among the Greek states"—he goes beyond the original sentence, which merely states that the Lacedaemonians "sent word to the other Greeks,"—πεσθέων εἰς, τῶν εἰς ἐπελέξατο, εἶναι ἐς τοὺς ἄλλους Ἔλληνας ἐς τεστατοιν. To proceed to the case of Pausanias. Thucydides gives the exact words of a letter from Pausanias to Xerxes; very shortly afterwards, he gives also the exact words of a letter of reply from Xerxes to Pausanias. Will any one infer, from this last letter, that Xerxes could write? I apprehend that such an inference would be noway justifiable, nor would ever be drawn, were it not for the easy presumption which modern phenomena create, that every man of considerable station, as a matter of course, can read and write. As with Xerxes, so with Pausanias; either he could write himself, or he had some one else near him to write for him. In the case of Xerxes, the latter supposition is the most probable; in the case of Pausanias, it is (to say the least) equally probable. This very letter is stated by Thucydides to have been the manifestation of a scheme concerted along with the Eretrian Gongylus, and to have been carried by Gongylus himself; who may himself very possibly have written it, leaving to Pausanias nothing but the task of affixing his seal, which constituted the real mark of identity, as well in regard to the letter of Pausanias, as to that of Xerxes. Moreover, we know that Pausanias had one Argilian slave who could read and probably write; this was the messenger chosen, who ultimately made him known.
it is not only possible, but probable, that he may have had two or more slaves equally accomplished, so that everything which he did might have been done, without any power of reading and writing possessed by himself.

If indeed we wanted any proof how unfamiliar the Spartans were with reading and writing, we should find it in the conduct of the Ephors, when the Argilian slave came to them and laid before them the actual letter of Pausanias, scaled with the seal of Pausanias, and addressed to the Persian satrap. They are not satisfied with, nor will they proceed upon, this evidence. They require the slave to plant himself as a suppliant at the sanctuary of Tauauros, where they contrive a secret concealment behind a partition, in order that they may hear with their own ears the spoken words of Pausanias to the slave. I shall not say that this proceeding proves that neither Pausanias nor the Ephors could read or write. But I do say, that it is exactly what would have taken place, if we assume that hypothesis; and that it is totally inconsistent with that familiar epistolary intercourse which Colonel Mure maintains to have been kept up between the Spartan generals and the authorities at home.

3. In the Peloponnesian war, "a letter was sent from the Persian king, by the hands of a Persian named Artaphernes, to the Spartan government. Artaphernes was captured when on his way at Eion, and was brought to Athens. The letter which he bore (says Colonel Mure) was in the Assyrian language, and hence, when intercepted by the Athenians, required the aid of an interpreter; thus showing, that in Sparta as well as in Athens, foreign as well as native scribes were familiar."

In my judgment, the fact as recounted by Thucydides, proves nothing at all of what Colonel Mure here infers. The historian tells us (iv. 50) that Artaphernes, a Persian on his way to Sparta from the Great King, was captured by the Athenians at Eion on the Strymon, and brought to Athens. The Athenians caused the letters which he carried to be translated out of Assyrian, and read them (καὶ αὐτὸν συμμαθητεύσα τὴν Ἀθηναίων χαί εκτητούς μεταγεγραμμένο ἐκ τῶν Ἀσσυρίων γραμματέας ἀνεγραμμένοι). Their general drift, amidst many other statements, was that the king did not know what the Lacedaemonians meant; for that, among all their envoys who had visited him, no two told the same story. If then they wished to make their meaning clear, he desired them to send back to him some fresh envoys along with Artaphernes (ἐν αἷς πολλάς ἄλλοις γεγραμμένοι κεφαλαίοι ἐν πρὸς
Colonel Mure infers from this passage that in Sparta, as well as in Athens, foreign as well as native scribes were familiar. Otherwise (I presume he means) these letters could not have been translated. But surely, Arataphernes could not possibly have made his way into Greece without having some Grecian companions to conduct and provide for him. As a Persian of rank, he probably had no inconsiderable retinue. These accompanying Greeks, therefore, were fully competent to translate, and were doubtless intended to translate, the letters which he brought, had he reached Sparta safely. They would serve the same purpose at Athens. The scribes supposed by Colonel Mure were thus not needed, and are not proved to exist, by this passage, even for Athens, much more for Sparta. To which I will add, that if they were proved to exist, little would be gained as to the point at issue between him and me; for I do not deny that there were scribes (i. e. some official persons who could write) at Sparta.

But though the facts before us will not sustain the inference which he draws, they sanction another, by no means favourable to his view. The Great King mentions many envoys who had been sent to him; but not one letter. He knows what the Spartans wish or propose, not through any dispatch from the government, but only through the personal communications of the envoys. All these envoys (he says) contradicted each other. Is it conceivable that they would have done this, had they carried with them any letter or written instructions? Lastly, when the King says to the Spartans—"Your envoys are such strange persons, that they all contradict each other; I cannot tell what you are driving at"—should we not have expected him to add, "If you wish to make yourselves understood, do not trust to envoys any more, but send me a formal written communication from the government"? Instead of which he still says—"Send me other envoys along with Arataphernes;} who thus, having had personal communication with the Government at Sparta, would be able to see that the new envoys reported it accurately and honestly to the Great King; which (it appears) none of those before them had done.

Surely, the inference from all this is, that writing was scarcely employed at all in the Spartan diplomacy; that all was transacted by personal instructions from the Ephors to the envoy, and
personal communication of the envoy with the counter-party. And so far as my knowledge extends, all that we hear about Spartan diplomacy bears out such a supposition.

4. Next, Colonel Mure reminds us that “there are long treaties of peace, given in full by Thucydides, drawn up, examined, discussed, and finally ratified, by Spartan commissioners, sometimes ten or twelve in number.” Here again, his conclusion will not be found borne out by his premises. There is nothing, either in these treaties themselves, or in the narrative accompanying them, to prove that any person, except one or two special secretaries on both sides, either did, or could, write and read. I say just the same respecting the treaty between Athens, Argos, Elis, and Mantinea, which appears in Thucyd. v. 47, and in which Sparta is noway concerned. We cannot infer from this treaty, that any one at these four cities could write or read except a few scribes. As to Athens, we have good evidence in the affirmative from other quarters, that a large proportion of the citizens could do so; as to the other three cities, we have little evidence, nor does the treaty at all help us to determine the point. Commissioners on both sides meet and discuss; when they have agreed, the secretaries on both sides reduce the treaty to writing. All this may be done equally, whether the commissioners are able or unable to read. Next, the treaty is read to the Athenian Senate and people, and by them canvassed, approved, or rejected, as the case may be; so with the determining authorities at Sparta, Elis, Argos, or Mantinea. From no one, except from the stone-cutter and the scribe, is any faculty required except speech and hearing. Those who discuss and decide, are perfectly competent to go through the process, whether lettered or unlettered. To the treaties between Athens and Sparta. (Thucyd. iv. 119, v. 49,) there are attached a certain number of names of individuals on both sides. But these are not persons who sign the treaty; they are persons who go through the ceremony of taking the oath and pouring the libation, each on behalf of their respective cities. I repeat that there is nothing therefore in these treaties to prove Colonel Mure’s conclusion: everything which is there described to be done, might have been done, even though Athenians, Spartans, Eleians, &c. had all been wholly illiterate, except a few scribes.

5. On the names of Helots willing to serve, which Colonel Mure remarks to have been given in and taken down after the
battle of Leuktra—as well as on the account of the conspiracy of Kinadon, to which he adverts (Xen. Hell. iii. 3, 9, vi. 5, 29)—I make the same remark. I see nothing proved except the clerical agency of the Spartan secretaries. It is not at all necessary to suppose that Kinadon could read the warrant put into his hand. It was necessary as authority for him had he ever executed the arrest; but the names of the persons ostensibly to be arrested were probably communicated to him vide supra; and after all, the warrant and order of arrest was nothing but a trick, to enable the Ephors to seize Kinadon himself as soon as he should be out of Sparta.

6. Next, Colonel Mure reminds us: “one letter from a Spartan sea-officer to his admiral, is given by Xenophon in the original Doric.”

The letter is not from a Spartan sea-officer to his admiral, but from the surviving secretary (ἐπιστευκτής) of the slain admiral Mindams, addressed to the authorities at home; apprising them of the ruinous defeat which the fleet had sustained. A most curious epistle it certainly is—Ἐπιστευκτὴς τοῦ Ἐπίστευκτος τεύχοις ἀπεριφέρεσαι εἰ χρόνῳ ἤμερης. (Xen. Hellen. i. 1, 19). The whole letter consists of eleven words, and these are distributed into four distinct propositions, without any copula or connecting particle. It is impossible to conceive the art of writing in a more rudimentary state. And this is an official communication from the ἐπιστευκτὴς Hippokratès to the Spartan government. Respecting the officer called ἐπιστευκτὴς we know little, but his title gives fair ground for presuming that he was attached to the admiral for the purpose of performing such letter-writing, and probably letter-reading, as might be required. The same officer appears in another place under the title of ἐπιστευκτὴς . . . φίλος, to another Spartan admiral (Xen. Hellen. vi. 2, 25). That the Spartans should have named a special officer for epistolary duties, and that that special writer should have performed his duty according to the specimen given above—are both facts more in harmony with my view of Spartan training than with that of Colonel Mure.

7. “Throughout the history of these transactions (Colonel Mure observes) in Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon, there is not a hint of a single Spartan, of any rank or degree, being unable to read or write, whenever circumstances required it.”

These authors, profess only to describe the public acts of the Spartan government and generals, which could be performed
without any more reading and writing than that of a few secretaries or official persons. It would almost appear from Colonel Mure’s reasoning, as if reading and writing came by nature, and as if we were always to presume a person capable of reading and writing, unless the contrary could be specifically shown. Certainly, I am not prepared to brand Isocrates as guilty of a gross falsehood, upon the faith of this negative inference.

8. “Equally or still more to the point (says Colonel Mure) is, the indirect evidence of Plato's dialogues on the Republic and the Laws, especially that of the latter treatise. The basis or standard of the philosopher’s whole political system, however modified to suit his own peculiar theories, is evidently the Sparto-Cretan constitution. The participators in the dialogue are an Athenian, a Spartan and a Cretan. During the whole discussion, a knowledge of letters is expressly or tacitly assumed as an indispensable element of national and social economy, interwoven with every institution in the state, in terms which were altogether preposterous in a dialogue, one of the parties to which belonged to a commonwealth where the citizens were not only illiterate, but illiterate under the sanction of the government itself. In the treatise on Laws, the rule adopted in the chapter more immediately devoted to the question of education is precisely that assumed in the text above to have existed at Sparta: ‘That a knowledge of letters, for practical purposes, should be common to all, but that no specific encouragement should be given to the cultivation of elegant or speculative literature’—although neither are formally excluded. In the whole two and twenty books of the combined treatises, not a syllable transpires intimating either directly or by insinuendo that the Spartan was less competent to judge on such matters than the Athenian; or that any remark made or principle inculcated, was repugnant to his habits and feelings; while in various passages specially allusive to Sparta, both written habits and written laws are assumed to have existed from the time of Lycurgus downward.”

The passage to which Colonel Mure refers in the last sentence will not be found to sustain the inference which he builds upon it. And as to the indirect evidence to be derived from these

1 Plat. Legg. ix. p. 858.

'Αλλα αὐτοῖς ἐντὸς μᾶλλον Ὄμορον τι καὶ Τερταίῳ καὶ τοῖς άλλαις τοιούται ποιεῖν τι καὶ συνηθεμερίαν εἰς τοὺς ἰούλθος γράφομεν.
two treatises of Plato, I interpret it as favouring a conclusion
the reverse of that which Colonel Mure maintains. Plato
introduces instruction in letters, and in other subjects besides
letters, as a portion of the training of youth in his two ideal
states—both that of the Republic and that of the Laws. But he
says not a word to intimate that any such instruction existed
either at Crete or Sparta. What there is *"preposterous"* in his
choosing for his fellow-dialogists a Kretan and a Spartan, though
in the birth-places of the latter no such literary instruction existed—
or how the fact of his choosing them for his fellow-dialogists is to
serve as proof that literary instruction did there exist—I am unable
to see. His fellow-dialogists in the Republic are two Athenians;
yet the arrangements at Athens stood in contrast with those of
the Republic on a greater number of points than the arrange-
ments of Crete and Sparta with those of the dialogue on Laws.
In opposition to Colonel Mure, I maintain that this latter dialogue
sets forth emphatically the important difference, both in the main
purpose and in the details to carry out that purpose, between
the Platonic state and the state as it existed at Sparta. In one
sense, Plato is doubtless correctly said to have taken Sparta
as his basis or standard. She stood distinguished from other
Grecian states in the striking points of a public and authori-
tative training for boys and drill for men,—a public mess com-
penary on all,—the divorce of the citizen from industrial occu-
pation in order to consecrate him to military pursuits and apti-
dude, &c. On these points too, let us remark, Sparta stood
distinguished not less from the other Dorian states than from
Athens: so little is it accurate to say, what Colonel Mure repeats
after O. Müller,—"that she was the type and representative of
one of the two grand subdivisions of the Greek nation." Now
the idea of such all-comprehensiveness sway of the lawgiver over the
individual citizen,—moulding him from infancy to old age into
one predetermined type of character, instead of leaving him to
private training and spontaneous individual growth, with no
other restraint than that of penal laws and judicature,—was that

Ἀνακοίνωσὶ καὶ ἐπέστησε Σάλαχ οὗτος ἐν τῇ συμβολῇ γενόμενο γέρα
ματα τῆς ᾿Λυσιτοῦ:

This passage, even if we take the affirmation as a truth, will prove little
about the existence of "writing habits" at Sparta. And it is no more a
proof of the existence even of "written laws" from the time of Lycurgus,
than of the existence of written poems from the time of Homer.
which Plato borrowed from Sparta. But having borrowed the fundamental idea, he applied it to purposes, both moral and intellectual, far larger than she either realized or contemplated; a difference which is proclaimed clearly even in the opening of his dialogue on Laws, not less by himself than by his fellow dialogists.

9. Another argument, alleged by Colonel Mure (vol. iii. p. 433), to prove the existence of writing as familiar in the time of Archilochus both at Sparta and elsewhere in Greece, has been drawn from a passage of the Fragments of that poet.

Τρις τιν ϊπ' αυτο, ἐς Καρσίδην,
Ἀγωνίζεται σκυτάλη.
Πίθον έπ' θημάιι διαγορεύοισι
Μοῦνος ὧν στειροί.
Το' ἑ' ἄρ' ἀλκυνήσε κεφάλη συνάντησι
Πεπάετο ές οὐσία σύνο.

"The Parian poet (says Colonel Mure) likens himself or his ode to a scytale containing unwelcome intelligence." And he explains the word scytale to allude to the practice of writing upon a long narrow strip of parchment, rolled in spiral form round the staff, one fold close upon another; which practice was employed (from what time we do not know) by the Spartan government for sending dispatches to an officer on foreign service, who had a staff of precisely the same dimensions, and on receiving the parchment, rolled it round his own staff for the purpose of reading it.

I have already remarked that such a mode of carrying on correspondence, be it ever so well established, justifies no inference as to writing and reading, except as possessed by a special scribe attached to the Ephors and a similar person or certamen attached to the officer. But in regard to the passage of Archilochus here cited, I dissent, not merely from the inferences, but also from the interpretation of Colonel Mure. In my judgment, the word σκυτάλη, or the expression ἀγωνίζεται σκυτάλη, has no reference, direct or indirect, to writing. He himself remarks—"Much of the humour of the passage is plainly connected with the name or nickname of the person to whom the sonnet was addressed, Cercydes or Herald-son; just as the Spartan herald (Ceryx), when brought on the stage by Aristophanes, is forthwith bbutlered about his scytale, (Lysistr. 989)." The meaning of σκυτάλη is a staff; which staff is connected with the herald, as being always carried by him in the discharge of
his functions, and as ensuring to him respect, or in case of visiting an enemy, inviolability of person. But the Herald was a messenger, not a postman. His office was to deliver messages, not letters; the Homeric Thalysbuis and Idasus, with their successors in office, are "the messengers of Zeus and of men;" Δότης ἄγγελος ὢς καὶ ἀγέρες. The explanation which Diogenianus gives of this phrase appears to me perfectly just, εἰς τὸν λαὸν ἄγγελος φροντίς. It is said of those who bring unwelcome messages—not, unwelcome parchment or letters. It is true that the herald may bring a parchment; but this is neither his primitive nor his ordinary function; Thalysbuis and Idasus are ministers of the voice and the ear. Pindar says of Ἐνεας, (Olymp. vi. 91), ἀριστά γὰρ ἄγγελος ὥρις, ἠερέων στεφάλαι Μουρτῖν, γλεστὸς κρατοῦσα ἀγαθόντων ἀναίτριον; and he means by στεφάλαι nothing more than εἰρης, as one of the Scholiasts justly interprets him—Mourotiν ἄγγελος καὶ εἰρης.

That the herald who carried a staff as his symbol of office, should be spoken of by poets as a staff, is in the natural course of metaphor. Ὄκτακελαίτι ἀριστα (Herod. v. 30) means, 8000 soldiers bearing shields, or hoplites. We call a coachman—"a good or bad whip;" the French speak of a distinguished general like Marshal Soult as "une illustre épée." In my judgment, the word στεφάλαι, in this passage of Archilochus as well as in the passage of Pindar above cited, means just the same as ἄγγελος or εἰρης, without any reference to writing or to parchment.

Again, Colonel Mure construes the passage of Archilochus as if στεφάλαι certainly referred to the poet himself. But this is a point the reverse of certain. I consider it the more natural construction to refer στεφάλαι to the other person called Keryikes, with whose name it has an obvious connection. The poet may well have received from him some unpleasant news; but it surely is not likely that a fable about an ape and a fox, would be ushered in by calling it "a sorrowful or sorrow-bearing message," or by calling the person who tells it "a sorrow-bearing messenger."

In no sense, therefore, can I agree with Colonel Mure, that this passage "affords distinct proof that Archilochus was not only in the habit of writing his works on convenient materials, but of distributing copies of them to his friends, more frequently, perhaps, in the present case to his enemies." or that it proves anything whatever as to Spartan writing or Grecian writing.
On reviewing the proofs produced by Colonel Mure in his Appendix, I consider none of them as substantiating his position, and some of them as even more in harmony with mine. I therefore leave unchanged the assertion in my text, in the conviction that not only Isocrates, but also Xenophon and Aristotle, bear me out in doing so. I still believe that letters formed no part of the public training of Sparta, and that very few of the citizens knew how to read and write; those few having acquired the knowledge by their own private choice and effort. Among the exceptions may probably be numbered the Kings; and certainly some persons who served in official duties.

The only authority which I can admit to be really producible in favour of Colonel Mure's opinion, that reading and writing were universal at Sparta, and taught as a part of the public and compulsory training, is that of Plutarch, who says—"They learnt letters for the sake of necessity; the other lessons they peremptorily shut out, words as well as teachers. Their training was directed to give them perfect habits of obedience, endurance under hardship, and resolution to conquer or die in battle." and elsewhere, in his Life of Lycurgus,—"They learnt letters for the sake of necessity: but all their other training was directed to give them perfect habits of obedience, endurance under hardship, and resolution to conquer in battle." If therefore Plutarch stood uncontradicted, I should have to modify my proposition so far as to say, (instead of "the Spartans were destitute of the very elements of letters"), "the Spartans were destitute of the very elements of the arts of letters." 1


Γράμματα μὲν οὖν ὅμως τὰ χρήσις ἔμαθαν, ἀλλὰ πάσα παρέχει πρὸς τὰ ἀρχαῖα καὶ τὰ συγκεκριμένα εἰς κυρίαν μετάφρασιν καὶ μαθήματι ἀπ' ἀρχαίων μεταπολεμησιοῦν.

Plutarch. Lykurg. c. 19.

Γράμματα μὲν οὖν ὅμως τὰ χρήσις ἔμαθαν, ἀλλὰ πάσα παρέχει πρὸς τὰ ἀρχαῖα καὶ τὰ συγκεκριμένα εἰς κυρίαν μετάφρασιν καὶ μαθήματι μεταπολεμησιοῦν.

Colonel Mure says (p. 508),—"In Plato's Treatise on Laws, the rule adopted in the chapter more immediately devoted to the question of education is precisely that assumed in the text above to have actually existed in Sparta: that a knowledge of letters, for practical purposes, should be common to all, but that no specific encouragement should be given to the cultivation of elegant or speculative literature, although neither are formally excluded."

The words of Plutarch go much beyond Colonel Mure, as in the discouragement at Sparta of all literary culture beyond the minimum required by necessity,
were destitute of letters beyond the minimum required by necessity.” And I should have to correct Isokrates, who now says—
“‘The Spartans are so far behind the common education and love of knowledge, that they do not even learn letters’—to the extent of making him say—‘‘The Spartans are so far behind the common education and love of knowledge, that they learn letters only to the point required by necessity, and are interdicted from anything beyond.” Surely, the words “gross falsehood,” “bigoted public,” are out of place when applied to a discrepancy of which this is the measure, even if the assertion of the counter-witness himself be fully accepted. And they will appear still more out of place, when we reflect upon the circumstances of a Spartan citizen; to whom the minimum of necessity, for reading and writing, must have been an actual minuscule, if I may venture to coin a double superlative. For he had (as I have before observed) neither industrial pursuit, nor keeping of accounts—lived perpetually at a public mess—and had moreover his whole time absorbed by the hardest regimental drill known to the Grecian world. Even if a Spartan did learn letters as a part of boyish training, it is not easy to see to what purpose he could have turned them as a man, nor what was to preserve him from forgetting them; as it happens now, not unfrequently, with poor children educated at our National Schools, who, though they leave the school knowing how to read and write, lose the knowledge by disuse in after-life, if the employments in which they are placed do not require them to keep it up: and that too, let it be observed, although the Bible and the religious service tend so much to sustain a power of reading once acquired, while there was nothing analogous in the religion of ancient Greece.

But though the concession required from me would thus be very small, if I accepted the statement of Plutarch—still in conceding even thus much I should desert better witnesses; and I therefore persevere in believing that letters made no part of the public training of Spartan citizens.

The case is different with Crete. Here we have the affirmation of Ephorus, that “the boys learnt letters, as well as some prescribed songs or hymns, and some sorts of music.” I have no counter-testimony to oppose to this, from Isokrates, Xenophon, or Aristotlic, nor am I warranted in rejecting it. Though Sparta

1 Strabo, x. p. 482. Ἐπίσημος γὰρ τοῖς ιππεῖν καὶ γυμνήσι τῆς Ἰπποκράτους οἴος, καὶ τὸ ἱππεῖν ἐν οἰκίαν φέρεται, καὶ τὰ ἱματικὰ ταῦτα παραλείπεται, &c.
and Kretes were alike on several important points, especially the principle of public training and public messmg—yet on very many points they were perfectly dissimilar, as is evident both from Aristotle and from Polybius; the latter of whom complains much of the loose way in which Ephorus and others exaggerated the analogy between them. I therefore think it neither contradictory nor unreasonable to admit that letters formed a part of the public training at Kretes, though I deny the same fact in regard to Sparta.

1 Aristotle, Poli. ii. 7. Polyb. vi. 45–47.
BOEOTIA

According to Leake & Gell.

with corrections & indications of the subterraneous channels of the ancient blast of

(water) & artificial channels, connected with the

LAKE KOPAIS.

The ancient names of places are underlined.
The annexed map of Boeotia illustrates two points of interest for the reader of Grecian history:

1. The peculiar hydrographical feature which occurs so often in various parts of Greece—land-locked waters finding for themselves a subterraneous efflux through the cavities of limestone mountains. The lake Kôpasis presents four distinct Katabothra (the modern Greek name for such channels), each of considerable length, and in different directions: the lake Morikios has one.

2. The condition and capacities of the old Minyx of Orchomenus, whom in other respects we are only permitted to conceive through the optical illusions of legend. The two Emissarii or Tunnels here represented are the most speaking and intelligible monuments of that race. What is called the Treasury of Minyas (the architectural remains of which lie at the bottom of Mount Akontion, at Skripu, immediately facing the north bank of the Kephissus) is not intelligible as to its purpose, and cannot be connected with any given condition of society: indeed the analogous monument, called the Treasury of Atreus at Mycenae, has been asserted on plausible grounds to have been originally a tomb. But the purpose of these Emissarii cannot be mistaken. They indicate patient industry, long-sighted calculation, considerable extent of commerce, and a settled habit of amicable co-operation among the population round the lake: they are evidence of qualities very different from those of the athletic Boetians during the historical age.

The lake Kôpasis, formed principally by the river Kephissus, which drains the whole north-western valley between Parnassus, Ætna and Knemi, occupies the whole space marked in the plan only from November to June.
a large portion of that space is marsh for the remainder of
the year.

The north-eastern tunnel, running nearly parallel to the
direction of the river Kephissus, in the line which Forch-
hammer remarks as the most convenient which could have
been chosen for such a work, is about three-quarters of
a German mile, or 3½ English miles in length, with about
twenty vertical shafts let down to it along the whole dis-
tance. The apertures of the shafts, about four feet square,
are yet visible, though the shafts themselves are choked up.
The deepest shaft is near 150 feet deep, according to the
conjecture of Forchhammer.

The tunnel between the lakes Kòpais and Hylita, under
the plain of Akraaphion, is considerably shorter; and as the
whole plain is now cultivated, the apertures of the shafts
are more filled up and harder to find. Nevertheless Forch-
hammer himself saw and counted eight such apertures;
and the Demogeront of Akraaphion told him that there
were fifteen in all (Hellenika, p. 166-168).

In the ancient times, when these Emissarij were in full
operation, it cannot be doubted that nearly the whole of
what is now the lake Kòpais was a rich plain, and that the
river Kephissus had an ample discharge for its waters with-
out interruption. Strabo tells us that the engineer Krates
of Chalkis received from Alexander the Great directions to
clear out the Katabothra; it is much more probable that
he was directed to clear out the Emissarius to Larymna
(Strabo, ix. p. 407).

[At the time when I wrote the notice of Orchomenus
and of this Emissarius contained in the preceding volume,
I had not seen the valuable work here referred to of Forch-
hammer. He gives the length of the Emissarius as con-
siderably greater than the statement of Fiedler, which I
there copied, and his account bears every mark of the great-
est care.]
"A book that is shut is but a block"

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