Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi: Introduction, Critical Edition and Commentary

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Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi: 
Introduction, Critical Edition and Commentary

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Department of Classics and Ancient History
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Abstract

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This dissertation provides an up-to-date introduction to the *Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi*, a critical edition of the text, and the first commentary in English on it. The *Certamen* is an anonymous work composed around the second century AD. It gives an account of the lives of Homer and Hesiod and of their poetic contest by re-elaborating biographical anecdotes attested from the sixth century BC onwards. As a biographical work that draws on older texts and oral traditions which developed over hundreds of years, it yields unique insights into the reception of early Greek Epic in the course of classical antiquity.

This thesis begins with an introduction to the tradition of the contest between Homer and Hesiod that collects and discusses the extant ancient accounts of that story. It argues that all versions are equally authoritative in principle, for they testify to different acts of reception of the poets in different contexts. The thesis then offers an up-to-date analysis of the manuscript witnesses of the *Certamen* and of their contribution to our understanding of the textual tradition of this text, and shows that the ancient biographies of the poets form a corpus that is naturally open to variation. The Edition provides a text that accounts for such an open tradition. The line-by-line Commentary offers a systematic analysis of both general and specific issues related to the text: this is a necessary and urgent task, not least because the *Certamen* is a stratified text, bringing together traditions of very different provenance, which can only be assessed and interpreted through a process of close reading.

The ultimate aim of the thesis is to show how the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod provides crucial insights into the processes of reception and canonisation of early hexameter epic from the archaic period to late antiquity.
## Table of contents

Abstract .................................................................................................................................................. 1  
Statement of Copyright .......................................................................................................................... 3  
Acknowledgements ............................................................................................................................... 3  
Abbreviations of editions and works of reference ............................................................................... 4  
Preface .................................................................................................................................................. 7  

1. Introduction: the tradition of the contest between Homer and Hesiod.............................................. 11  
   Hesiod ................................................................................................................................................ 11  
   Plutarch ............................................................................................................................................. 18  
   Dio Chrysostom, *Oration on Kingship* 2.7-12 ............................................................................... 28  
   Philostratus, *Heroikos* 43.7-10 ......................................................................................................... 31  
   Lucian, *True Story* 2.20-22. .............................................................................................................. 35  
   Themistius, *Oration* 30.348c-349a. .................................................................................................. 38  
   Libanius, *Defence of Socrates* 65-66. .............................................................................................. 41  
   Proclus, *Life of Homer* 6. ................................................................................................................. 43  
   John Tzetzes ..................................................................................................................................... 46  
   Eustathius, *Commentary on Homer’s Iliad* I 6.4-7.1 Van der Valk (passim)............................ 50  

2. Textual tradition. ............................................................................................................................... 53  
   Manuscript ....................................................................................................................................... 54  
   Papyri ............................................................................................................................................... 61  
      P.Petr. I 25 (1) (= P.Lond.Lit. 191) ............................................................................................... 61  
      P.Mich. inv. 2754 ............................................................................................................................... 70  
      P.Ath.Soc.Pap. inv. M2 ..................................................................................................................... 80  
      P.Freib. 1.1 b (inv. 12) .................................................................................................................... 83  
      P.Duk. inv. 665 (olim P.Duk. inv. MF75 6) .................................................................................... 85  

   Note ............................................................................................................................................... 90  
   Sigla ............................................................................................................................................... 90  
   Editions ......................................................................................................................................... 90  
   Text ............................................................................................................................................... 92  

4. Commentary .................................................................................................................................... 118  
   Bibliography ................................................................................................................................. 231
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**Abbreviations of editions and works of reference**

Classical authors are abbreviated as in LSJ, journals as in the *Année Philologique*. For the Lives of Homer I have used West’s edition. All websites were last accessed on 13 June 2013.


IG = *Inscriptiones Graecae*. Berlin, 1873 –


MP³ = *Mertens-Pack 3 online Database*, online resource:
http://promethee.philo.ulg.ac.be/cedopal/indexanglais.htm


SEG = *Supplementum Epigraphicum Graecum*. Eds. J. C. Gieben et al. Amsterdam, 1923 –


Preface

Discipuli in fabulis de morte Hesiodi traditis discere possunt variis de eadem re traditis memoriiis recte uti, quod philologi officium est non minus grave quam variis uti lectionibus.
Wilamowitz 1916: 2

The Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi is a text that has often attracted the interest of modern scholars. It deals with a biographical episode that was very famous in antiquity, the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod, and it is the only extant work created precisely in order to tell this story. Furthermore it is the longest extant account of that story, and the most detailed witness of the verses that the poets allegedly exchanged on that occasion. However, it is also a problematic text. The Certamen has been transmitted anonymously, and the only clue in the text that can help us determine its chronology, a mention of the emperor Hadrian, is difficult to interpret and place in relation to the overall history of the text. Clearly, the text collects materials from different periods, and it is not always possible to identify its sources. Some of its contents, such as the story of Homer’s death following his failure to solve a riddle, were already circulating in the sixth and fifth centuries BC. The story of the contest, and more specifically some of the verses that the two poets exchanged, were known to Alcidamas, a sophist of the fourth century BC, but the precise extent to which he influenced our extant text of the Certamen has been the object of much debate. Moreover, the Certamen is transmitted in its entirety in only one medieval manuscript, and some papyrus fragments transmit portions of a similar, but not identical, text.

In this dissertation I clarify the problems related to this text, through a systematic study that includes an introduction to the tradition of the story of the contest, an analysis of the manuscript witnesses, a critical edition of the text, and the first commentary in English on it. In doing so I take into account the
peculiar nature and status of the biographical material in antiquity: I aim to show that biographical traditions form a corpus that is open to variations, both in terms of the contents of the biographical episodes and of the textual traditions of the individual texts.

My treatment of the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod is informed by recent studies on the value of biographical material as evidence for the early reception of a poet’s work. It has long been acknowledged that the ancient biographical accounts on the poets should not be considered as reliable historical sources to reconstruct their real lives. An approach such as that of Wilamowitz, who famously tried to produce a consistent and plausible biography of Homer out of conflicting claims transmitted in the ancient sources, was already criticized by Jacoby a few years later.¹ More recently, in the first edition of her book *The Lives of Greek Poets* in 1981, Lefkowitz argues that most of the biographical material is derived from statements included in the poets’ own verses and that it can be therefore disregarded as popular fiction.² In an equally skeptical approach, Latacz titles the chapter of his 1991 book *Homer: His Art and His Work* on the figure of Homer ‘The source situation: nothing authentic’.³ More recently however, scholars have proposed other ways to approach these fictional texts. In the introduction of *Inventing Homer*, Graziosi suggests that early speculations about the author of the Homeric poems must ultimately derive from an encounter between the poems and the ancient

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¹ Wilamowitz 1916b: 397 suggested that the claims by Smyrna, Chios and Colophon could be put together to fashion a plausible biography for Homer. He could have been born in Smyrna, been active as a teacher in Colophon and then settled in Chios. Jacoby 1933 on the other hand suggested that those are local and independent claims. More generally, nineteenth – early twentieth century scholars who doubted the historical value of the ancient biographical material are Lehrs 1875 and Leo 1901.

² Lefkowitz 1981: vii-xi.

audiences. This material, therefore, becomes important not as a source for reconstructing a poet’s real life, but as evidence for the reception of his works. Along similar lines, Hanink proposes to read Euripides’ biographies by considering the cultural and political forces within which the active imagination of biographers operated. Beecroft likewise claims that biographical anecdotes offer ‘implied poetics’. In the second edition of her book, Lefkowitz acknowledges and, to an extent, adopts these new perspectives on biographical material. The Introduction of this thesis argues that the ancient accounts of the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod testify to different acts of reception of the poets in different contexts and were re-shaped, indeed re-created, accordingly.

Biographical texts were subjected to variations and modification in terms of their textual transmission too. Biographies, as West notes, are one of the categories of texts for which it is impossible to draw standard stemmata and which were subject to embellishments, alterations and revisions, so that the high number of respectable-looking variants does not allow us to construct an archetype. It seems that we rather need a looser model, a net of criss-crossing influences among these texts. Reconstructing the Ur-text of a Life is often impossible because of the very high number of variant readings, corruptions and interpolations which affect both single words and entire sections of the

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7 See e.g. Lefkowitz 2012: 2: ‘biographers could not tell their readers who Homer really was, but they could offer a portrait of the kind of person who might have written the Odyssey’, and therefore biographies ‘can provide clues to what ancient writers and audiences supposed the creative process to be, and can give us an impression of the kinds of poetry and subject matter that ancient people admired at different times and places’.
8 West 1973: 16-17.
The number of variants which we find in the manuscripts of the Lives is arguably due to the fact that these stories were considered essentially fictional and therefore fluid from the beginning. There was no strong need, in antiquity, to preserve the original because there never was an original Life of Homer, or an original Life of Hesiod, but just a series of different, interconnected versions. Those who wrote, excerpted and transmitted these early versions did not feel bound to transmit them faithfully: they rather selected material that could then be further mixed and modified, in order to recreate the figure of the author. This explains why it is often impossible to find the correct or original version of a story about Homer or Hesiod; or even the correct or original reading of a version of such a story. Our aim should rather be to understand the value of such variants as evidence for the innate flexibility of literary reception. Through my analysis of the text, I ultimately aim to show that the Certamen is the product of a conscious and purposeful adaptation of its sources, and deals with material that is itself fluid and suitable for alterations.

It follows that a model such as that proposed by Allen 1924: 31-3 for the Lives of Homer, still considered valid by Esposito Vulgo Gigante 1996: 63, is in fact unacceptable. Allen suggested that all the extant Lives derive from a lost common source, of which the Anon. Vit. Hom. 1 preserves the fullest memory; the other texts are divided in two branches deriving from the Anon. Vit. Hom. 1. The situation seems to be similar for other corpora of ancient biographies, such as the Vidas of the Provençal troubadours: Boutière and Schutz in their edition of the Vidas (1950 and 1964) acknowledge that many of those texts are transmitted in different versions and claim that it is not possible to draw a stemma for them. Avalle 1960 in his edition of the Vida of Peire Vidal recognizes the existence of different branches of manuscripts but, again, does not create a stemma.
1. Introduction: the tradition of the contest between Homer and Hesiod.

This section analyses the extant versions of the story of the poetic contest of Homer and Hesiod other than the Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi. It treats them in chronological order and investigates their relationship to the Certamen. The tradition originated from the passage from Works and Days (650-9, quoted below) in which Hesiod proclaims his victory in a poetic contest. This chapter shows that later authors never contradicted the features of the episode as told by Hesiod, but created and adapted all other details to their own needs. As well as the inherent flexibility of the contest tradition – which is reflected in the textual fluidity and (at times) textual uncertainty of the sources discussed – this chapter highlights the contexts in which the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod appeared. Broadly speaking, it appears in exegetical and biographical texts – commentaries on the Works and Days, Lives of Homer and Hesiod – but also, and importantly, in rhetorical works. Clearly, the competition between Homer and Hesiod was treated as a useful exemplum, which could be used in support of several different points and positions, and was therefore adapted to fit the particular purpose to which it was put. The popularity of the contest story in rhetorical works helps to explain the transmission of the Certamen, which survives for us in a manuscript that contains mainly rhetorical material.

Hesiod.

The story of the poetic contest between Homer and Hesiod originated from the passage from Works and Days (650-9) in which Hesiod proclaims his victory in a poetic contest:

650 οὐ γάρ πώ ποτε νην γ’ ἐπέπλων εὔφεα πόντον,
εἰ μή ἐς Εὐβοίαν ἐς Αὐλίδος, ἢ ποτ’ Ἀχαιοὶ
μείναντες χειμῶνα πολύν σὺν λαὸν ἄγειραν
Ἐλλάδος ἐς ιερής Τροίην ἐς καλλιγύναια.
ἐνθα δ’ ἐγὼν ἐπ’ ἄθλα δαύφρωνος Αμφιδάμαντος
As has often been pointed out, this is a programmatic passage: Hesiod does not (only) aim at giving instructions on sailing, of which, as he admits, he does not have much experience. He is establishing his credentials as a didactic poet against heroic epic. For this reason, although Hesiod does not explicitly mention his rival in the contest, Homer’s name was readily supplied. Indeed, it even penetrated the textual tradition of Works and Days: a scholium to line 657 gives as a variant a line that was also part of the epigram allegedly inscribed on the tripod Hesiod won:

\[ \text{ὑμνῷ νικήσαντ' ἐν Χαλκίδι θείον Ὀμηρόν.} \]

We do not know how widely attested this variant was but, as Nagy claims, there is no proof for the conventional explanation that this variant verse is a mere interpolation from the epigram: as a reported variant it may have reflected a genuine traditional alternative that has been gradually ousted in the course of a poem’s crystallization into a fixed text. This shows that the interaction and the relationship between the Hesiodic passage and the contest story are very strong: if the verses from Works and Days gave the input for the creation of the contest story, in turn the contest story influenced and penetrated the textual

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10 Nagy 1982: 66, Rosen 1990 and 1997: 478-9, Graziosi 2002: 170. These studies point out that, by showing his awareness of the right time for sailing, Hesiod differentiates himself from the Homeric heroes, who had to wait before sailing from Aulis to Troy; furthermore, the formulae with the epic epithets καλλιγύναιξ and ἱερή are reversed compared to the Homeric poems.

11 The epigram is transmitted by Cert. 213-4, AP 7.53, Procl. Vit. Hom. 6, D. Chr. Or. 2.11, P.Freib. 1.1b.

tradition of *Works and Days*. This interaction is also shown by the fact that the authors who wanted to deny that the contest happened also denied the Hesiodic authorship of *Op.* 650-9 and proposed to athetise that passage.13

Hesiod’s victory, therefore, is proclaimed by the poet himself in his work, and for this reason is a non-negotiable aspect of the story. But a fundamental role in sealing the verdict was played also by the *material* reception of the Hesiodic passage. A tripod bearing the epigram of Hesiod’s victory was displayed in antiquity in the place where Hesiod himself (*Op.* 657-8) claims to have dedicated it, on Mt Helicon. It was visible in Pausanias’ times (Paus. 9.31.3):

ἐν δὲ τῷ Ἑλικῶνι καὶ ἄλλοι τρίποδες κεῖνται καὶ ἀρχαιότατος, ὃν ἐν Χαλκίδι λαβεῖν τῇ ἐπ’ Εὐρίπῳ λέγουσιν Ἡσίοδον νικήσαντα ὥδη. περιοικοῦσι δὲ καὶ ἄνδρες τὸ ἄλσος, καὶ ἑορτήν τε ἐνταῦθα οἱ Θεσπιεῖς καὶ ἀγῶνα ἄγουσι Μουσεία.

The tripod of Hesiod’s victory against Homer was the material evidence of Hesiod’s greatness, and ‘guarantees the immortal presence of Hesiod in the Valley of the Muses’.14 Its presence played an important role in the celebration of Hesiod’s poetry on Helicon – a celebration that was mainly made in relation to Homer, as is confirmed by the absence of the statue of Homer from the statuary in the sanctuary of the Muses on Helicon.15 Because of its importance, most writers were aware that the treatment of the story involved almost by necessity a discussion of the tripod.

According to Varro, for example, the tripod proves that the two poets

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13 See sections on Plutarch, Proclus and Tzetzes in this chapter (pp. 18-28 and 44-51).
15 Hunter 2006: 19 notes that thanks to the tripod and to the absence of a statue of Homer the grove on Helicon is ‘not just explicitly Hesiod’s mountain, but also, importantly, not Homer’s’. 13
were contemporaries and competed against each other.\textsuperscript{16} Dio Chrysostom (Or. 2.11, see pp. 28-31) makes a similar use of the tripod and the epigram. Plutarch, on the other hand, in the scholium to Op. 650-9 (see p. 26) proposes the athetesis of the Hesiodic passage on the contest on the ground that the story is ‘silly stuff’, and probably believed that the passage was inserted at a later time precisely in order to justify the presence of the tripod on Mt Helicon – in turn a forgery created to give ancient roots to the Mouseia.\textsuperscript{17}

Another fixed feature of the tradition that is inspired by the Hesiodic passage is the location of the contest: Chalcis. This leads to the discussion of another passage traditionally attributed to Hesiod, [Hes.] fr. 357 M.-W., where Homer and Hesiod are depicted together in the act of singing a hymn to Apollo at Delos.\textsuperscript{18}

\begin{quote}
ἐν Δήλῳ τότε πρῶτον ἔγὼ καὶ Ὄμηρος ἀοιδοί μέλπομεν, ἐν νεαροῖς ὠμοὶς ῥάψαντες ἀοιδήν, Φοίβον Ἀπόλλωνα χρυσάορον ὀν τέκε Λητώ.
\end{quote}

Some modern scholars have seen the meeting of the two poets on Delos as connected to that at Chalcis. West suggests that this fragment comes from a poem that told the story of the first (πρῶτον) meeting between the two poets in which Homer won, followed by the Chalcidean episode which would be Hesiod’s revenge. According to West, such a work could not have existed before

\textsuperscript{16} Gell. Noctes Atticae 3.11: M. Autem Varro in primo de Imaginibus .. dicit... non esse dubium quin aliquo tempore eodem vixerint, idque ex epigrammate ostendi, quod in tripode scriptum est, qui in monte Helicone ab Hesiodo positur traditur.

\textsuperscript{17} Lamberton 1988: 503.

\textsuperscript{18} This pseudo-Hesiodic fragment derives from a scholium to Pindar’s Nemean 2.1 (3.31.7 Drachmann). The scholiast reports Philochorus’ opinion on the etymology of the word rhapsode, which he connects to ῥάπτειν τὴν ῥαδήν: ‘to stitch the song’ (cf. 328 F 212). The fragment is quoted in support of it. This scholium contains information that is vital to our knowledge of ancient performative practices, and touches on matters that are relevant to the Certamen too (e.g. the Homeridae, Kynaithos and the Hymn to Apollo). It therefore features at several points of my commentary: see Cert. 13-15n., 56n. and 317n.
Alcidamas, or he would have set his story on Delos rather than at Chalcis because, at *Works and Days* 650-9, Homer is not mentioned, whereas in this fragment he is.¹⁹ This argument seems to me unconvincing because the mere existence of this fragment does not prove its ability to become more influential than the *Works and Days* in determining the location of the contest between Homer and Hesiod for Alcidamas. Kivilo (who unlike West situates the origins of the Delian fragment before Alcidamas) and Nagy believe Delos to be an alternative location for the episode of the contest between Homer and Hesiod that took place at Chalcis.²⁰ However, the *Works and Days* is the canonical source of the story and locating the contest on the island of Delos would contradict two of the details given by Hesiod: that the contest took place at Chalcis (*Op*. 655) and that the poet never sailed the sea except from Aulis to Chalcis (*Op*. 650-1). The tone of Hesiod’s words in the fragment, the apparent collaboration between the two bards in order to create one new song, the mention of Apollo – aspects which are completely absent from the verses about Chalcis – are further reasons to look for the origins and the meaning of fr. 357 M.-W. in other circumstances, independent from the Chalcidean episode.

A plausible and now widely accepted hypothesis was proposed by Burkert in 1979, and at the same time developed independently by Janko, who published it three years later.²¹ These scholars connect our fragment to a festival organised by Polycrates, tyrant of Samos, in 523-2 BC: this festival was held on Delos and was a joint celebration of Apollo of Delos and Apollo of Delphi. The occasion may also have seen the first joint performance of the two parts of the

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¹⁹ West 1967: 440.

²⁰ Kivilo 2000: 3 and 2010: 21, Nagy 2010: 70. Based on a doubtful passage of the Certamen (55n.), they also propose Aulis as a third possible location – although Kivilo 2010: 19 seems to be open to the possibility, accepted in this commentary, that Aulis is mentioned as the place from which the two poets sailed to Chalcis.

Hymn to Apollo, the Delian and the Pythian. Fr. 357 M.-W. worked therefore as an attempt to give ancient and authoritative roots to this festival, by attributing the proto-performance of the joint parts of the Hymn to Homer and Hesiod respectively.\textsuperscript{22} If this suggestion is correct, it also accounts for the emphasis on the cooperation between the two bards that seems to emerge from the verses, and that makes the episode look quite different from the story told in the Certamen.\textsuperscript{23}

Because one of the versions of the proto-performance of the Hymn to Apollo is told in the Certamen, it is interesting to proceed with a comparison between the witness given by our fragment and the others that have reached us. Another famous story about Homer (this time Homer alone) performing this Hymn is told by Thucydides. At 3.104, the historian gives an account of the purification of Delos carried out by the Athenians in 426 BC, the first purification of the island after Pisistratus’ times. He remarks that the action taken by his fellow citizens in 426 BC also included the revival of the festival of the Delia, which, he recalls, in ancient times saw Homer himself reciting the Hymn to Apollo.

It seems that we have here two different versions of the story, each of which emphasises different issues. These can be explained, at least in part, as

\textsuperscript{22} For the Delian part as ‘Homeric’ and the Pythian as ‘Hesiodic’ see e.g. Janko 1982: 113.

\textsuperscript{23} This has long been noted too: Graziosi 2002: 182 notes that in the fragment the two poets sing a hymn to a god, and that when they are presented together as religious experts the emphasis is on their cooperation rather then on their rivalry; Collins 2004: 181 stresses that the two are said to produce one song (ἀοιδήν). However, as noted by Koning 2010: 246 n. 27 who criticises Heldmann 1982: 16-17, the emphasis on their cooperation does not exclude that the context in which the performance was set was a competitive one. The verses pronounced by each poet in the Certamen, which are poetic entities of their own, assume additional nuances and new meanings when seen in response to one another (see most remarkably the exchanges at 107-37 and the relations between the two ‘finest passages’ at 180-204n.), thus creating in turn new poetic unities.
responses to the different political contexts in which the anecdotes were told. Moreover, some elements of the Thucydidean version seem to suggest that the two traditions were engaging and competing with each other. Because the story told in [Hes.] fr. 357 M.-W. probably has its origins in a festival in honour of Apollo of both Delos and Delphi, which hosted the joint performance of the Delian and Pythian parts of the *Hymn*, the presence of Hesiod in the anecdote seems to have been determined by the Delphic element. The Thucydidean version, by contrast, focuses only on the Delian elements: the Athenians revived the festival called *Delia*; only Homer is mentioned; verses from the Delian part and strictly connected to the figure of Homer are quoted (esp. 165-72). All this underlines the Athenian connection with Delos, with all the political and symbolic meaning that it had for the Athenian empire. The relationship between Athens and Delphi were difficult at the time of the Peloponnesian War because of the pro-Spartan sympathies of the oracle. It is perhaps not too surprising that Thucydides fails to refer to the Delphic/Hesiodic part of the *Hymn*. The version given by the *Certamen* at 315-21 is similar to that given by Thucydides, although not all details are the same. In both accounts, however,

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24 Hornblower 1991: 142 and 520-1 remarks that Delos was the birthplace of Apollo, the father of Ion, which makes the island a particularly interesting site for Athens that proposed herself as the mother-state for the Ionian cities. Delos was also chosen as site of the League treasury before it was moved to Athens.  


26 Interestingly, then, an element in the Thucydidean account seems to show that there was also a certain degree of awareness of and engagement among these different traditions: on the occasion of the festival to which fr. 357 M.-W. is connected, Polycrates spectacularly dedicated the island of Rheneia to Apollo by bounding it with a chain to Delos. Thucydides, before mentioning the Athenians’ own revival of the Delian festival in 426 BC, relates that the Athenians during the purification of Delos brought the corpses to Rheneia, and then remarks that the two islands are so close to each other that Polycrates could bind Rheneia to Delos with a chain. This minimizes the role of an event that was surely important to the Polycratean propaganda.
Homer emerges as a Panonian poet. The Certamen seems to take inspiration from the tradition testified by Thucydides, according to which the process of Panhellenisation of Homer is connected to the image of the blind bard from Chios presented in the Hymn to Apollo: this was the image of the poet accepted and promoted by the Athenians, and thus became predominant.27

In conclusion, fr. 357 M.-W. has no relation with the Chalcidean contest: the mention of Homer and Hesiod performing together on a different occasion may have been inspired, or supported, by the Chalcidean tradition, but it does not represent an alternative version of it.

Plutarch.

Plutarch (first-second century AD) refers to the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod in three passages: Dinner of the Seven Sages 153f-154a; Table Talk 674f–675a; Commentary on Hesiod’s Works and Days fr. 84 Sandbach.

The story as told in the Dinner, with which this discussion starts, contains many features that make it unique. The one that has attracted the greatest scholarly attention is the textually disputed mention of Lesches. The following analysis justifies the presence of Lesches as a competitor, rather than – as often suggested– the narrator or creator of the story. In the Dinner of the Seven Sages 153f-154a, Plutarch tells the story of a dinner hosted by Periander and attended by the Sages and others. At the point of the text where mention of the contest occurs, the king of the Egyptians, Amasis, enlists the help of Bias, one of the Sages, to solve a riddle proposed by the king of the Ethiopians: how to drink up the ocean. Bias offers a suitable solution for the challenge (blocking the rivers flowing into the ocean), and Chilon suggests that Amasis should learn from Bias how to improve his government instead of how to play these silly games. After the Sages have engaged in political discussions and exchanged some riddles in turn, Cleodorus announces that this game, too, is a waste of time. At

27 See also Cert. 315-21n.
this point, Periander refers to the story of the famous poetic contest in which Hesiod gained victory and a tripod.

Below is the text in the Teubner edition:

28 Άκούομεν γὰρ ὃτι καὶ πρὸς τὰς Ἀμφιδάμαντος ταφὰς εἰς Χαλκίδα τῶν τότε σοφῶν οἱ δοκιμῶντες [πουηταί] συνήλθον· ἦν δ’ ὁ Ἀμφιδάμας ἀνήρ πολεμικός, καὶ πολλὰ πράγματα παρασχὼν Ἐφετριεύθησιν ἐν ταῖς περὶ Ληλάντου μάχαις ἐπέσεν. ἐπεὶ δὲ τὰ παρεσκευασμένα τοῖς ποιηταῖς ἐπὶ χαλέπιν καὶ δύσκολον ἐποίει τὴν κρίσιν διὰ τὸ ἐφάμμυλον, ἢ τε δόξα τῶν ἀγωνιστῶν [Ὀμήρου καὶ Ἡσιόδου] πολλὴν ἀποφίλαν μετ’ αἴδους τοῖς κρίνουσι παρείχεν, ἐτράποντο πρὸς τοιαύτας ἐρωτήσεις, καὶ προῆβαλε μέν, ὡς φασί, Λέσχης,

Μούσα μοι ἐννέπει κείνα, τὰ μήτ’ ἐγένοντο πάροιθε μήτ’ ἐσται μετόπισθεν,
ἀπεκρίνατο δ’ Ἡσιόδος ἐκ τοῦ παρατυχόντος
ἀλλ’ ὅταν ἀμφὶ Δίως τύμβῳ καναχήποδες ἔποιοι ἀρματα συντρίψωσιν ἐπειγόμενοι περὶ νίκης,
καὶ διὰ τούτο λέγεται μάλιστα θαυμασθεῖς τοῦ τρίποδος τυχεῖν.

Here Lesches is presented as one of the contestants: he proposes a riddle that Hesiod solves, thus winning the contest. But the presence of Lesches, indeed that of any other poet than Homer and Hesiod, is not attested elsewhere in the tradition of the contest, and scholars have therefore proceeded to expel Lesches from it. Following one of the variants attested in the manuscript tradition, Allen published a text in which Lesches is not a competitor, but the narrator of the story. 29 According to Allen, Lesches might have written about

28 Paton, Wegahaupt and Pohlenz 1974. This text is essentially the same as that in Wilamowitz 1916, in the Belles Lettres edition of Plutarch by Defradas, Hani and Klaerr 1985 and in Most 2006. All the quotations from Plutarch are from the Teubner edition.

29 Allen 1912: 136, 218 and 1924: 25. The text is accepted in the Loeb edition of Plutarch by Babbitt. I copy here for the sake of clarity the apparatus as it appears in the Teubner edition:

15 secl. Larsen 19 secl. Wil. 21 προὐβαλε (–βαλλε P) PQB προὐβάλλομεν κ προὐβάλλομεν O φασὶ QhJ nwB φησί O.

Some of the scholars who have dealt with the manuscript tradition of this passage have misunderstood it because of the presence of an ambiguous siglum in the apparatus. Kirk 1950: 150 n. 1 claims that O is alone in transmitting the reading φησί, and he is followed by West
the contest story either in the Little Iliad, or in a poem that Lesches wrote about Homer’s life. Allen’s text, recently defended by O’ Sullivan, Kivilo and Koning, runs: καὶ προέβαλ’ ὁ μέν, ὥς φησι Λέσχης (‘and he (scil. Homer), as Lesches asserts, proposed the following’). This reading does not seem plausible to me. To begin with, it is improbable that a poet closely associated with Homer, such as Lesches, would have told a story in which Hesiod defeated Homer. The poems attributed to Lesches, such as the Little Iliad, are set in the heroic age, in which the story of the contest does not belong. More fundamentally, the very attempt to discover the original author of such a story seems misguided, since most of the biographical episodes related to the lives of the archaic poets circulated anonymously at an early stage.

It has been argued in defence of Allen’s reading that we have no evidence for a contest of singers with three or more contestants competing at the same time. But the last part of Periander’s introductory sentence does, indeed, seem

1967: 439 and Kivilo 2000: 4 and 2010: 23. In fact, the siglum present in this section of the apparatus, O (Greek letter omicron), stands for codices omnes praeter citatos, while it is O (Latin alphabet) that represents a manuscript, the Ambr. 528 s. (cf. conspectus siglorum at p. XLVI in the Teubner edition), which is not mentioned here. It follows that the manuscripts QhJ nwB give the reading φασι; all the others (except for those mentioned and including O) give φησί.


31 In this respect it is useful to remark, with West 1967: 439, that ‘we know of a considerable number of early hexameter poems that were current in antiquity, and not one of them was about post–Dark Age personalities. ‘Biographical’ poetry did not exist, to the best of our knowledge’. Kivilo’s attempts to ‘trace an archaic biographical poem here’ (2010: 24 n. 72) do not seem convincing. To argue for an early date for the origins of the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod, we do not necessarily need a connection with Lesches or any other specific name. Another, more convincing attempt to trace the earliest developments of the legend in archaic times is in De Biasi 2012, according to whom the story originated in connection to the Lelantine war.

32 Kivilo 2010: 23.
to imply a contest among more than two participants. Furthermore, other witnesses of the story such as the *Certamen* and even Hesiod’s *Works and Days* (650–9) seem to set no limit on the number of competitors who took part in the event as a whole. Even if such a version of the contest did not exist before Plutarch, he may, in any case, have invented further competitors to suit his own rhetorical purposes. The mention of the competition between the poets occurs in the context of advice given to kings. In the *Dinner*, Plutarch suggests a connection between riddle solving and the ability to rule well, two talents which have *σοφία* in common. The Sages, who can solve riddles, are also engaged in enlightened political discussions, and a female character in the work, Cleobulina, who improved the government of her father, is also famous for her riddles. Amasis, by contrast, does not excel in either ability. It stands to reason that, when telling of one of the most famous competitions in riddle solving, Plutarch wants to draw as close a parallel as possible between the *σοφοί* who took part in that competition and the *σοφοί* at his banquet, and that may well be why he suggests, by mentioning Lesches, that more than two wise poets competed in the contest. Lesches fits well as an extra competitor for several reasons: he was an epic poet and even shared with Homer the attribution of the *Little Iliad*. But that work could not compete with the real *Iliad* in terms of perceived poetic quality; and Lesches was nowhere near as famous as Homer. Unlike the *Certamen*, where Hesiod defeats Homer solely


34 As Graziosi 2002: 172 suggests, he is ‘the perfect substitute in that he is traditionally very close to Homer, but less authoritative’. That does not necessarily contradict the claim that at the contest τῶν τότε σοφῶν οἱ δοκιμῷτατοι ποιηταὶ συνήλθον (pace Koning 2010: 260 n. 85). Important, here, is the fact that the *Dinner of the Seven Sages* mentions several obscure names of sages and other guests: clearly Plutarch is displaying his erudition by revealing surprising and generally unknown elements both of the Seven Sages traditions and of the poetic contest tradition. Comparing his version with other accounts of the Seven Sages (Pl. *Prt.* 343a; D.L. 1.40; Stob. 3.1.172) we find, then, differences in the names of the Sages and in the place of their
on the basis of Panedes’ verdict, here the poetic skills of Hesiod do not leave room for disagreement over his victory: Plutarch can thus safely use this episode to make his point about the importance of riddle solving. Lesches was also known to have participated in another poetic contest, against Arctinus, and that may have been at the back of Plutarch’s mind when he included him in this story.35

A related textual problem in this passage is posed by the words τῶν ἀγωνιστῶν Ὁμήρου καὶ Ἡσιόδου. These have almost unanimously been considered to contradict the presence of Lesches at the contest: some scholars use them as evidence for the fact that Plutarch refers to a contest between Homer and Hesiod only.36 Others solve this apparent problem by athetizing Ὁμήρου καὶ Ἡσιόδου, and suggesting that it was a marginal gloss that made it into the text at an early stage of transmission.37 This latter suggestion seems meeting. As in the account of the poetic contest between Homer and Hesiod, the variations often have a clear rationale.

35 Phaenias fr. 33 Wehrli: ναὶ μὴν καὶ Τέρπανδρον ἀρχαίουσί τινες· Ἑλλάνικος γούν (4 F 85b) τοῦτον ἱστορεῖ κατὰ Μίδαν γεγονέναι, Φανίας δὲ πρὸ Τερπάνδρου τιθεὶς Λέσχην τὸν Λέσβιον Ἀρχιλόχου νεώτερον φέρει τὸν Τέρπανδρον, διημιλλῆσθαι δὲ τὸν Λέσχην Αρκτίνῳ καὶ νευκικηκέναι. Other tentative explanations have been offered: Milne 1924: 57 suggests that Lesches’ name was substitute for Homer’s in the Hellenistic period or later because of the chronological problem of making Homer and Hesiod contemporaries; Richardson 1981: 2 argues that Plutarch’s account may reflect an earlier version of the story; Erbse 1996: 313-14 suggests emending the name of Lesches to Panedes. Among the attempts to account for the role of Lesches as the narrator of the story in the Plutarchean passage, Fowler’s remarks (apud Kivilo 2010: 23 n. 71) seem the most reasonable: he claims that ‘Plutarch may not necessarily have quoted first hand and there could be false inference behind his reference’. That is, even if Plutarch was indeed presenting Lesches as a narrator, he could have been wrong and this passage alone cannot prove Allen’s and Kivilo’s theory of Lesches as the creator of the contest story.

37 The athetesis was first proposed by Wilamowitz 1879: 161. See also Wilamowitz 1916: 55 and 1916b: 405. It was later accepted in the Teubner and Belles Lettres editions and by West 1967:
plausible, but the alleged gloss is attested in all our manuscripts, so we should be careful about suggesting an athetesis.\textsuperscript{38} In fact, it is possible to make sense of the text as it stands: it says that the quality of Homer’s and Hesiod’s performance made it difficult for the judges to issue a verdict; hence they asked for the competition to go on and Hesiod, able to solve Lesches’ riddle, was eventually awarded the victory. The fact that Hesiod replies \textit{ἐκ τοῦ παρατυχόντος} may also mean that Hesiod was the first to reply to a riddle proposed to all the contestants. Lesches poses a riddle, and Hesiod solves it first – thus winning the competition.

Another explanation for the presence of Lesches that has gathered some consensus among modern scholars, and deserves attention here, is West’s. He argues that the name \textit{Λέσχης} replaced \textit{HORTος} in the text: Homer would be the contestant who actually proposes the challenge, but a reader may have been reminded of Lesches by the verses of the question, and his name written in the margin of a copy of Plutarch’s text would then have penetrated the text.\textsuperscript{39} If the presupposition of West’s statement is right, i.e. that these verses were in antiquity (sometimes) attributed to Lesches, Plutarch, too, must have been aware of this connection: there is no need to postulate that he gave Homer verses traditionally attributed to another poet, when we consider that the tradition offered an alternative version for the question, which Plutarch may well have known.\textsuperscript{40} It seems to me more probable that Lesches was present in

\textsuperscript{38} However, from my remark it does not follow that the presence of these words in all the manuscript guarantees their genuineness. The fact that the readings \textit{φασι} and \textit{φησί}, that allow Lesches two completely different roles in the passage, are both well represented in the manuscript tradition shows that this passage was not perceived as easy by those who copied it, and it would not be surprising that an attempt made by someone to specify the names of the most canonical contestants successfully entered the text and was then transmitted unanimously.

\textsuperscript{39} West 1967: 439-40.

\textsuperscript{40} On a general level, it should be noted that Plutarch in general was certainly well aware of the
Plutarch’s account from the very beginning, or that a marginal ‘Lesches’ was inserted simply in order to spare Homer the indignity of being beaten by Hesiod. In any case, there is no definitive proof that the lines were ever associated with poems attributed to Lesches, and this makes it particularly unfortunate that they are often included in collections of fragments from the lost works of Lesches.41 This is not to argue that the verses pronounced by Lesches in this passage are a creation of Plutarch: it is rather to suggest that they could well derive from another source, for example a now lost corpus of hexameters used in poetic contests similar to the collection of verses in the Certamen or indeed fluid oral epic performances and stock phrases used in a witty and provocative way. The fact that the Muses are asked not to sing a particular topic reverses the traditional epic invocation to the Muses, and in

41 Because of the mention of Lesches these verses have sometimes been connected with the Little Iliad and interpreted as its incipit (fr. 1 Bernabé: see Bernabé 1984 and 1987: 76). But the poem is more likely to have started with another couplet, transmitted in Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 16 and explicitly glossed as the beginning of it (fr. 1 Davies: see Davies 1989: 60, id. 1989b: 6 and Burgess 2001: 24). Fr. 1 Davies is also more ancient than the Plutarchean couplet can be proved to be, as it is found in an inscription from the fifth century BC (Vinogradov 1969: 142-3; Vinogradov and Zolotarev 1990: 109 and 119 fig. C = SEG 1990: 612). For other hypotheses see also Scafoglio 2006. I discuss this matter at length in a forthcoming article.
itself suggests a riddling or agonistic context for their creation, which is precisely the kind of context in which Plutarch mentions them.

There is one further peculiarity to this exchange of verses: the second verse in the question is left incomplete. Lesches is asking his opponent to talk about something that never was in the past and never shall be in the future; the second verse is then abruptly interrupted. Anyone familiar with the formulae of epic poetry will notice that the present is not mentioned: the couplet recalls the famous epic formula τά τ’ ἐόντα τά τ’ ἔσσόμενα πρὸ τ’ ἐόντα, which is also used in the corresponding question in the Certamen and in P.Petr. I 25.42 Most remarkably, because of the absence of the present, the question in Plutarch does not contain an obvious difficulty: if asked not to sing of the past or the future, Hesiod could refer, in his answer, to anything happening in the present.43 Again it is instructive to see how this fits the context in which the verses appear, in particular by looking at the treatment of time as a philosophical issue in the Dinner. In the passage described at the beginning, Bias solves the riddle posed to Amasis by referring to the present time: Amasis should ask the king of the Ethiopians ‘to stop the rivers which are now emptying into the ocean depths, while he is engaged in drinking up the ocean that now is; for this is the ocean with which the demand is concerned, and not the one which is to be’.44 In another passage (153b), time is defined as partaking of past, present and future; in another work (On Common Conception against the Stoics 1081c-1082d), Plutarch criticizes the Stoic doctrine according to which time partakes only of past and

42 The formula is found at: ll. 1.71; Hes. Th. 38; Th. 32 in the shortened form τά τ’ ἔσσόμενα πρὸ τ’ ἐόντα (again leaving out the present).

43 The reference to the tomb of Zeus, something that can never exist because of the immortality of the god, well responds to the question formulated in the Certamen (see 97-8n. and 100-1n.). Strictly speaking, it is not appropriate in this context.

44 151d: Φαζέτω τοίνυν, ’έφη, ’τώ λιθίσι τούς ἐμβάλλοντας εἰς τά πελάγη ποταμοὺς ἐπισχείν, ἐως αὐτός ἔκπνει τὴν νῦν οὖσαν θάλασσαν· περὶ ταύτης γὰρ τὸ ἐπίταγμα γέγονεν, οὐ τῆς ὄστεον ἐσσόμενης.’ The above translation is by Babbitt 1928.
future. In Lesches’ question the importance of the present is demonstrated by its very absence: a verse is left incomplete and thus the couplet contains no difficulty to solve. The curtailed couplet suits Plutarch’s philosophical discourse on time better than any corresponding verse transmitted in the rest of the tradition; and this in turn suggests that, whatever Plutarch’s source, he felt quite free to adapt it for his own purposes.

The other two passages by Plutarch confirm that he allowed himself to deal with the story of the contest freely and creatively. In *Table Talk* (674f-675a) Plutarch says that poetry competitions are ancient, but although many expect him to give as an example the contest between Homer and Hesiod, he ‘scorns this hackneyed lore of the schoolroom’:

ἐνίοις μὲν οὖν ἐπίδοξος ἤμην ἐωλα παραθήσει πράγματα, τὰς Οἰολύκου τοῦ Θετταλοῦ ταφὰς καὶ τὰς Αμφιδάμαντος τοῦ Χαλκίδεως ἐν αἷς Ὅμηρον καὶ Ἡσίοδον ἱστορούσιν ἐπει διαγωνίσασθαι. καταβαλὼν δὲ ταύτα τῷ διατεθυλήσθαι πάνθ’ ὑπὸ τῶν γραμματικῶν[…]

In a scholium to Hesiod’s *Works and Days* (fr. 84 Sandbach = sch. Op. 650-62), Plutarch is said to have athetized the passage in which Hesiod proclaims his victory as a later interpolation, because it contains nothing of value:

ταῦτα πάντα περὶ τῆς Χαλκίδος <καὶ> τοῦ Αμφιδάμαντος καὶ τοῦ ἄθλου καὶ τοῦ τριπόδος ἐμβεβλήσθαι φησιν ὁ Πλούταρχος οὐδὲν ἔχοντα χρηστόν. τὸν μὲν οὖν Αμφιδάμαντα ναυμαχοῦντα πρὸς Ἐρετριέας ύπέρ τοῦ Ληλάντου ἀποθανεῖν ἄθλα δ’ ἐπ’ αὐτῷ καὶ ἀγώνας θείναι τελευτήσαντι τοὺς παῖδας νυκτύση φ’ ἀγωνιζόμενον τὸν Ησίοδον καὶ ἄθλον μουσικόν τρίποδα λαβείν καὶ ἀναθεῖναι τούτον ἐν τῷ Ἑλικώνι, ὅποι καὶ κάτοχος ἑγεγόνει ταῖς Μοῦσαις, καὶ ἐπίγραμμα ἐπὶ τούτω ἀναθέτῃ. πάντα οὖν ταύτα ληρώδη λέγων ἐκείνος, ἀπ’ αὐτῶν ἀρχέτα τῶν εἰς τὸν καιρὸν τοῦ πλοῦ συντεινόντων, ἡματα πεντήκοντα’.

The explanations proposed for Plutarch’s athetesis agree on one fundamental point: in Plutarch’s opinion the contest between Homer and Hesiod does not have a historical basis.45 Plutarch, the scrupulous critic of literature, rejects the authenticity of the contest story; and, precisely because he

45 See e.g. Lamberton 1988.
regards it as essentially fictional, he feels free to adapt it to his own creative purposes, in suitable contexts such as his Dinner of the Seven Sages.46

Indeed, it is quite possible that in Plutarch’s version of the contest Homer did not feature at all. If Ὅμηρου καὶ Ἡσιόδου in the Dinner of the Seven Sages 153f-154a can be dismissed as a gloss, then it is possible that Plutarch’s version of the contest did not actually include Homer, but had Lesches as a minor, and chronologically viable, replacement.

What can, in my view, be concluded without controversy is this. First of all, Plutarch differs considerably from the version of the contest we know from the Certamen, however we read and edit his text. Secondly, it is clear that his version of the story was variously discussed and altered, so that external glosses may have entered the text early on in the history of its transmission, and so that part of the manuscripts have Lesches as narrator of, rather than participant in, the contest. The role of Lesches as narrator aligns Plutarch’s version more closely with the Certamen, and may be the result of ancient or medieval attempts at harmonising the story. But it must be said that Lesches’ role as narrator, and Homer’s role as participant, do not accord with Plutarch’s own take on the story of the contest in other works: his Table Talk 674f–675a and his Commentary on Hesiod’s Works and Days fr. 84 Sandbach count against it. Finally, the manuscript reading which makes Lesches into a narrator of the contest has the knock-on effect of creating one more Lesches fragment, which is then sometimes included in collections of his work. On that basis, some scholars argue for a very early origin of the story of the contest, ascribing its creation to a sixth- or seventh-century Lesches. That seems to me a conclusion of very dubious standing. Beyond the uncertainties, my discussion of Plutarch shows

46 Cf. also Kirk 1950: 150 n. 1: ‘Plutarch had in any case doubted the authenticity of the Amphidamas-passage at Erga 654 ff., and would not be particularly concerned over the accuracy of Periander’s story’.

27
how flexible the story of the contest was, and how often it was manipulated, in antiquity and in modern times, through the work of editors.

**Dio Chrysostom, Oration on Kingship 2.7-12.**

Dio Chrysostom (first-second century AD) mentions the contest between Homer and Hesiod in his second oration *On Kingship*. In this work, Alexander the Great and his father Philip on their way home from Chaeronea engage in a conversation about Homer which is in fact, as is stated at the very beginning of the work, a discussion about kingship as well.  

In the first few paragraphs Alexander puts forward the idea that lies at the heart of the oration: kings should read Homer, because his poetry alone is ‘truly noble, lofty and suited to a king’.  

His father then asks him about his opinion of other poets, including Hesiod, and this gives the opportunity for a reflection on the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod that also resembles a ‘re-enactment’ of it, with Philip and Alexander performing Hesiodic and Homeric verses respectively.

(7) […] πάνυ οὖν ὁ Φίλιππος αὐτὸν ἡγάσθη τῆς μεγαλοφοροσύνης, ὅτι δήλος ἦν οὐδὲν φαύλον οüδὲ ταπεινόν ἑπινοῦν, ἀλλὰ τοῖς ήρωσι καὶ τοῖς ἠμιθέοις παραβαλλόμενος. (8) ὡς δὲ κινεῖν αὐτῶν βουλόμενος, Τὸν δὲ Ἡσίοδον, ὦ Αλέξανδρε, ὀλίγου ἀξίων κρίνεις, ἔφη, ποιητήν; Ὡθ ἐγώγε, εἶπεν, ἀλλὰ τοῦ παντός, οὐ μέντοι βασιλεύσαι οüδὲ στρατηγοῖς ἰσώς. Ἀλλὰ τοῖς μην; καὶ ὁ Αλέξανδρος γελάσας, Τοῖς ποιμέσιν, ἔφη, καὶ τοῖς τέκτοσι καὶ τοῖς γεωργοῖς, τοὺς μὲν γὰρ ποιμένας φησὶν φιλεῖσθαι ὑπὸ τῶν Μυσῶν, τοῖς δὲ τέκτοσι μᾶλα ἐμπείρως παραινεῖ τηλίκον χωρὶς τὸν ἄξονα τεμεῖν, καὶ τοῖς γεωργοῖς, ὅπηκικα ἀρξασθαι πίθου. (9) Τί οὖν; οὐχὶ ταύτα χρήσιμα, ἔφη, τοῖς ἀνθρώποις, ὁ Φίλιππος; Ὑπὶ ἡμῖν γε, εἶπεν, ὦ πάτερ, οὐδὲ Μακεδόνι τοῖς νῦν, ἀλλὰ τοῖς πρότεροις, ἧνικα νέμοντες καὶ γεωργοῦντες Ἰλλυριόις ἐδουλευον καὶ Τριβαλλοῖς. Οὐδὲ τὰ περὶ τὸν στόρον, ἔφη, καὶ τὸν ἀμύτον, ὁ Φίλιππος, ἀρέσκει σοι τοῦ Ἡσίοδου μεγαλοπρεπῶς οὕτως εἰρημένα;

Πλημάδων Ἀταλαγενέων ἐπιτελλομενάων ἀρχεσθ᾽ ἀμύτου, ἀρότοιο δὲ δυσομενάων.

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47 Par. 1: οἱ δὲ αὐτοὶ λόγοι οὐτοὶ σχεδόν τι καὶ περὶ βασιλείας ἦσαν.

48 Par. 6: τὴν δὲ γε Ὠμήρου ποιήσαι μόνην ὅρῳ τῷ ὄντι γενναίαν καὶ μεγαλοπρέπη καὶ βασιλεύσῃ. The above translation is by Cohoon 1932.

49 Koning 2010: 263.
(10) Polý ge mállon, eítev ó Aléxandros, tά par’ Ὄμηρο γεωργικά. Kαί
pou peri γεωργίας eípherken Ὄμηρο; ἦρετο ὁ Φιλίππος, ἢ tά en tή ἀσπίδι
mμήμαta tέgeis tών ἀρώντων kai tθειόντων kai τρυγόντων; Ἡκιστά γε,
eítev ὁ Ἀλέξανδρος, ἀλλά ἐκείνα polύ mállon:

οι d’ ὅστ’ ἀμητήρες ἐναντίοι ἀλλήλοισιν
όγμον ἐλαύνωσιν ἀνδρός μάκαρος κατ’ ἄρουραν
πυρόν ἡ κρῆθων· τά δέ δράγματα ταρφέα πίπτει·
ὡς Τρόας καὶ Αχαιοὶ ἐπ’ ἀλλήλοισι θορύντες
dήσουν, οὐδέ ἐτεροί μινώντ’ ὀλοοῖ φόβοιο.

(11) Ταῦτα μέντοι ποιών Ὅμηρος ἦττάτο ὑπὸ Ἡσιόδου, ὁ Φιλίππος εἶπεν· ἢ
οὐκ ἀκήκοας τὸ ἐπίγραμμα τὸ ἐν Ἔλικών ἐπὶ τοῦ τρίπτοδος·

Ἡσιόδος Μούσας Ἕλικωνίσι τόνδ’ ἀνέθηκεν
ἀπὸν νικήσας ἐν Χαλκίδι θείον Ὅμηρον;

(12) Καὶ μάλα δικαίως, εἶπεν ὁ Ἀλέξανδρος, ἦττάτο οὐ γὰρ ἐν βασιλεύσιν
ηγωνίζετο, ἀλλ’ ἐν γεωργίας καὶ ἰδιώταις, mállon dé ἐν ἀνθρώποις
φυλήδονας καὶ μαλακοῖς. τοιγοριζοῦν ἠμύνοντο τοὺς Εὔβοεας διὰ τῆς
ποιήσεως Ὅμηρος. Πως; ἦρετο θαυμάσας ὁ Φιλίππος. Ὅτι μόνους αὐτοὺς
τῶν Ἐλληνων περιέκεισαν αἰχμάτα, κομάν ὁπίσθεν ἀφείς ὀστερ οἱ νῦν
tοὺς παίδας τοὺς ἀπαλοῦς. [...] (ed. Cohoon)

In this oration the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod is
presented within another quasi-competitive context, a contest over Homer and
Hesiod acted by Philip and Alexander. Through the way he develops the
narrative of both competitions, Dio shows a good awareness of some of the
most common features of the tradition of the contest between Homer and
Hesiod (e.g. the finest passages, the outcome, the tripod and the epigram
celebrating Hesiod’s victory). At the same time he stages the final judgment in
the way that best suits his work.

Alexander insists that Homer’s is the only poetry suitable for kings,
while the rest is for ‘shepherds, carpenters, and farmers’ (par. 8): Hesiod does
give useful advice to such people, but not to a ruler such as he is. To this Philip
replies by asking his son what he thinks about some magnificent (cf.
μεγαλοπρεπῶς, par. 9) lines by Hesiod about seed-time and harvest: a
performance of Works and Days 383-4 follows. These verses, famously, are the
beginning of the passage that Hesiod chooses as his finest in the contest. Here
too Philip seems to select these verses because they stand out in the Hesiodic
production.

To this challenge Alexander replies that he prefers what Homer says about agriculture, and performs a passage from the *Iliad*, as in the rest of the tradition of the contest. In this case, however, the selected verses are *Il*. 11.67-71, a simile in which warriors of the Trojan and Achaeian side are said to leap on one another like reapers who ‘start from opposite ends of the field of a powerful man, and drive their path through wheat or barley, and the handfuls fall thick and fast’. This simile is chosen because it uses an impressive agricultural simile to represent a battle, thereby revealing the kind of agricultural work Alexander favours.50

At this point, the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod makes its way into the narrative. Philip remarks that ‘despite such beautiful lines’ (par. 11) Homer was defeated by Hesiod, and offers as evidence for this the epigram of the victory and the tripod on which it was inscribed. The tripod and its epigram are valuable pieces of evidence and are difficult to overlook: indeed these details come from Hesiod himself (*Op*. 657-8).51 Alexander therefore, to defend his thesis of Homer’s superiority over Hesiod, uses another detail of the story, which is omitted by Hesiod: the final verdict. In Alexander’s version the people who judged the performance were not ‘kings, but farmers and plain folk, or, rather, men who were lovers of pleasure and effeminate’, and these are the people, as Alexander pointed out earlier, who can find useful advice in Hesiod’s poetry and prefer it to Homer’s. A king, Alexander seems to claim implicitly, could not have issued such a verdict.52 Consequently, the existence of a character such as Panedes is completely omitted here. Dio may well have

50 See also Koning 2010: 264 and n. 95.


52 The opposition between Homer and Hesiod on which the judgement is grounded, made on the basis of the different subject matters of the poems and the people they appeal to, is well rooted in ancient literature. See esp. and most recently Koning 2010: 269-95.
known it, because the name of that king was already circulating by the third century BC,\textsuperscript{53} but a king who prefers Hesiod over Homer would be a threat for the main argument of the oration: kings should like Homer.\textsuperscript{54}

Another interesting detail that may show that Dio was very well conversant with the biographical and exegetical tradition is that Alexander claims that Homer was ‘rightly’ (par. 12: μάλα δικαίως) defeated: this accords with traditions such as that of the Certamen, where it was ‘right’ for Hesiod to win because of his subject matter.\textsuperscript{55}

**Philostratus, Heroikos 43.7-10.**

Philostratus’ Heroikos (second-third century AD)\textsuperscript{56} stages a dialogue that takes place in the Thracian Chersonesus between a local vinedresser and a Phoenician merchant who had to interrupt his navigation because of unfavorable winds. The vinedresser turns out to be a friend of Protesilaos, the first Greek hero to die at Troy.\textsuperscript{57} Together they cultivate the vines and discuss the Homeric poems.

\textsuperscript{53} P.Petr. I 25, l. 4. Incidentally, as it has been noted (Richardson 1984 and Koning 2010: 264 n. 97), this confutes Heldmann’s theory that the scene of Paneides is a late addition to the contest story made precisely in response to Dio’s account (see Heldmann 1982: 45-53).

\textsuperscript{54} Dio could also have attributed the verdict to the king and blame him for an unwise decision; but as the character who is making this comment, Alexander, is himself a king, avoiding mention of another king and blaming the verdict on common people probably allows Dio to keep his arguments on a safer level.

\textsuperscript{55} See Cert. 208.

\textsuperscript{56} The attribution and dating of the Heroikos is debated. The Suda (φ 421-3) mentions three people with the name Philostratus and attributes the Heroikos to Philostratus II, son of Philostratus I the son of Vero, whose death is placed in 244-9 AD. Although inconsistencies between some of the information given in the Suda entries and internal evidence from the works of the Philostrati have raised doubts about the reliability of the Suda entries themselves, the majority of modern scholars seems to accept the attribution of the Heroikos to Philostratus II: for the debate see esp. Solmsen 1940, Anderson 1986: 294-5, de Lannoy 1997: 2391, Berenson Maclean and Bradshaw Aitken 2001: xlii-xlvi.

\textsuperscript{57} See Il. 2.695-710.
At 43.5 the Phoenician claims that knowledge of the Trojan deeds shown in the Homeric epics is ‘more fitting for a god than for a mortal’.\(^{58}\) To prove that Homer was in fact a man, although a divinely inspired one, the vinedresser offers a brief survey of biographical information about Homer, which includes the episode of his contest with Hesiod:

> γέγονε γὰρ, ξένε, γέγονε ποιητής Ὄμηρος καὶ ἦδεν, ὡς μὲν φασιν ἐτεροι μετὰ τέτταρα καὶ εἰκοσιον ἐτη τῶν Τρωικῶν, οἱ δὲ μετὰ ἐπτὰ καὶ εἰκοσι πρός ταῖς ἐκατὸν, ὅτε τὴν ἀποικίαν ἐς Ἰωνίαν ἐστειλαν, οἱ δὲ ἐξήκοντα καὶ ἐκατὸν ἐτη γεγονέναι μετὰ τὴν Τροίαν ἐπὶ Ὄμηρον τε φασι καὶ Ἅσιωθον, ὅτε δὴ ἂσαι ἀμφω ἐν Χαλκίδι, τὸν μὲν τὰ ἐπτὰ ἐπὶ τὰ περὶ τοῖν Αἰαντοῦν καὶ ὡς αἱ φάλαγγες αὐτοῖς ἀφαιριστε τε ἦσαν καὶ καστεραῖ, τὸν δὲ τά πρῶς τὸν ἀδελφὸν τὸν Ἐαυτοῦ Πέρσην, ἐν οἷς αὐτὸν ἔραγον τε ἐκέλευσεν ἀπετεθαι καὶ γεωργία προσκέσθαι, ὡς μὴ δέουσο ἐτέρων μηδε πεινη, καὶ ἀληστερα, ξένε, περὶ τῶν Ὄμηρου χρόνων ταύτα· ἔνυπτητεται γὰρ αὐτοῖς ὁ Πρωτεσίλεως. δύο γονὸ ποιητῶν ὑμνον ποτὲ εἰπον ὑμνον εἰς αὐτὸν ἐνταυθοί καὶ ἀπελθόντων, ἤρτο με ὁ ἠρᾶς ἀφικόμενος ὃτῳ αὐτῶν ψηφιζομήν· ἐμον δὲ τὸν φαυλότερον ἐπαινέσαντος (καὶ γὰρ μᾶλλον ἐτυχε ἡ ἠρῆς) γελάσας ὁ Πρωτεσίλεως „καὶ Πανίδης” εἶπεν, „ἀμπελουργε, ταύτων σοι πεπονθεν· Χαλκίδος ψαρ τῆς ἐπ’ Εὔριστος βασιλεὺς ἃν ἐκείνος Ἡσιόδῳ κατὰ Ὅμηρου ἐψηφίσατο, καὶ ταύτα τὸ γένειον μείζων ἔχων ἢ σύ. (Ed. de Lannoy)

The way Philostratus discusses the life of Homer shows that he was familiar with the Homeric biographical tradition, and it seems that he may have had access to material that was similar to the extant Lives of the poet.\(^{59}\) As it is typical of the Lives, several possible solutions for the date of the poet are listed and attributed generically to ‘some people’; Homer’s date is measured in relation to his chronological proximity to events such as the Trojan war and the Ionian migration, or to poets such as Hesiod.\(^{60}\) In the passage that follows the

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58 ὃθεν τὸ ύπό ἐνων λεγόμενον, ὡς Ἀπόλλων αὐτὰ ποιήσας τὸν Ὄμηρον ἐπέγραψε τῇ ποιησὶ σφόδρα μοι δοκεί ἐφόσον τὸ γὰρ γιγνώσκειν ταύτα θεὸ μᾶλλον ἢ ἄνθρωποι ἔοικεν. All the translations of passages from the Heroikos are by Berenson Maclean and Bradshaw Atkin 2001.

59 Kim 2010: 207 n. 86 too cursorily remarks the similarity between this biographical interlude and some of the extant Lives of Homer.

60 In particular, that Homer was born twenty-four or one hundred and twenty-seven years after
mention of the contest, then, Homer is said to travel to several places, including Ithaca.\(^{61}\) Finally, Homer emerges from the discussion of his birthplace as being ἄπολις, a person claimed by all cities because he belongs to none.\(^{62}\) In the same or similar sources Philostratus must have also found information about the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod, about which he seems to be well informed. As in the Certamen (44-55) the episode of the contest is introduced in connection with the discussion of Homer’s chronology, with explicit reference to the issue of his contemporaneity with Hesiod. The passages the poets recite (although no verse is quoted) are clearly taken from the same sections of the Works and Days and the Iliad as in most versions of the contest story, but the specific selection is peculiar to this account: the description of Hesiod’s performance suggests that the poet is reciting Op. 384-404;\(^{63}\) Homer recites the ‘seven epics’ on the two Ajaxes and their ranks of battle.\(^{64}\)

the Trojan war is known from no other source; his contemporaneity to the Ionian migration is mentioned in Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.3 (= Arist. fr. 76 Rose), Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 2.3 and Procl. Vit. Hom. 7, but in the last two sources (where the information is said to go back to the school of Aristarchus) the Ionian migration is dated one hundred and forty years after the Trojan war, rather than one hundred and twenty-seven as in the Heroikos; that Homer was born one hundred and sixty years after the Trojan war is known also from Suda s.v. Ὅμηρος 4. For more discussion on Homer’s dating in antiquity see also commentary on Cert. 44-55 and cross-references therein, with bibliography.

\(^{61}\) For biographical traditions on Homer and Ithaca, including also attempts to establish genealogical connections between the poet and some Odyssean characters, see commentary on Cert. 23-4n. and 25-6n.

\(^{62}\) For the diffusion of this idea in antiquity see commentary on Cert. 7-8.

\(^{63}\) The expression ὡς μὴ δέουσι ἐπέφυον, μηδὲ πεινῶσι sums up the content of Op. 395-404, where Hesiod explains that agriculture makes a man self-sufficient. This lead West 1967: 442 n. 3 to suggest that in the Certamen too ‘originally the extract may have gone on to v. 404’. But it seems safer to conclude that the length of the selected passages was one of the semi-fixed features of the story that could be purposefully modified, rather than postulating the existence of an ‘original’ extract – impossible to verify – and several ‘variations’ from it.

\(^{64}\) It is not clear what τὰ ἔπτα ἐπὶ precisely refers to. Some manuscripts omit ἔπτα (see de
Philostratus also knew the outcome of the contest, one of the few non-modifiable elements of the tradition. But Protesilaos, the character to whom Philostratus entrusts the report of the competition, has too high an opinion of Homer to accept the verdict without protest. According to the hero, Homer ‘surpassed all the poets he encountered, each in the area of their expertise’, and more pertinently is explicitly said to ‘include all matters pertaining to peace’ and ‘touch on agricultural tasks and the appropriate seasons for performing them’. These are famously and typically Hesiodic areas of expertise, which granted him victory in some versions of the contest story. Philostratus therefore expresses disagreement with the verdict by accusing the judge Panedes of having chosen the simpler of the two poets, a strategy that has often been used to justify Homer’s defeat. Philostratus’ account has many points in common with Dio’s: for instance, both insert the contest between Homer and Hesiod within another contest (a dispute between Alexander and Philip in Dio, one between two poets singing hymns to Protesilaus in Philostratus) and both disagree with the final verdict. But the two different narrative contexts require framing the story differently, and offering different details. Hence, according to Dio Hesiod is awarded the victory by the common people because of the connection between Homer’s poetry and kingship established in that work. That connection is not present in Philostratus, who can thus make use of the figure of the incompetent king Panedes.

Lannoy’s apparatus ad loc.) perhaps because this number creates difficulty: such selection must include at least eight verses to reach a syntactical stop (ll. 13.126-33) as in Cert. 191-8, rather than seven.

65 Her. 25.3: καὶ ὅποσα κατ᾽ εἰρήνην εἰσὶ καὶ χοροῦς καὶ ὠδὰς καὶ ἔρωτας καὶ δαίτας ἔργα τε, ἂν γεωργία ἀπτεται, καὶ ὥρας, αἱ σημαίνουσιν, ὅποσα ἐς τὴν γῆν δεῖ πράττειν.

66 Plutarch too inserts the story of the contest within a different story about a different contest in wisdom (Dinner of the Seven Sages 153f-154a).

Lucian (second century AD) briefly alludes to the story of the contest in his *True Story*. At 2.22 the two poets are said to compete on the occasion of the Θανατούσια, the Games of the Dead on the Island of the Blessed, and Hesiod wins ‘although actually Homer was far the best’. This playful comment is concise, but clearly alludes to a well known story: Lucian shows the most common reaction of readers to the outcome of the contest, a fixed feature of the contest tradition which was rarely accepted without surprise. The allusion to the contest follows one of the most famous and entertaining episodes of the whole *True Story*, the interview with Homer. This passage shows that Lucian knew ancient Homeric scholarship and biography well:

(20) Οὕτω δὲ δύο ἢ τρεῖς ἡμέραι διεληλύθεσαν, καὶ προσελθὼν ἐγὼ Ὅμηρῳ τῷ ποιητῇ, σχολῆς οὐσις ἀμφοῖν, τα τε ἄλλα ἐπιμεληθοῦσιν καὶ θεμέλια καὶ δέουσαν διδασκάλους. Ὕπερ ὑπεύχοντας παρὰ μίν εἰσείτην νῦν ἔστησθαι. ὅ δὲ οὕτως ἀντίς μὲν ἀγνοεῖν ἐφασκεν ὡς οἱ μὲν Χίον, οἱ δὲ Σφαιραίοι, πολλοὶ δὲ Κοσμοφώνιον αὐτὸν νομίζομίναι· εἶναι μέντοι γε ἔλεγεν Βαβυλώνιος, καὶ παρὰ γε τοῖς πολίταις οὐχ Ὅμηρος, ἀλλὰ Τιγράνης καλεῖταί· ὑστεροῦν δὲ ὤμηρεύωσας παρὰ τοῖς Ἐλληνικοῖς ἀλλάξαι τὴν προσηγορίαν. ἔτι δὲ καὶ περὶ τῶν ἀστευμένων στίχων ἑνηθότων, εἰ ϝ’ ἕκειναι εἰσὶν γεγραμμένοι. καὶ ὃς ἐφασκε πάντας αὐτοῦ εἶναι. κατεγίνοσαίναν οὖν τῶν ἀμφί τοῦ Ζηνοδότου καὶ Ἀρίσταρχον γραμματικῶν πολλήν τὴν ψυχρολογίαν. ἐπεὶ δὲ ταῦτα ἰκανώς ἀπεκέκριτο, πάλιν αὐτὸν ἠρώτων τί δὴ ποτέ ἀπὸ τῆς μὴνός την ἀρχήν ἐποιήσατο· καὶ ὃς εἰπεν οὕτως ἐπελθεῖν αὐτὸ μὴν ἐπιτηδεύσαντι. καὶ μήν κάκειν ἑπεθύμουν εἰδέναι, εἰ προτέραν ἐγραψεν τὴν Ὀδύσσεαν τῆς Πλάδος, ὡς οἱ πολλοὶ φασίν· ὁ δὲ ἠρνεῖτο, τό δὲ μὲν γὰρ οὐδὲ τυφλὸς ἦν, ὁ καὶ αὐτὸ περὶ αὐτοῦ λέγουσιν, αὐτίκα ἡπιστήμην· ἔως ἐρας, ἠτέο τούτῳ πυνθανόμενοι ἀποκολοφώνιον οὖς ὁ πολοὶ φασίν· ὁ δὲ ἠρνεῖτο, ὅτι μὲν γὰρ οὐδὲ τυφλὸς ἦν, ὁ καὶ αὐτὸ περὶ αὐτοῦ λέγουσιν, αὐτίκα ἡπιστήμην· ἔως ἐρας, ὠτε οὐδὲ πυνθανόμεται ἐξεύρηκεν [...] (22) Προϊόντος δὲ τοῦ χρόνου ἐνέστη ὁ ἀγὼν ὁ παρ’ αὐτοῖς, τὰ Θανατούσια. ἤγονοςει δὲ Ἀχιλλεὺς τὸ πέμπτον καὶ Ἰπποτέντος τὸ ἐβδομέν, τὰ μὲν οὖν ἀλλὰ μακρὸν ἀν ἐφ’ ἐλέγειν· τὰ δὲ κεφάλαια τῶν προαχθέντων διηγήσουμεν [...] ποιητῶν δὲ τῇ μὲν ἀλῆθεία παρὰ πολὺ ἐκάθετο Ὅμηρος, ἐνίκησεν δὲ ὅμως Ἡσίοδος. τὰ δὲ ἀθλαὶ ἦν ἂπασι στέφανος πλακεῖς ἐκ πετρὸν ταυνεϊῶν. (Ed. Macleod)

The *True Story*, as Lucian himself points out in the prologue, invites readers to take part in a game of allusion. In order for this game to work, Lucian must refer to works or passages that are famous enough to be recognised by his
audience.\textsuperscript{67} The fact that he mentions Homer’s superiority over Hesiod and his unexpected defeat means that these features were common enough in the contest tradition to be recognised by Lucian’s audience. By choosing this as the object of one of his parodic allusions, Lucian is making fun of all the scholarly efforts that had been made to cope with it, just as in ch. 20 he ridicules the debates over other famous controversies of Homeric scholarship.\textsuperscript{68}

Before referring to the contest, Lucian fills the episode of the interview with Homer with learned allusions to many other details of the ancient Homeric biographical tradition.\textsuperscript{69} First, Lucian refers to the dispute about Homer’s birthplace by mentioning the three contenders generally recognised in antiquity as having the strongest and most ancient claims on Homer’s origins: Smyrne, Chios and Colophon.\textsuperscript{70} Homer’s own surprising assertion of his Babylonian origins, then, works well as a parody of the many outlandish solutions that had been proposed in antiquity to the famous question concerning his birthplace.\textsuperscript{71} But Lucian, as well as making a preposterous

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\textsuperscript{67} See e.g. \textit{VH} 1.2: […] καὶ τῶν ἱστοριουμένων ἔκαστον οὐκ ἀκαμβριτῶς ἤγικται πρὸς τινὰς τῶν παλαιῶν ποιητῶν τε καὶ συγγραφέων καὶ φιλοσόφων πολλὰ τεράστια καὶ μυθώδη συγγραφότων οὖς καὶ ὄνομαστὶ ἀν ἐγραφὼν, εἰ μὴ καὶ αὐτῷ σοὶ ἐκ τῆς ἀναγνώσεως φανεῖσθαι ἕμελλον. Studies on this allusive method and the proem of \textit{True Story} are Hall 1981: 339-54, Georgiadou and Larmour 1998: 22-4 and 51-9, Moellendorff 2000.

\textsuperscript{68} Georgiadou and Larmour 1998: 205 suggest that Homer in \textit{VH} does not win the contest because this would not be consistent with all the criticism and parodies Lucian has made of him. But this seems secondary: first and most importantly, Lucian is making a playful allusion to a well known tradition.

\textsuperscript{69} Full studies of this episode are Jones 1986: 54-5, Georgiadou and Larmour 1998: 200-3, Moellendorff 2000: 367-73, Nesselrath 2002, Ni Mheallaigh 2009, Kim 2010: 162-8. Together with the allusions to Homeric biographical traditions that will be discussed below, Lucian in this passage refers also to ancient textual exegesis: chronological priority of the \textit{Iliad} over the \textit{Odyssey}, the athetised verses, the first word of the \textit{Iliad}. On these, see quoted bibliography.

\textsuperscript{70} See \textit{Cert.} 8-17n.

\textsuperscript{71} See for example Suda s.v. Ὀμηρος 2 for a list of no fewer than twenty cities that had claims on
suggestion, is also alluding to the doctrines of a specific Homeric school: we know from some ancient scholia on *Il.* 23.79 that scholars of the school of Pergamum such as Crates and Zenodotus of Mallos argued that Homer was a Chaldaean.\(^72\) Homer’s claim also allows for a series of interrelated allusions to other biographical anecdotes. Lucian says that the Babylonian Homer was originally called Tigranes, a name that evokes the river Tigris in Babylonia: according to many biographical accounts Homer was originally called Melesigenes, a name associated with the river Meles which runs through one of the alleged Homeric hometowns, Smyrne.\(^73\) Homer is then said to have changed his name after being taken hostage, and this too echoes a well attested biographical anecdote.\(^74\) Tigranes, moreover, is the name of a number of historical kings who were likewise taken hostage, and this creates the possibility for further levels of allusion.\(^75\) Finally, the feature of Homer’s *persona* the poet, many of which were outside the Greek world. See also Heath 1998.

\(^72\) See e.g. Bompaire 1998: 110 n. 76, Georgiadou and Larmour 1998: 201, Broggiato 2001: 181 n. 161. The parody of the school of Pergamum is balanced later on by the mention of the other main centre of Homeric studies, the Alexandrian school, of which ‘the grammarians Zenodotus and Aristarchus’ were the most famous exponents. For further discussion of Homer’s Babylonian origins see also Matteuzzi 2000-2002 who suggests that Lucian, Syrian by origins, by making Homer a Babylonian wanted to make him his ‘fellow-citizen’ and his *alter ego* as an Eastern Greek; see also Zeitlin 2001: 246 and n. 76, Nesselrath 2002: 155, Kim 2010: 165-6.

\(^73\) For the Smyrnean tradition and its features see *Cert.* 8-12n. and cross-references therein. That the name Tigranes is a parody of Melesigenes has been suggested only by Moellendorf 2000: 368-9. But it is only to be expected that Lucian, when making up an alleged original name for Homer, plays with the existing traditions on the topic. That Lucian was aware of such traditions, and more specifically of the name Melesigenes, is proved by another passage coming from his *Dem. Enc.* (par. 9): …πατέρα δὲ Μαίονα τὸν Λυδὸν ἢ ποταμόν, ὅπου γε καὶ τούνομα πρὸ τοῦ γνωρίμου τὸ Μελησιγενῆ προκρίνουσιν…

\(^74\) See commentary on *Cert.* 29-32.

\(^75\) As Allen 2006: 151-4 points out, the name Tigranes, combined with hostageship, became an opportunity for sarcasm for Lucian, who is probably casting doubt on the validity of the Roman custom to influence the attitude of foreigner adolescents towards Rome by taking them as
that is perhaps best known is his blindness: Lucian reverses this too by claiming that it was absolutely clear that Homer could see very well.\textsuperscript{76}

The question here – with both the allusions to the names and places of origins of Homer, and the brief reference to his defeat in a competition against Hesiod – is whether Lucian is alluding to specific texts or to well known stories. This is, given the level of our own knowledge, a difficult question to answer, but there seems to be discernable evidence to suggest specific textual allusions, as opposed to more general references to well known debates and anecdotes.

**Themistius, Oration 30.348c-349a.**

Themistius (fourth century AD) refers to the story of the poetic contest between Homer and Hesiod at the beginning of his *Oration 30*, known by the title θέσις εἰ γεωργητέον (Should one engage in farming?). This work belongs to the group of Themistius’ so-called private orations, a miscellaneous group of rhetorical pieces.\textsuperscript{77} It is a brief but enthusiastic piece in praise of agriculture as the fundamental activity for human beings, from which all good things come.\textsuperscript{78}

Because of the topic and rhetorical aim of this *Oration*, Themistius can

\textsuperscript{76} On Homer’s blindness see Cert. 11-12n.

\textsuperscript{77} The modern numbering of Themistius’ orations and the division of the corpus in two parts (private and public speeches) have no manuscript support. They were first proposed in Harduinus’ edition of Themistius in 1684. See Penella 2000: 6-9 for detailed history and discussion of the modern classification of the speeches in the different editions.

\textsuperscript{78} Many reasons have been proposed for Themistius’ passionate encomium of the agricultural activities: it may have autobiographical significance; it may have sociopolitical purposes such as encouraging agricultural productivity; or may be related to a specific historical event such as Theodosius’ Visigothic treaty of 382 that secured peace for the farmers of the Balkans. Discussion in Maisano 1995: 935 and Penella 2000: 33-4.
conveniently include the story of the triumph of Hesiod, the poet of agriculture, over Homer. Hesiod’s victory is here a matter of celebration rather than controversy or disappointment. That such an episode was considered very useful in narrative terms by Themistius is indicated by the fact that he puts it right at the beginning of the work, after a few introductory words that underline how for Hesiod, just as much as for Themistius himself, agriculture and virtue are ‘one and the same thing’.  

79 ἔδει δὲ ἡδή καὶ ἡμᾶς Ἡσιόδῳ καὶ Μοῦσαις ἀκολουθοῦντας ἐπιδείξαι διὰ πλειόνων ὡς ἄρα οὐ μάτην Ἡσιόδος σοφός ενομίσθη, ἀλλ’ εἰς τοσοῦτον εὐκλείας διὰ (d.) τούς εἰς γεωργίαν λόγους προῆλθεν, ὡστε καὶ Ὄμηρος περὶ σοφίας καὶ μουσικῆς ἐν ταφαὶς Ἀμφιδάμαντος εἰς ἀγώνα ἐδώθην παρὰ τῶν κριτῶν τὸν στέφανον καὶ τὴν νίκην ἔχειν. ὦ μὲν γὰρ πολέμους καὶ μάχας καὶ τὸν συνασπισμὸν τοῖς Αἰαντοῦ καὶ ἄλλα τοιαῦτα προσῆδεν, ὦ δὲ γῆς τε ὑμνησθέν ἔργα καὶ ἡμέρας, ἐν αἷς τὰ ἔργα βελτίω γίνεται· 349. (a.) καὶ διὰ ταῦτα πάσι τοῖς κριταῖς κρατεῖ. (Ed. Downey – Norman – Schenkl)

Themistius underlines the ethical value of agriculture from the very first sentences of the work: agriculture is virtue, and one should learn one from the other. The setting of the victory of the wise Hesiod is presented accordingly as a contest ‘in wisdom and song’ (περὶ σοφίας καὶ μουσικῆς). Of all the several types of challenges that Homer and Hesiod are traditionally said to engage in, then, Themistius chooses the one that best emphasises the traditional image of Hesiod as the poet of agriculture as opposed to that of Homer as the poet of war: the recitation of the two selected passages from the poets’ works. As in most versions of the contest that include this scene, Homer performs the scene of ‘the two Ajaxes fighting each other’. 80 Hesiod is said to sing, more generically, of ‘the earth’s works and days’ (ὁ δὲ γῆς τε ὑμνησθέν ἔργα καὶ ἡμέρας), apparently without referring to any specific passage of the Works and Days but

79 348c: καὶ τοὺς περὶ γεωργίας λόγους τοῖς περὶ ἄρετής καταμίξας, ὡς ταῦτον ὅν, γεωργίαν καὶ ἄρετήν δὲ ἀλλήλων καὶ ἄμα μαθόντας εἰδέναι.

80 Il. 13.126 ff. Whether or not Themistius knew anything about the length of the passage recited is not clear from what he says here.
to the work as a whole. The following words, ‘the days in the course of which earth’s works are augmented’ (ἐν αἷς τὰ ἔργα βελτίω γίνεται), underline the positive and constructive effects of Hesiod’s poetry on human life (a view that is echoed in the Oration as a whole), as opposed to the destructive ones of ‘war and battles’ (πολέμους καὶ μάχας), the topic of Homer’s song.

Because of the importance that is given in this work to agriculture and to Hesiod as its poet par excellence, Themistius cannot but express agreement with the outcome of the competition that favoured Hesiod. To stress the success of Hesiod’s performance as much as possible, Themistius claims that the poet ‘won the support of all the judges’ (πᾶσι τοῖς κριταῖς κρατεῖ): unlike other versions of the story in which Hesiod’s victory was not viewed in a positive light, there is no need of singling out the figure of a single judge on whom to blame a questionable verdict, or of a group of people who do not have the necessary expertise to judge such competition. On the contrary, because of the impact of his songs on human life, Hesiod wins unanimously and deservedly.

There is another passage from Themistius’ works that describes the same sharp opposition between Homer and Hesiod on the basis of the subject matter of their poems: Or. 15.184c-d. Interestingly, although in that passage that opposition is not dramatised in biographical terms (that is, there is no explicit reference to the poetic contest between Homer and Hesiod), Themistius seems to be using the same elements as the contest story. Specifically, the description of the poets’ works echoes the two passages which they traditionally perform when competing against each other:

Ἑσιόδῳ δὲ τῷ Ἀσκαρίῳ δῶρατα μὲν φρέπτοντα καὶ ἀσπίδας συνερειδούσας καὶ ὀλλύντας τε καὶ ὀλλυμένους καὶ αἰματί ὑλυμένην τὴν (d.) γῆν οὐκ

81 See e.g. the idea that thanks to agriculture men ‘have been relieved of preoccupation with their need for food’ and ‘look up to heaven and honor the gods and live by a system of justice and law’ (350a: τῆς περὶ τροφῆς ἀνάγκης ἀπαλλαγέντες πρὸς θεοῖς τε ἐνέβλεις καὶ δίκη καὶ νόμοις ἱσχύσαντο).
What Hesiod is said not to sing (and which is rather attributed to Homer, mentioned in the previous lines) paraphrases Il. 13.130-1 (Cert. 195-6):

φράξαντες δόρυ δουρί, σάκος σάκεϊ προθελύμνῳ·
ἀσπίς ἀρ’ ἀσπιδ’ ἔρειδε, κόρυς κόρυν, ἀνέρα δ’ ἀνήρ.

The expression δόρατα μὲν φρίττοντα used by Themistius recalls the Homeric φράξαντες δόρυ δουρί. ἀσπίδας συνερειδοῦσας reads as a prose version of ἀσπίς ἀρ’ ἀσπιδ’ ἔρειδε, and ὀλλύντας τε καὶ ὀλλυμένους has the same meaning as ἔρειδε ... ἀνέρα δ’ ἀνήρ. Here, then, we certainly have a specific verbal correspondence between the story of the contest, and the Homeric passage quoted in it, and its rhetorical reworking in Themistius. When Themistius then lists the topics that interested Hesiod, the references to his finest passage (Op. 383-92) seem less pointed but two main features of his poetry are emphasised in both texts: Hesiod teaches all the main agricultural activities and the right moment for each of them. This passage does not mention the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod explicitly, but the fact that the author does use features of it when drawing an opposition between Homer and Hesiod testifies to the great resonance that this story had in antiquity.

Libanius, Defence of Socrates 65-66.

One of Libanius’ works (fourth century AD), the Defence of Socrates, contains a reference to the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod. This Defence is the longest and most elaborate of the two extant Socratic pieces by Libanius: in this work, an anonymous advocate defends Socrates from the two traditional charges brought against him, corruption of the young and impiety. Part of the

82 The second Socratic work is a shorter declamation in which Socrates’ accusers propose that,
accusation is based on the fact that Socrates criticised poets such as Hesiod, Theognis, Homer and Pindar, who have always ‘enjoyed honour and glory everywhere and especially in Athens’. In order to show that ‘we are perfectly free’ to do so, Libanius introduces the poetic competition of Homer and Hesiod as an example.83

(65) ἠγωνίσατο ποτε Ὄμηρος Ἡσίοδος καὶ τούτῳ αὐτὸς Ἡσίοδος ἐν ἐπιγραμματί διδάσκει ψιλοτιμούμενος καὶ λέγων νενικηκέναι τὸν Ὅμηρον. οὔκοιν εἰ μὲν ἀπάσαις Ἡσίοδος ἐνίκα, πάντες δὴ ὁρεῖν ἠγούντο τὸν Ὅμηρον· εἰ δὲ οἱ μὲν τούτοι ἠγοῦντο βελτίω, παρὰ δὲ τοίς πλείουσιν εὔδοκιμεί τά τοῦ Ἡσίοδου, τῶν οὐκ ἐπαινοῦντας ἑκάτερος ἐτετυχίηκει καὶ δήλον ὡς τοῦ συλλόγου διαλυθέντος οἱ μὲν τούτῳ θέμενοι τὸν Ἡσίοδον ἐκάκισαν, οἱ δὲ ἐκεῖνοι τούτοι. αὐτοῖς γὰρ οὔτω γε ἐβοήθουν οἱ δὲ ἐκεῖνοι τούτοι. αὐτοῖς γὰρ οὔτω γε ἐβοήθουν ἄν. (66) εἴπεν οὖν τις τῶν τάς ἱστορίας συντεθεικότων, ὅτι δίκην τις ἐδωκεν ἐν Χαλκίδι διὰ τὸν Ἡσίοδον ψόγον ἢ τὸν Ὅμηρον; οὐδεὶς. πῶς οὖν οὐ δεινόν τοῖς μὲν πάλαι τῶν ποιητῶν αὐτῶν λεγόντων ἀκικοόσιν ἔξειναι τι καὶ ἐπιτιμήσαται, τῶν δὲ ὑστερον τούς οὐ χρηστόν <τι> παρ’ ἐκείνοις ὁρῶντας ἢ σιγάν ή ἀπολωλέναι; (Ed. Foerster)

This exemplum contributes to the development of Libanius’ argument that criticising poets is not, and never has been, against the law: indeed no historian has ever written of any punishments inflicted on those members of the audience who, during the competition in Chalcis, found fault with either poet’s performance.

In this account, an epigram in which Hesiod proclaims his victory against Homer is mentioned as the source for the story of the contest: this is obviously (although the text is not quoted) the epigram allegedly inscribed on the tripod that Hesiod won at the contest and dedicated to the Muses.84 The epigram gives only very basic information about the contest: the name of the two participants, the location and the winner. Accordingly, Libanius’ account does not give any further details to the narrative, and different reactions of the

while in prison, he should be forbidden to speak as an additional punishment. Translation in Russel 1996: 58-66.

83 Cf. parr. 62-3. Translations are from Russell 1996.

84 On the tripod and the epigram see Introduction on Hesiod esp. pp. 12-14.
public to the performances and to the outcome are only listed as possibilities.

It could be argued that this was because Libanius knew the story exclusively from the epigram, and was unaware of the tradition that developed around it. For we know that the epigram also had independent circulation, and was transmitted in school books.\(^85\) It may be in a similar context that Libanius learned of the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod. However, Libanius’ decision to mention the epigram as a source for the story may also reflect the fact that he found in this text and in its scarcity of detail a particularly suitable rhetorical ally: it helps him to build up his argument in the way that best suits him.

At the beginning of the passage he presents the different ways in which Hesiod could have been proclaimed the winner. Hesiod was supported either by everyone, or by the majority of the people. The first option, however, implies that everyone thought that Homer talked nonsense. Therefore, some must have favoured Hesiod and some Homer, and conversely ‘both poets found some who did not praise them’. Consequently, criticising the poets must be an ancient habit and must have happened on that occasion already. Since there is no evidence that this was considered a crime at that time, there is no reason why it should be so for Socrates. As the example goes, this is the only acceptable conclusion, and it is reached through a purposeful selection of the material circulating about the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod.

Proclus, *Life of Homer 6.*

The story of the contest also features in some biographical sources, including a *Life of Homer* by Proclus (fifth century AD), which was part of the first book of his *Chrestomathy*.\(^86\) Proclus’ version of the life of Homer, based on ‘extensive

\(^85\) See *AP* 7.53 and P.Freib. 1.1b (on which see pp. 83-6).

\(^86\) The *Chrestomathy* is now lost, but its contents can be in part reconstructed thanks to Photius’ summary (*Bibliotheca* cod. 239) and to a few manuscripts transmitting the *Life of Homer* and a summary of the Epic Cycle. Photius informs us that the *Chrestomathy* also included a *Life of
research’ that he carried out for his pupils,\textsuperscript{87} is particularly encomiastic and often refutes some of the most well known features of the Homeric biographical tradition. The poet, for example, was not blind, nor poor, nor did he write anything that could be considered inferior to the \textit{Iliad} and the \textit{Odyssey}.\textsuperscript{88} Similarly, Proclus maintains that Homer was never defeated by Hesiod in a poetic contest:

\begin{quote}
\textbf{εἰοὶ δὲ οἵτινες ἄνεψιόν αὐτὸν Ἡσίόδος παρέδοσαν ἀτριβεῖς ὅντες ποιήσεως· τοσοῦτον γὰρ ἀπέχουσι τοῦ γένει προσηκεῖν ὅσον ἡ ποιήσις διέστηκεν αὐτῶν. ἄλλως δὲ οὐδὲ τοῖς χρόνοις συνεπέβαλον ἀλλήλοις. ἀθλιοὶ δὲ οἳ τὸ αὐτίγιμα πλάσαντες τοῦτο· Ἡσίοδος Μούσας Ἐλικωνίσι τόνδ’ ἀνέθηκεν, ὑμνώ νικήσας ἐν Χαλκίδι δίον Ὄμηρον. ἄλλα γὰρ ἐπιλανθήσαν ἐκ τῶν Ἡσιοδείων Ἡμερῶν. ἔτερον γὰρ τι σημαίνει. (Ed. West)
\end{quote}

Homer’s defeat does not fit the image of the great poet that Proclus is offering in his biography and, consequently, he needs to find a way to deny it. To do so, he discards the very possibility that the two poets met each other, on the grounds that they were not contemporaries. This is an interesting detail, because it helps us to set out the controversy concerning the authorship and date of the \textit{Chrestomathy}.

The ancient sources unanimously attribute this work to Proclus Diadochus, the Neoplatonic philosopher who lived in the fifth century AD.\textsuperscript{89}

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\textsuperscript{87} Par. 5: \textit{ἀλλὰ δὴ} ταῦτα μὲν πολλῆς ἔχεται ζητήσεως, ἵνα δὲ μὴ δοκῇ τοῦτον ἀπεφήγαντο αὐτοὶ μοι δοκούσι τὴν διάνοιαν πεποιησθαι τοσαῦτα γὰρ κατείδην ἀνθρώπος ὅσα οὐδὲς πώποτε.

\textsuperscript{88} For Proclus on Homer’s blindness see par. 6: τυφλὸν δὲ όσοι τοῦτον ἀπεφήγαντο αὐτοὶ μοι δοκούσι τὴν διάνοιαν πεποιησθαι τοσαῦτα γὰρ κατείδην ἀνθρώπος ὅσα οὐδὲς πώποτε. On his poverty, par. 8: τοῦτω δὲ προσυπονοητέον καὶ πλοῦτον πολλὴν περιουσίαν γενέσθαι αἱ γὰρ μακρὰ ἀποδημαί πολλὰν δέονται ἀναλομάτων. On the attribution of works, par. 9: γέγαρθε δὲ ποιήσεις δύο, Ἰλιάδα καὶ Οδύσσειαν.

\textsuperscript{89} Suda s.v. Πρόκλος ὁ Ἄλκιος attributes to him the \textit{Chrestomathy} and commentaries on Hesiod’s
But some modern scholars have attributed it to Eutychius Proclus, a grammarian of the second century AD.\textsuperscript{90} Scholars who study the attribution of the \textit{Chrestomathy} often overlook the \textit{Life of Homer}, but its treatment of the contest story is virtually identical to that found in another work which is certainly by Proclus Diadochus: his \textit{Commentary on Works and Days}.\textsuperscript{91} The passage at issue is the scholium on \textit{Op.} 650-62, in which Proclus reports Plutarch’s denial of the story and his athetesis of the Hesiodic passage (quoted in the section on Plutarch’s passages on the contest). In the scholium the discussion of the contest is linked to the analysis of the related Hesiodic passage; in the \textit{Chrestomathy} too Proclus is aware that the contest tradition arouse from that passage – and more specifically, so he claims, from a misinterpretation of it (ἀλλὰ γὰρ ἐπλανήθησαν ἐκ τῶν Ἡσιοδείων Ἡμερῶν ἑτέρον γὰρ τι σημαίνει). The contest between Homer and Hesiod, then, is denied in both texts. It seems therefore that Proclus, while writing his commentary on \textit{Works and Days}, made extensive use of the commentary by his predecessor, Plutarch; from Plutarch’s

\textit{Works and Days}; the manuscript \textit{Ottobonianus gr. 58} (fifteenth c. AD) introduces Proclus’ \textit{Life of Homer} with the words Πρόκλου Πλατωνικοῦ διαδόχου περὶ Ομήρου; a scholium to Gregorius Nazianzenus’ \textit{Or.} 43 attributes a treatise on the Epic Cycle to Proclus Πλατωνικός.

\textsuperscript{90} On Eutychius Proclus see \textit{Historia Augusta}, Iul. Capit. \textit{Vit. Ant.} 2 and Pollio Aemil. \textit{Tyr.} 22, 13 (he was a Latin grammarian; he was advanced to a proconsulship; he was the most learned man of his time; and the author of a work about foreign countries). Welcker 1835: 3-7 was one of the first scholars to question the traditional attribution. Hillgruber 1990 proposed that the Pseudo-Plutarchean treatise \textit{De Homero} derives from the \textit{Chrestomathy} and dated both works to the second century AD. Kuisma 1996: 57 then denied the presence of explicit Neoplatonic features in the \textit{Chrestomathy}. In defence of the traditional attribution, Ferrante 1957: 10-13 underlined that the wide range of Proclus Diadochos’ cultural interests included also the study of literature. Ferrante also rightly pointed out that, according to the \textit{Historia Augusta}, Eutychius Proclus was not a Greek but a Latin grammarian. More recently, Longo 1995 convincingly questioned Hillgruber’s theory about the derivation of the Ps.-Plu. \textit{De Homero} from the \textit{Chrestomathy}.

\textsuperscript{91} For the attribution of the \textit{Commentary} to Proclus Diadochus see Salemi 1951, Ferrante 1957: 11, Pertusi 1955, Marzillo 2010.
work he learned that the contest never happened, and exported this idea to another work, his *Chrestomathy*. There is, however, a difference between Plutarch and Proclus: Plutarchathetises the Hesiodic passage; Proclus, as the *Life* shows, suggests that it needs to be reinterpreted. Unfortunately, the scholium breaks off before giving Proclus’ interpretation as opposed to Plutarch’s. Lamberton identifies another point of strong agreement between this *Life* and Proclus Diadochus’ *Commentary on Plato’s Republic*. In his commentary (1.174.4-5), Proclus claims that the blindness of Homer was a metaphor for his inner vision. In the *Life* (par. 6 quoted above), Proclus says that Homer was not blind, but able to see more clearly than any man ever could; those who invented this story were in fact mentally blind. In both passages, the ability to see to which Proclus refers is not simply physical one. Furthermore, Homer in the *Life* is said to be κοσμοπολίτης, a citizen of the world. This word is remarkably rare in extant Greek texts, but belongs to philosophical discourse. This again supports the attribution of the *Chrestomathy* to Proclus Diadochus.

**John Tzetzes.**

John Tzetzes (twelfth century AD) makes extensive use of the story of the poetic competition between Homer and Hesiod in his works. He mentions it several times in his *Commentary* on Hesiod’s *Works and Days* (268ter, 274bis, 280bis, 652); in his *Life of Hesiod, prolegomenon* to his *Commentary* (123-42 Colonna); and in the *Allegories of the Iliad* (89-92 Boissonade). Tzetzes denies that the contest ever took place, on the grounds that the two poets were not contemporaries. As a commentator on Hesiod’s *Works and Days*, when developing his approach to

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92 The ‘extensive research’ that Proclus claims to have made may have also included a study of Plutarchean commentary. A later commentator on *Works and Days*, John Tzetzes, will in turn take this idea from the exegetic tradition built up by Plutarch and Proclus and support it in his own commentary and in other works. See the section on Tzetzes below.


94 e.g. D. L. 6.63.3.
this episode, he was certainly influenced by, and building on, the earlier exegetical tradition, that is Plutarch’s and Proclus’ commentaries, where the contest tradition was already denied. Tzetzes’ comment on Op. 652 is particularly informative in this respect:

(652.) ΑΜΦΙΔΑΜΑΝΤΟΣ. Όὕτως ο Αμφιδάμας Εὐβοίας ὄν βασιλεὺς πρὸς Ἐρετρίας ναυμαχῶν ἀνηρέθη καὶ οἱ παιδεῖς αὐτοῦ ἐπ’ αὐτῷ προεκήρουσαν ἀγώνας παντοίως, καὶ ἄθλα, ὅπερ τὸ ΠΡΟΠΕΦΡΑΔΜΕΝΑ δῆλοι, ἤγουν προκεκηρυγµένα. Οὐ νικήσας Ἅσιόδος, ὡς ληροῦ, τὸν ἡμίθεον Ὄµηρον, τρίτοδα ἐλαβε, καὶ ταῖς Ἑλικωνίτισι Μοῦσαις ἀνέθετο, ὅπου πρῶτος ἐπαιδεύετο· Ἦ καὶ κόπῳ καὶ μόχθῳ ἀνυπερβλήτῳ χρησάμενος ἐμεμαθηκει, ἄπερ μεμάθηκεν. Ὅτι δὲ ὡστερος ἦν Ἅσιόδος τοῦ παλαιοῦ Ὅµηρου, καὶ πρότερον εἰρήκειν, καὶ οὐ εἰκόνιος Ὁρόδοτος, ὥς ἐν πολλοῖς ἐμοὶ ἐλεγχθεῖς ὡς ψευδηγοῖς, ὀμοχρόνους τούτους φησί. Καὶ εἰ ὀμόχρονος ἦν Ἅσιόδος, ὁ θείος εἰκείνος ἀνήρ ἐπίτηθη ἄν εὐ οἶδα, καὶ οὐκ ἐνδοιάζον νημί. Αἰεὶ γὰρ κατὰ τούτον τὰ χειρεύονα νικᾶ. (Ed. Gaisford)

Tzetzes’ text explicitly draws from Plutarch’s/Proclus’ scholium on Op. 650-62. Besides the already mentioned agreement on the denial of the story, both passages give the same biographical information on Amphidamas, king of Euboea, who died in a naval battle against the Eretrians, and explain that his sons organized funeral games for him. Moreover, Hesiod’s victory is mentioned and denied in the two scholia with the very same words: Plutarch, according to Proclus, says that all this information about the contest is ληρώδη, ‘silly stuff’; Tzetzes claims that those who created this story ληροῦσι, ‘talked nonsense’.

That Tzetzes used the earlier exegetical material is also confirmed by a comparison with other extant scholia.95 A scholium to Op. 653 runs: ΤΑ ΔΕ ΠΡΟΠΕΦΡΑΔΜΕΝΑ. Τὰ ἄθλα, τῶν ἀγωνιζομένων δηλοντὶ, προκεκηρυγµένα ἦσαν. Tzetzes seems to insert this comment into his own

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95 The scholia mentioned here are fragments from ancient commentaries transmitted by the manuscripts together with fragments from Plutarch and Proclus in the scholia vetera: see Pertusi 1951 and 1955 and Marzillo 2010. It means that probably Tzetzes read Proclus’ commentary in a form similar to that we know: marginal comments transmitted with the text of Hesiod drawn from different commentaries.
work by saying: ὅπερ τὸ ΠΡΟΠΕΦΡΑΔΜΕΝΑ δηλοὶ, ἦγουν προκεκηρυγμένα. In addition, on vv. 656 and 657 we read: (656.) ΤΟΝ Τριπόδα ἐγὼ φησίν ἀνέθηκα εἰς τὸν τόπον, ὅπου ἐποίησάν με ἐκ ποιμένος ἁυίδον αἱ Μοῦσαι. (657.) ΕΝΘΑ ΜΕ ΤΟ ΠΡΩΤΟΝ. Ἡ ἐν Χαλκίδι, ἢ ἐν ἄλλῳ τόπῳ, ὅπου πρῶτον ὑπήγγησαν αὐτῷ αἱ Μοῦσαι. In claiming ἀνέθετο, ὅπου πρῶτος ... ἐπαιδεύετο, Tzetzes seems to have borrowed from these scholia the notion that the tripod was dedicated in the place where Hesiod was first educated as a poet by the Muses.

Tzetzes’ original contribution, then, enables us to understand the reasons of his agreement with the previous commentators on the denial of the story: Homer’s poetry is better than Hesiod’s. He adds a witty reflection based on II. 1.576: he claims that, had the contest ever taken place, Hesiod would have certainly defeated Homer, since Homer himself claimed that ‘the worst wins’.

Other mentions of the contest in Tzetzes’ commentary are always linked to his criticism of Hesiod’s poetry, which often related, in turn, to Proclus’ criticism.96 The instance that deserves a closer look is found in the so-called Vita Hesiodi, included in the Prolegomena to this work. There are several problems related to the history of the transmission of this text, and there is a serious lack of scholarly attention to this work. All we can understand from the existing studies is that it was transmitted in forms with differing length and that the attribution is disputed, in the manuscripts, between Proclus and Tzetzes.97

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96 The most passionate comment on Homer’s defeat by Tzetzes is on Op. 280bis: Ὡ τῆς ἀβελετείας! ὦ τῆς ἀνοίας! ὦ τῆς ἀπαιδευσίας! ὦ λόγου ἀρετή καὶ παιδεία, οὐχὶ δακρύετε; καὶ σὺ δὲ ήλε στύγνασον τοὺς τοίνυν ληρήμασι, καὶ τὴ ἀβλεψία τῆς τῶν ἀνθρώπων.

97 Gaisford 1823 included the same Vita Hesiodi in both Proclus’ and Tzetzes’ Prolegomena, without giving details on the manuscript situation. Wilamowitz 1916: 47 on this matter claims that the manuscripts provide two recensions of the text (‘duas codices praebent recensiones’); Pertusi 1951 considered the attribution to Proclus in some manuscripts as arbitrary and reached the conclusion that Tzetzes was the original author of this text, which was later shortened, inserted in the manuscripts of the scholia and wrongly attributed to Proclus. Following Pertusi’s
However, some considerations on this text and its relationships to other accounts of the episode (esp. Proclus and *Certamen*) can be made. This is the section of the text concerning the contest (123-42 Colonna):

οἱ δὲ συγχρόνους αὐτούς εἶναι λέγοντες ἐπὶ τῇ τελευτῇ Ἀμφιδάμαντος τοῦ βασιλέως Εὐβοίας φασίν αὐτοὺς ἀγωνίσασθαι, καὶ νεινηκέναι Ὅσιόδουν, ἀγωνοθετοῦντος καὶ κρίνοντος τὰ μέτρα Πανείδου τοῦ βασιλέως τοῦ ἀδελφοῦ Ἀμφιδάμαντος, καὶ τῶν υἱῶν Ἀμφιδάμαντος Γανύκτορός τε καὶ τῶν λοιπῶν. ἔξηρωσικέναι γὰρ αὐτοὺς πολλὰ πρὸς ἀλλήλους φασὶ δὶ’ ἐπών αὐτοσχεδίων καὶ ἀποκρίνασθαι, καὶ πᾶσι τὸν Ὅσιόρον τὰ πρωτεία λαμβάνειν. τέλος τοῦ βασιλέως Πανείδου εἰπόντος αὐτοῖς τὰ κάλλιστα τῶν ἐαυτῶν ἐπῶν ἀναλεξαμένους εἰπτεὶν, Ὅσιόρος μὲν ἀρχεται λέγειν τούτο τὸ χορίον ἀπὸ πολλῶν ἐπῶν αρξάμενος ὑποσθεῖν· ἀστικὸς ἀρ’ ἀστικὴ ἕρειδε, κόρυς κόρυν, ἀνέρα δ’ ἀνήρ, ψαύνων δ’ ἵπποκομίσιοι κόρυθες λαμπροὶσι χάλοισι νευόντων—ὡς πυκνοὶ ἐφέστασαν ἀλλήλουσι, καὶ περακτέρω τούτων. Ἡσιόδος δὲ τοῦ·

Πλημάδων Ἀτλαγενέων ἐπιτελλομενῶν ἀπάρχεται καὶ ὀμίλως Ὅσιόρῳ προβαίνει μέχρι πολλοῦ τῶν ἐπῶν. καὶ πάλιν ἐπὶ τούτοις οἱ παρεσταῦσε πάντες τῶν ἐλλογίμων καὶ στρατιωτῶν τὸν Ὅσιόρον ἐστεφάνουν, ὦ δὲ Πανείδης ἐκρίνει νικάν τὸν Ὅσιόδουν, ὡς εἰρήνην καὶ γεωργίαν διδάσκομαι, καὶ οὐ καθάπερ ὦ Ὅσιόρος πολέμους καὶ σφάγια. ἀλλὰ ταῦτα μὲν ληθήματα τῶν νεωτέρων εἰοὶ καὶ πλάσεις τῶν πρὸς ἀλλήλους ἑωτημάτων καὶ τῶν εἰς Ὅσιόρου παρεκβλημένων ἐπῶν καὶ ἕπ’ ἐκείνου δηθεὶν ὁρθέντων. Ὅσιόρος γὰρ ὦ χρυσός, ὡς ἐγώμαι, μᾶλλον δ’ ἀκριβεστάτας ἑπιστάμαι, πολὺ τε παλαιότερος Ἡσιόδου ύπήρχε.

To start with, the version of the episode presented here is virtually identical to that in the *Certamen*. The story is introduced during the discussion of the chronology of the two poets; both King Panedes and the sons of Amphidamas are mentioned as the organisers of the contest; the contest itself is developed through an exchange of improvised challenges leading up to the performance of each poet’s finest passages; Homer is ahead of the game but Panedes crowns Hesiod. Furthermore, there are similarities between Proclus,...
Tzetzes and the *Certamen* in the account of other biographical episodes too: Homer’s meeting with Creophylus and Homer’s death after slipping on some mud and falling on a stone.

As for the issue of the attribution of the *Life of Hesiod*, given the many points in common between Proclus’ and Tzetzes’ biographical narratives, and Tzetzes’ extensive use of Proclus’ exegetical work, it seems plausible that the confusion in the manuscripts may have arisen from the fact that two similar *Lives of Hesiod* existed, one by Proclus contained in the *Chrestomathy* (as testified by Photius) and one – which comprehensively draws on the Proclean one – by Tzetzes. The lost *Life of Hesiod* written by Proclus, therefore, must have been similar in contents to the extant one circulating under Tzetzes’ name. Another consideration that can be made is that the *Certamen* appears to have many points of contact with the ancient and late antique exegetical material, and may have circulated in the same environments.

Like Proclus and Plutarch, Tzetzes uses the work he has done for the *Commentary* in other contexts too. In his *Allegories of the Iliad* (89-92 Boissonade) he claims:

> Οἱ μάτην γράφειν θέλοντες ἱστορικὰ βιβλία ὁμόχρονον τὸν Ὅμηρον λέγουσιν Ἡσιόδου, ἐπὶ τῷ Ἀμφιδάμαντος τάφῳ δοκιμασθέντας. ΑΛΛ’ΟΥΤΟΙ ΜΕΝ ἙΓΝΟΗΣΑΝ ΕΙΝΑΙ ΠΟΛΛΟΥΣ ὈΜΗΡΟΥΣ.

**Eustathius, Commentary on Homer’s Iliad I 6.4-7.1 Van der Valk (passim).**

The last witness I consider for the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod is Eustathius’ commentary on the *Iliad* (twelfth century AD). Eustathius inserts a mention of the contest between Homer and Hesiod in an account of the life of Homer that is part of the introduction to his *Commentary*. In this section, he presents Homer’s poetry as a source of wisdom and knowledge, and claims that

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99 Cert. 323-38; Procl. Vit. Hom. 5; Tz. Alleg. 129 ff.; Tz. H. 13.665-6. This account is present also in P.Mich. 2754 – for its relationship to the *Certamen* see pp. 70-80.
all writers receive inspiration from Homer just as all rivers receive their water from the Ocean.\textsuperscript{100}

The discussion of the life of Homer is included in Eustathius's work only as a brief introduction to Homer’s poetry rather than as the focus of his attention in its own right. When approaching the topic, Eustathius does not suggest that he is developing new research on it; he rather collects the results of the research which had been carried out by his predecessors and which had crystallized into traditional forms by his time. Eustathius starts with the standard remark that, despite the fundamental importance of Homer’s poetry, nothing is known with certainty about his life because there is no biographical information in Homer’s own works; he then says that for this reason the poet is claimed as a fellow citizen by every city:\textsuperscript{101}

\begin{verbatim}
Ὁμήρου δὲ γένος οὐδ’ αὐτὸ περιεργασόμεθα. εἰρηται γὰρ πολλοὶς ἐτέρους, ὡς οὐκ ἂν ἤμεις κρειττόνως εἰπωμεν· εἰ μὴ ἄρα τούτῳ καὶ μόνῳ όητέον κατὰ τὸ ἐπιτρέχον, ὅτι ἐπικρύψας οὐσὶν ὁ ποιητής καὶ σιγήσας, ὡσὶς ποτὲ καὶ θεν ἦν, περιμάχητος ἄλλων ἐγένετο καὶ πολύσπατρις.
\end{verbatim}

As in many other biographies, a list of the contender cities follows, with a few comments. After mentioning the names of poets allegedly older than Homer, the poet’s blindness, change of name, and works, Eustathius comments on the tradition of the poetic competition between Homer and Hesiod:

\begin{verbatim}
eἰ δὲ καὶ ἠρσεν Ὅμηρος Ἡσιόδῳ τῷ Ἀσκραῖῳ καὶ ἤτηθη, ὅπερ ὄκνος τοῖς Ὅμηροίδαις καὶ λέγειν, ἔχειτεν ἐν τοῖς εἰς τούτῳ γράψασιν, ἐν οἷς ἐκκείνται καὶ τὰ ὅτα τῆς ἐρίδος.
\end{verbatim}

As in the case of the other biographical anecdotes, Eustathius offers but a scarce amount of detail on the story of the contest, and invites the reader to search for more information on it in other works. Similarly, he does not offer his own opinion on the episode, although his overall positive attitude towards Homer would probably suggest that, like the Homeridae, he must have hesitated to tell

\textsuperscript{100} On this metaphor see Cesaretti 1991: 135-6; 180-1; 213-15.

\textsuperscript{101} Cf. Cert. 2-4n. and 7-8n.
it. The mention of the Homeridae is interesting: it may suggest that they had an active role in the transmission, and perhaps selection, of the Homeric biographical material, or may be used by Eustathius as a general name to describe Homer’s admirers, descendants, and keepers of his reputation.\textsuperscript{102}

Perhaps the most interesting detail in this passage is the fact that the author encourages his readers to find information on the contest \textit{ἐν τοῖς εἰς τοῦτο γράψασιν}: Eustathius elsewhere uses εἰς with the title of a work in the accusative to refer to line by line commentaries.\textsuperscript{103} Here, therefore, he seems to be pointing to the existence of works on the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod accompanied by detailed exegetical notes, arguably for use in school environments, rather than generically referring to works about that story. \textit{ἐν οἷς ἔκκεινται καὶ τὰ ὧτα τῆς ἔριδος}, then, suggests that, although we only have one manuscript transmitting the \textit{Certamen} and some reference to the so called finest passages in a few literary works, the verses that the two poets exchanged circulated more widely up to the Middle Ages.

\textsuperscript{102} On the Homeridae see \textit{Cert.} 13-15n.

\textsuperscript{103} \textit{In Il.} I 3, 34; I 46, 26; I 55, 1; I 80, 14; I 94, 22.
2. Textual tradition.

Vielleicht bringt ein neuer Papyrusfund einmal weitere Aufklärung.
Vogt 1959: 219

This chapter offers the first systematic and up-to-date analysis of all the extant manuscript witnesses for the Certamen.\textsuperscript{104} The text in its entirety is transmitted only by one manuscript, \textit{Laur. Plut.} 56, 1 (L). Five papyrus fragments preserve sections of texts that can be variously related to the Certamen: three of them testify to works that can be seen as the literary sources of it and are attributed to Alcidamas (P.Petr. I 25 (1), P.Mich. inv. 2754, P.Ath.Soc.Pap. inv. M2); the other two transmit some of the epigrammatic material used in the Certamen (P.Freib. 1.1 b and P.Duk. inv. 665). By analysing each witness individually, the present study aims to identify the main features of the textual tradition through which the Certamen was transmitted.

From the context of transmission of the Certamen in manuscript L and some features of the papyri, it will emerge that the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod was likely taught in schools. It was also probably used for rhetorical exercises, and thereby made its way into several literary works. The fact itself that it was considered as material of such sort indicates a somewhat innate susceptibility to adaptation, and the versions of the story which are presented in rhetorical works, analysed in the previous chapter, confirm this. By comparing the texts of the papyri with the corresponding passages of the Certamen, moreover, we can see a tendency to compress and alterate which emerges as a characteristic feature of the textual transmission of this material.

This invites reflection on the practice of textual criticism on this material. Undoubtedly the contribution of the papyri is often useful to our understanding of the text transmitted in manuscript L and \textit{vice versa}; but

\textsuperscript{104} Some preliminary remarks in Bassino 2012.
ultimately the *Certamen* is the product of conscious and purposeful acts of adaptation, and contains material that is itself fluid and suitable for alterations. Each case of divergence between the textual witnesses should therefore be considered individually.

*Note on the papyrus fragments.*

After introducing the manuscript *L*, I introduce each papyrus fragment individually, providing general information on the fragment, a description of its contents and an outline of its contribution to the textual tradition. I then present a text of the papyrus itself. In the case of P.Petr. I 25 (1) and P.Mich. inv. 2754, I propose new editions of the text on the basis of high resolution images. In the other three cases, making a new edition was not possible or not necessary: there is no workable image of P.Ath.Soc.Pap. inv. M2 available in the public domain or for purchase; only two lines of the text of P.Freib. 1.1 b are relevant here, and they do not contain any textual problems; P.Duk. inv. 665, finally, was published in a reliable edition while this study was in progress.

The format of a line by line commentary is adopted for the first three papyri because it allows for close comparison of their texts with that of *L*, and detailed discussion of textual problems. The other two papyri are each given a consecutive commentary that analyses their general contribution to our knowledge of the textual transmission of the *Certamen*.

**Manuscript**

The text of the *Certamen* as a whole survives in a single manuscript, *Laur. Plut. 56, 1 (L).*\(^{105}\) This manuscript was bought and brought from Crete to Florence in 1492 by Janus Lascaris on behalf of Lorenzo de’ Medici, and then became part of the Medicean Library. Among the documents that attest the purchase of

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\(^{105}\) URL: http://opac.bml.firenze.sbn.it/Manuscript.htm?Seognatura=Plut.56.1. Fryde 1996 is a recent and exhaustive summary of the known information about the manuscript; see esp. p. 784, with further literature. See also Daneloni and Martinelli 1994: 311-12. Images are available at the URL above.
manuscripts by Lascaris one mentions a manuscript containing *Polienus de stratagematibus et Polux in uno volumine*: this volume is to be identified with L.\textsuperscript{106} One of its readers seems to have been Angelo Poliziano.\textsuperscript{107} It was also used by Giovanni Pico della Mirandola.\textsuperscript{108} It was copied by Henricus Stephanus in the first half of the sixteenth century (*Leid. Voss. Gr. qu. 18 = S*) and in 1573 he published much material from L in a miscellaneous book (E). This was also the *editio princeps* of the *Certamen*.\textsuperscript{109}

L is a paper codex made up of 292 pages, written by several hands and dated to the twelfth to fourteenth century AD.\textsuperscript{110} The codex contains mainly


\textsuperscript{107} The manuscript even seems to have been found in Poliziano’s *scriptorium* after his death (Daneloni-Martinelli 1994: 312). Poliziano also mentions the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod in his *Silvae* (*Nutricia*, 388-90) published in 1486, but he cannot have been influenced by the *Certamen* which reached Florence only in 1492. According to Daneloni and Martinelli (ibid.) and Fryde 1996: 573 and 729-30, Poliziano was interested in the manuscript mainly because of the *Paradoxographus Florentinus*. For Poliziano and the manuscript’s text of Pollux see Daneloni 2005: 185-9. For Poliziano and this manuscript more generally, see also Desmed 1974: 316 n. 20, Bausi 1996: 203, Harsting 2001: 16 n. 17.

\textsuperscript{108} Gentile 1994: 490 and n. 85.

\textsuperscript{109} The full title of the publication is *Homeri et Hesiodi Certamen. Matronis et aliorum parodiae. Homericorum heroum epitaphia*. Digital images of the book are available at: http://www.e-rara.ch/gep_g/content/pageview/1777967.

rhetorical works and seems to have been used as a school book.\textsuperscript{111} It has lost its opening pages and the title of the first work is missing. The \textit{Certamen} is copied at 15v-19r, by the first identifiable hand of the book. It belongs to a group of pages running from 1-83v. These pages constitute the first of four codicological units which make up the book.\textsuperscript{112} This is a detailed list of the contents of the first section of the manuscript:

1r: excerpts from the works of Menander Rhetor.

11r: a series of anonymous works among which the \textit{Certamen}:

11r: Κρήναι καὶ λίμναι καὶ πηγαὶ καὶ ποταμοὶ ὅσοι θαυμάσια τινα ἔχουσι. This is a catalogue of springs, lakes and rivers which are said to be marvellous by ancient authors. Sources are often quoted. It ends with a treatise about the flooding of the Nile. The work is also known as the \textit{Paradoxographus Florentinus}.

13r: Γυναῖκες ἐν πολεμικοῖς συνεταὶ καὶ ἀνδρεῖαι. This text, also known under the title \textit{De Mulieribus}, contains short \textit{exempla} of women who distinguished themselves for courage and ability in war. Here too, sources are often quoted.

14v: Τίνες οἴκοι ἀνάστατοι διὰ γυναῖκας ἐγένοντο. List of families ruined by a woman; the name of the family is usually accompanied by the name of the woman who destroyed it. This and the remaining texts listed below contained in 14v-15v are also known as \textit{Anonymus Florentinus}.

14v: Φιλάδελφοι. List of brothers who loved each other.

14v: Φιλέταιροι. List of friends who loved each other.

15r: short notice on Kleobis and Biton, with no title. The pair seems to be cited as an example of people who loved their mother, which would not be out of place after examples of brothers and friends who loved each other. For this

\textsuperscript{111} Cavallo 2000: 231.

\textsuperscript{112} Daneloni and Martinelli 1994: 311.
reason Westermann supplied the title Φιλομήτορες.\footnote{Westermann 1843: 346. The suggestion is accepted by Cameron 2004: 338.}

15r: a text telling the story of the Phrygian Lityerses. Without title in the manuscript, Westermann proposed Ασεβεῖς, as Lityerses seems to be an exemplum of impiety.\footnote{Ibid. (see note above).} The passage includes a quotation from Daphnis, a lost drama by Sositheus.\footnote{TrGF 99 F 2-3.}

15r: a list of people struck by thunderbolts. Included under the heading Ασεβεῖς in early editions, it was first distinguished from the previous list of ‘impious people’ by Wilamowitz, who suggested the title Κεραυωθέντες.\footnote{Wilamowitz 1875: 181 n. 4. This suggestion too is accepted by Cameron 2004: 338.}

15r: a collection of mythical exempla of metamorphoses brought about by the will of some gods or goddesses. Again there is no title in the manuscript; Westermann proposed Μεταμορφωθέντες.\footnote{Westermann 1843: 346. See also Cameron 2004: 338.}

15v: the stories of Leucone, wife of Cyanippus, and Polyhymnus of Argos. L gives no title.\footnote{Early editions of the texts that preceed the Certamen in L (except for Menander) are Heeren 1789, Westermann 1839: 213-23 and 1843: 345-8. Landi 1895 provided a new transcription of these texts on the basis of L. For more recent work on the Paradoxographus Florentinus see Öhler 1913 and esp. Giannini 1965: 315-29; on the De Mulieribus see Gera 1997 and also Brodersen 2010; on the Anonymus Florentinus see Cameron 2004: 240-2, 245, 286-303; with new edition of the text at 335-9. L was the antigraph for the other three main manuscripts transmitting these texts, two of which were copied by Michael Apostoles in Crete: Öhler 1913: 28-33, Dain 1950: 425-39, Gera 1997: 5-6, Cameron 2004: 335-6.}

15v: Περὶ Ὁμήρου καὶ Ἡσιόδου καὶ τοῦ γένους καὶ ἀγῶνος αὐτῶν: this is our Certamen.

19v: Ποῦ ἕκαστος τῶν Ἑλλήνων τέθαπται καὶ τί ἐπιγέγραπται ἐπὶ τῷ τάφῳ. A collection of epigrams inscribed on the tombstones of some Greek heroes.
20v: four orations by Theophylact of Bulgaria.

43r: Polemo's epitaph for Callimachus and Cynaegirus.

52r: extracts from a commentary on Hermogenes' rhetorical writings by Gregory of Corinth.

82r: Hypotheseis to seven of Demosthenes' orations.

The rest of the manuscript is written by other hands. It contains:

83v: a list of Demosthenes' orations.

84r: books 5-10 of Pollux's Onomasticon.

163r: an anonymous fragment on geometry.

165v: Polyaenus's Stratagems.

284r: another anonymous fragment, on the origin of dreams, capped by an investigation of the winds.\(^{119}\)

As we have seen, \textbf{L} was a school book which in its first section contains, after excerpts from Menander's rhetorical works, a series of anonymous texts including the \textit{Certamen}. These texts are mainly lists with little or no narrative content: they give several examples of marvellous springs, lakes and rivers; courageous women; families ruined by women; and so on. I now offer an analysis of the context of transmission of the \textit{Certamen}: by taking into account the peculiarities of the texts transmitted alongside the \textit{Certamen}, it is possible to shed light on the nature and use of our text too. What will emerge from this analysis is that the very context of transmission suggests that the \textit{Certamen} was, like the other texts that accompany it, unlikely to be protected by a desire to preserve one authentic version; the scribes and readers of \textbf{L} clearly envisaged adaptation to specific rhetorical aims and different narrative contexts. This may be due ultimately to the fact that our text originated, and was used, in a school environment, as a didactic piece or a rhetorical exercise. Moreover, we may speculate that the very nature of the biographical material made the text

\(^{119}\) The content of the manuscript is also listed in Bandini 1768 II: 289-94, Daneloni-Martinelli 1994: 311-12, Cameron 2004: 335-6.
inherently adaptable to new contexts and purposes. The contribution of the papyrus witnesses will confirm these hypotheses.

The nature and purpose of *De Mulieribus* and the *Anonymus Florentinus* have recently received close attention.\(^{120}\) It is therefore useful to start from these works to understand the editorial plan behind the section of the manuscript that contains the *Certamen*. Both are sub-literary works: they were not meant to have a literary integrity of their own, but rather draw on existing literary texts. Their lack of literary ambition can be seen in a tendency to employ simple sentences and a very plain style. More specifically, Gera points out with reference to *De Mulieribus* that in this text the sentences are usually short, with few subordinate clauses or participles.\(^{121}\) The *exempla* given in this work are all basically summaries, or brief encyclopaedic notices, whose contents turn out to be less picturesque than their literary sources were, or were supposed to be. Similar points apply to the *Anonymus Florentinus*: Cameron remarks that the list of metamorphoses goes back to an earlier and fuller text, either a dictionary or a series of narratives.\(^{122}\) We are therefore presented with texts that are collected from fuller sources, selected and then elaborated. These texts may have been used for rhetorical exercises, and may be defined as collections of ‘memorable precedents to be quoted or copied when occasion arises’;\(^{123}\) i.e., they provide the reader with the necessary material to construct his arguments when he needs *exempla* of fraternal love, courageous women etc.\(^{124}\)

\(^{120}\) Gera 1997, Cameron 2004.

\(^{121}\) Gera 1997: 26-8.

\(^{122}\) Cameron 2004: 287.

\(^{123}\) This expression is borrowed from Momigliano 1993: 72.

\(^{124}\) Practical examples of how this might have worked are provided by Cameron 2004: 245, who compares the list of examples of families ruined by women to a similar list found in a novel, and argues that the source for that literary work must have been somewhat similar to what we find in the *Anonymus Florentinus*. Later (pp. 286-303) he suggests that the collection of metamorphoses goes back to the same source as Ovid’s *Metamorphoses*. 
The Certamen shares some of the characteristics of these other texts. Already at a first glance, the dry style of its prose signals the same pronounced tendency toward concision. This is particularly evident in the agonistic section, where there is little or no description of how the competition unfolds, besides the mere exchange of verses. The verses themselves are only rarely attributed to either interlocutor. At the beginning of the section we learn that Hesiod asks the questions and Homer replies to each of them (72-4). After that, only a few words indicate changes of speaker (77, 80, 83). A similar introduction is given to another section of the contest, that containing the ‘ambivalent proposition’ (102-37), and the verses that follow are not attributed explicitly to either poet.125 The same concise approach is also evident in the second last section of the contest (esp. 161-75). Some of the papyri studied in the next pages show a more complex and ornate text,126 suggesting that the author of the Certamen adopted a similar attitude towards his sources to that of the De Mulieribus, the Anonymus Florentinus and the other texts in this part of L: they all involve simplication, abridgment, and adaptation. The Certamen was copied among texts that were not ‘sacrosanct literary entities’127 and appears not to have been one itself.

125 Cert. 103-6: καὶ πλείονας στίχους λέγων ἥξιον καθ’ ἕνα ἐκαστὸν συμφώνως ἀποκρίνασθαι τὸν Ὅμηρον. ἔστιν οὖν ὁ μὲν πρῶτος Ἡσιόδου, ὁ δὲ ἔξης Ὅμηρου, ἔνιοτε δὲ καὶ διὰ δύο στίχων τὴν ἐπερώτησιν ποιομένου τοῦ Ἡσιόδου. This comment is not only short but also very vague; in fact it creates problems of attribution rather than solving them. See for example Cert. 133-7n.

126 Examples of this practise occur in several of the papyri and will be described each time ad loc. As a general guideline, here it suffices to say that P.Petr. I 25 gives the longer descriptions of the change of interlocutors during the very first exchanges of challenge and response; P.Mich. inv. 2754 gives a text on the death of Homer of which the corresponding lines on the manuscript appear as a summary.

Papyri

**P.Petr. I 25 (1) (= P.Lond.Lit. 191)**

*Catalogues* = Brit. Lib. 500; MP\(^3\) 0077; LDAB 178.


P.Petr. I 25 (1) contains, after a few introductory words, an account of the first stages of the poetic competition between Homer and Hesiod: it transmits a text that closely resembles *Cert.* 69-102.\(^{128}\) This papyrus was discovered in Gurob (Fayyum, Egypt) and comes from the cartonnage of a mummy. It was first published by Mahaffy in 1891 and acquired by the British Library, where it is now, in 1895. It was originally part of a papyrus roll and transmits on the *recto* forty-eight lines of text on two columns. It is unanimously dated on palaeographic grounds to the second half of the third century BC.\(^{129}\)

This papyrus shows that a text similar to the *Certamen* was circulating at least as early as in the third century BC. It also confirms that Panedes was included in the narrative among the judges already in very early stages of the tradition,\(^{130}\) and features the same exchange of verses that we find also in the *Certamen*. Furthermore, it includes the couplet quoted by Stobaeus as coming

\(^{128}\) The two texts do not correspond precisely: the papyrus text begins with the phrase τότε τοῦ τρόπον τούτον and then mentions the judges and king Panedes; in the *Certamen*, the order is reversed: first the judges and the king are introduced (68-70) and then the contest starts (72).

\(^{129}\) Information on the papyrus is available on the online catalogues MP\(^3\) (0077) and LDAB (178); first published in Mahaffy 1891: 70-3; see also Milne 1927: 157, Cavallo and Maehler 2008: 59, 62 (nr 30); for a palaeographical analysis see also Cavallo and Maehler 2008: 1-26, esp. 9, 14, 19. Image of the papyrus in Mahaffy 1891 and Cavallo and Maehler 2008: 59.

\(^{130}\) Heldmann 1982: 45-53 suggests that the presence of king Panedes in the *Certamen* is an addition from the second century AD (see also p. 31) but the presence of the king's name at l. 4 in the papyrus, underestimated by Heldmann because the text does not read exactly as in *L*, clearly proves this suggestion wrong.
from Alcidamas’ *Musaion* on the basis of which Nietzsche had proposed Alcidamas as one of the sources for the *Certamen*. Accordingly, the papyrus has been attributed to Alcidamas, thus becoming the earliest extant piece of evidence for the literary sources used by the author of the *Certamen*.

The papyrus confirms what I have argued above about the nature of the text as preserved in L: it shows that the short and cursory sentences of the manuscript version are indeed the product of a process of abbreviation and re-elaboration of a fuller and more sophisticated text found in a literary source. The passages indicating changes of speaker show that the papyrus text pays more attention to literary form than the *Certamen*, where we are often left with the sole name of the new speaker or little more than that. The papyrus also shows that the source was treated quite freely and was subjected to a process of adaptation: for example, we find changes to the word order and different syntactical structures. There are variations in the hexameters too: evidently, this hexametric material was also malleable. Some of the verses are reported in, or quoted from, other literary works: in these cases, too, comparison with L reveals a tendency toward textual variation.

**TEXT**

Col. I

1 τὸν τρόπον τοῦτον·
   τοῦ δὲ ἀγώνοις ἀπάντων

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131 See Cert. 78-9n.

132 This edition is based on a digital image of the papyrus provided by the British Library. Hexameter lines have been supplemented on the basis of L: this aims at giving a readable text (Allen’s and others’ choice to leave most lines unsupplemented ultimately limits the utility of the text) but the possibility that the papyrus contained different readings needs to be borne in mind. The apparatus is divided into two registers: the first collects sources that transmit some of the verses included in the *Certamen* and notes variants between them, the papyrus (Π) and the manuscript (L); the second collects modern editorial interventions (relevant differences in reading, supplements) and registers peculiarities of the papyrus text (e.g. omissions, script above the line).
παρελθόντας φασίν μὲν τόν Ἡσιόδον ἕρωτήσαι τοῦσδε τοὺς στίχους; οὐδὲ Μέλητος Ὄμηρος θεῶν ἅρτῳ μήδεα εἶδος, εἰπ’ ἄγε μοι πάμπρω[τα, τί φέρτατον ἐστὶ βροτοίσιν; τὸν δ’ Ὅμηρον ἄποκρίνασθαι τάδε τὰ ἐπὶ· ἁρχὴν μὲν μὴ φῦναι ἐπιπχθονίσσιν ἄριστον, φύντα δ’ ἐπὶς ἄριστα τύλας Αἰδαο περησαί. ἐπιβαλόμενος δ’ ὁ Ἡσιόδος ἐφοτάι τὸ δεύτερον· εἰπ’ ἄγε μοι καὶ τοῦτο θεοῖς ἐπεικελ’ Ὅμηρος, τί θυ[θοίς κάλιστον ὅ[εια ἐν φρεσίν εἴ[ναι; ὁ δ’ Ὅμηρος ἀποκρίνεται τοὺς] στίχους [τοῦσδε· ὀσπότ’ ἄν εὐφροσύνη μὲν] [ἐξαὶ κατὰ δήμον ἀπαντά, δα[μόονς ὅ’ ἀνα δώματ’ ἀκουάζων]· ται ἀοιδοῦ ἤμενοι ἔξεισι, παρὰ δὲ πλή[.]

12-15 Thgn. 425 + 427, Stob. 4.52.22. 21-8 Od. 6-11

4 π[ανήδου Π Πανοίδης Λ 14 ὅπως Π Thgn. ὅμως Λ 18-19 κάλ- / [λιστον] Π ἄριστον Λ

Col. II

θ[ωσι τράπεζαι σίτου καὶ κρειών, μέ-

θυ δ’ ἐκ κρητήρως ἁφύσων] οἴν[υχό-

ος φορέθηκε κ]αι ἐγχε[ίη δεπόεσιν
tοῦτο <τί> μοι κάλλιστον ἐνι φρεσ-

κε δ’ ἐκ τοῦ στίχους. ὡς δὲ ἔποι ὁ
tῶν σπον-
dῶν προκατεύχοντα[i] πάντες.

ἀχθενθείς δὲ ὁ Ἡσίοδος ε[ ἐ-

πι τὴν ἀπορίαν τῆς ἀ]ποφήσιτ] ἐγγεταὶ τοὺς στίχους
tοῦτος. Μοῦσ’ ἂγε μοι τί τ’ ἐόντα
tά τ’ ἐσσόμενα πρὸ τ’ ἐ[όντα

τῶν μὲν μηθὲν ἀείδε, σὺ δ’ ἄλλης
μνήσαυ ἄοιδες. ὁ δ’ Ὁμήρος βουλό-

μενος λύσας τὴν ἀπορίαν τῆς ἐ-

ρωτήσεως ἀποφής] ἐγγεταὶ τοὺς στίχους
tοῦτος. [ουδέποτ’ ἀμφὶ

Διὸς τύμβον κάν[αχήφοις ἵπ-

ποι ἀμα[ητα συντρίψουσιν ἐφι-

ζοντες [περὶ νίκης. καλῶς δὲ τοῦ

Ὅμηρου]

44-7 Plu. Conv. Sept. Sap. 154a

27-8 φαί-] / νεται Π εἰδεται L Od. 30-1 [τοὺς στί- /] χου’ς] Π τὰ ἐπὶ L 40
μηθὲν Π μηθὲν L 45 τύμβον Π τύμβωι L Plu. 46-7 ἐφιζοντες Π Λ
ἐπειγομένοι Plu.

25 δ’ ἐκ κρητήρως οίς Colonna 27 <τί> om. Π 27-8 φαί-] / νεται Wilamowitz
Colonna εἰδ-] / εται Allen Rzach φαιν-] / εται Mahaffy 28 δέ και Wilamowitz
32 προσα[γορεύσαντες Rzach προσα[γορεύουσι καὶ ετι Mahaffy
προσα[γορεύσαντες Wilamowitz Colonna Avezzù 35-
eὐθυμείᾳ Avezzù 38 Μοῦσ’ ἂγε Wilamowitz Avezzù μοῦσα γε Mahaffy Allen
Rzach Colonna Cavallo-Maehler 43 ἀποφήθεγγεται Wilamowitz Colonna
Avezzù ἀποφή[γειν προφέρει Mahaffy ἀποφή[ τους] Allen Rzach ἀποφέ
COMMENTARY

1-6. These lines are in a very poor state of preservation but even from the few visible words the papyrus text appears quite different from that in L. The first line might be the end of an introductory statement to the effect that Hesiod won, or that the contest went, ‘in the following manner’. In the Certamen there is a parallel phrase (71-2: νικήσαί φασί τὸν Ἡσίόδον τὸν τρόπον τοῦτον), but it comes after the presentation of Panoides (as his name is spelled in L) and the other judges (68-70). The order in the papyrus seems to be reversed, as Panedes and the other judges make their appearance only at 3-4. The syntax seems different too, as the three words in the genitive απαντῶν, κριτῶν and Πανηδοῦ suggest the presence of a genitive absolute (as opposed to Cert. 68-70: τὸν δὲ ἀγώνος ἄλλοι τέ οίνες τῶν ἐπισήμων Χαλκιδέων ἐκαθέζοντο κριταί καὶ μετ’ αὐτῶν Πανοίδης, ἀδελφός ὄν τὸν τετελευτηκότος). Colonna suggested to read τὸν τρόπον τοῦτον φασίν ἀπάντων κρατήσαι τῶν κριτῶν ἐν ἀγώνι (‘it is said that he won the support of all the judges in the contest in the following way’) τοῦ Πανηδοῦ προεστηκότος (‘Panedes being at their head’). But he based the supplement ἀπάντων κρατήσαι τῶν κριτῶν on the passage about the contest from Themistius’ Oration 30, where Hesiod πᾶσι τοῖς κριταῖς κρατεῖ (‘won the support of all the judges’), and that is a different version of the story that fits specific purposes (see Introduction, pp. 38-41).

2-4. In the papyrus the contest seems to be judged by all the Chalcideans (‘all...judges’), while in the Certamen we have only ‘some’ of them (68-9: ἄλλοι τέ οίνες τῶν ἐπισήμων Χαλκιδέων).

2. τοῦ δὲ ἀγώνοις: a fairly clear trace of ζ can be read and this gives some support to Avezzù’s τοῦ δὲ ἀγώνος.
4. Πανήδου: the papyrus transmits the name of the king in the form Πανήδης. Editors of the Certamen have emended L’s form Πανοίδης on the basis of the papyrus text, but this is questionable: see Cert. 69n.

5. [εἰς τὸ μέσον]: cf. Cert. 72, προελθόντα γὰρ εἰς τὸ μέσον: the phrase εἰς τὸ μέσον may well have been present in Alcidamas’ version of the story, see Cert. 72-4n.

5-6. παρελθόν- / [τα: more representative of Classical Athenian idiom than the Certamen’s προελθόντα, see Biles 2011: 48.

6-7. φασίν ... στίχους: before introducing Hesiod’s question, the Certamen (72-4) adds a sentence that finds no correspondence in the papyrus. It explains how the contest will develop: πυνθάνεσθαι τοῦ Ὅμηρου καθ’ ἐν ἕκαστον, τὸν δὲ Ὅμηρον ἀποκρίνασθαι. The expansion is merely apparent: by giving this information at the beginning of the contest, L can be much more concise in its handling of individual speech introductions. A first example of this occurs in Cert. 74, where L has φησίν οὖν Ἡσίοδος as against the papyrus’ more expansive φασίν μὲν τὸν Ἡσίοδον ἐρω[τήσαι τούσδε τοὺς στίχους].

7-10. νίς ... βροτοῖσιν: the first question seems to be the same as in the Certamen (75-6), but it is not possible to verify whether the papyrus transmitted exactly the same text as in L or a slightly different one, as in some of the subsequent lines.

10-12. τὸν ... ἐπη: the introduction to Homer’s answer is again more elaborate than in the Certamen (77: Ὅμηρος). At the end of the line, there are traces which seem to be compatible with the letters ΠΟΚΡΙ, and could be part of the verb ἀποκρίνασθαι sometimes used in the Certamen too to introduce Homer’s answers (Cert. 104, 142). The tentative identification of the traces at l. 11 with ΣΟΙΠ, proposed by Mahaffy and accepted by some early editors, was doubted already by Wilamowitz (see his apparatus). Only Colonna, on the basis of Milne’s reading, proposes the supplement ἀποκρίνασθαι, but his reading of the
rest of the line as τοῦτον τὸν τρό]πον cannot be correct: the letters AP indicating the beginning of the second question are at the end of l. 12 rather than at the beginning of l. 13, as he suggests; before them, Η is visible, possibly following Π, which may lead us to supplement ἔπη, and hence the phrase ἀποκρινασθαι [...] τάδε τά ἐπη.

12-15. ἀρ / [χίν] ... περήσαι: this is the first case in the hexameter verses where the Certamen diverges from the text of the papyrus. At l. 14, where the papyrus and all the other witnesses transmit ὅπως, L reads ὅμως; both variants are acceptable.

15-17. ἐπιβα / [λόμενος] ... [δεύτερον]: Hesiod asks the second question; the corresponding passage is Cert. 80: Ἡσίοδος τὸ δεύτερον. As previous editors suggest, τὸ δεύτερον seems an adequate supplement to fill the lacuna at the beginning of l. 17. If the reconstruction of ἐπιβαλόμενος δ’ ὁ Ἡσίοδος ἐρωτάι τὸ δεύτερον is correct, the Certamen’s τὸ δεύτερον appears as a shortened version of the papyrus text.

17-19. [ἐπὶ’ ἄγε] ... ἐλίναι: a difference between the papyrus and the manuscript is clearly visible: at the end of l. 18 the letters ΚΑΛ lead us to supplement κάλλιστον, whereas Cert. 82 reads ἄριστον. In this case the papyrus helps understand what seems to be a problematic passage of the manuscript text: in the papyrus text the second exchange of verses presents a question and an answer which are both about the κάλλιστον for men (ll. 18-9 and 27); in the corresponding sequence in the Certamen Hesiod asks what is the ἄριστον (82), which however Homer has already defined in his previous answer (78), and Homer replies by defining the κάλλιστον (89). An emendation of the manuscript on the basis of the papyrus text allows to have in the Certamen too an exchange on the ‘best’ and one on the ‘finest’ thing. In the Certamen, the reading ἄριστον may be due to the influence of the same word at l. 78 (in Homer’s first answer). See also Cert. 82n.

19-21. ὁ δ’ ... [τοῦσδε]: these lines introducing Homer’s answer are absent from
the *Certamen* where we only read ὁ δὲ (83). The supplements proposed by Wilamowitz and Colonna, although tentative, seem compatible with the lacuna and may give a sense of what was written on the papyrus.

21-8. [ὅπποτὲ] ... εἶναι: the verses of Homer's response are a passage from the *Odyssey* (9.6-11). The few visible traces on the papyrus in these lines between the end of the first column and the beginning of the second confirm that Homer is performing the same passage as in the *Certamen* (84-9). The papyrus lines can be therefore tentatively reconstructed on the basis of the text of the *Odyssey* and that of the *Certamen* too, bearing in mind the possibility of textual variations. At least one instance of variation is in fact visible: at ll. 27-8 the papyrus gives the reading φαίνεται, while the Homeric manuscripts and the *Certamen* read εἶδεται. Some of the editors of the papyrus print εἶδεται, but NETAI at the beginning of l. 28 makes the reading φαίνεται inevitable.

23b. This line is missing in the papyrus.

28-34. ἰηθέντων ... [πάντες]: the audience's reaction to Homer's verses is very similar in the papyrus and in the manuscript, but each text has its own peculiarities. Cf. Cert. 90-4: ἰηθέντων δὲ τῶν ἐπῶν, οὐτῶ σφοδρῶς φασι θαυμασθῆναι ὑπὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων τοὺς στίχους ἄστε χρυσοὺς αὐτοὺς προσαγορεύθηναι, καὶ ἔτι καὶ νῦν ἐν ταῖς κοιναῖς θυσίαις πρὸ τῶν δείπνων καὶ σπονδῶν προκατεύχεσθαι πάντας. The syntax is different: while the *Certamen* has two coordinated infinitives (προσαγορεύσαντες ... καὶ ... προκατεύχεσθαι), in the papyrus the second verb ΠΡΟΚΑΤΕΥΟΝ[ seems compatible with an indicative present; reasonable supplements for the first verb, of which fewer traces are left on the papyrus, are Rzach's προσαγορεύσαντες ('after calling them golden verses ... they all invoke them'), or Wilamowitz's προσα[γορεύοντες. Allen's προσαγορεύθηναι seems incompatible with the indicative form of the other verb in the sentence. There are further differences between the two texts: at ll. 30-1 the papyrus gives τοὺς στίχους, which may be used to emend L's τὰ ἔπη (after ὑπὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων). L's
reading does not agree with the following words χρυσοῦς αὐτοῦς and may well owe its existence to τῶν ἐπῶν earlier in the sentence. Other attempts to emend L are less legitimate. For example, there is no need to insert τούτων at Cert. 90 on the basis of ll. 28-9 of the papyrus (see e.g. Allen). Changing the word order at Cert. 91 on the basis of lines 30-1 of the papyrus is not necessary either; e.g. Allen: θαυμασθήναι τοὺς στίχους ὑπὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων, instead of θαυμασθήναι ὑπὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων τοὺς στίχους (L: τὰ ἐπη). See apparatus and commentary on Cert. 90-4 for more details. Cert. 92 adds that these verses are performed ‘even today’: καὶ ἔτι καὶ νῦν. This may be an attempt by the author of the Certamen to make his sources seem relevant to his own time.

35-8. ἀχθεσθεὶς ... τούσδε: Hesiod is vexed at Homer’s success and decides to ask a new type of question. The same episode is told in the Certamen (94-6): ὦ δὲ Ἡσίοδος ἀχθεσθεὶς ἐπὶ τῇ Ὁμήρου εὐημερίᾳ ἐπὶ τὴν τῶν ἀπόρουν ὡρμησεν ἐπερώτησιν καὶ φησί τούσδε τοὺς στίχους. The end of l. 35 is difficult. Wilamowitz proposed the supplement ἐπὶ τούτων ἐπερώτησιν (Cert. 95), but the last visible letter of the line almost certainly is A rather than E. Wilamowitz’s τῆς ἀποκρίσεως should therefore be accepted.

36. τῆς ἀποκρίσεως: the supplement τῆς ἐρωτήσεως proposed by some of the earliest editors allows to get a correspondence with ἐπὶ τὴν τῶν ἀπόρουν ὡρμησεν ἐπερώτησιν (Cert. 95), but the last visible letter of the line almost certainly is A rather than E. Wilamowitz’s τῆς ἀποκρίσεως should therefore be accepted.

38-41. The verses are also preserved in Cert. 97-8. Μοῦσ’ ἄγε: this reading of the text (Wilamowitz, Avezzù; cf. L) is preferable to Μοῦσα γε (Mahaffy Allen Rzach Colonna Cavallo-Maehler): the form ἄγε plus imperative (Μοῦσ’ ἄγε μοι ... ἂείδε) finds parallels in εἰπ’ ἄγε, as found in the same section, Cert. 76 and 81.

41-4. ὁ δ’ Ὁμήρος ... τούσδε: the text of the Certamen (99) runs differently: ὁ
δὲ Ὄμηρος βουλόμενος ἀκολούθως τὸ ἀποφορον λύσαι φησίν. The Certamen resorts to more common words and simpler syntax (τὸ ἀποφορον λύσαι instead of τὴν ἀποφοράν τῆς ἐρωτήσεως λύσαι, and φησίν for ἀποφθέγγεται τοὺς στίχους τούτους. ἀκολούθως has no correspondence in the papyrus).

43. ἀποφθέγγεται: the last letter before the lacuna can be identified with a good degree of confidence as a θ. The only Greek verb which fits the context is the one proposed by Wilamowitz, ἀποφθέγγομαι.

44-7. οὐδέποτ' ἀμφὶ ... [περὶ νίχης: these verses are mentioned also in Plu. Dinner of the Seven Sages 154a, in connection with the same contest story (see Introduction, pp. 18-28). Plutarch’s text, however, reads ἔπειγόμενοι where the manuscript of the Certamen and the papyrus transmit ἐρώτησες. The words κάναχήποδες ἵπποι are missing in L and in Stephanus’ copy, and they have been integrated by Barnes on the basis of Plutarch’s text. The traces of the letters present in the papyrus fit these words, and confirm the soundness of Barnes’ supplement.

47-8. καλῶς δὲ τοῦ Ὄμηρου: It is difficult to suggest safe supplements for these lines, since only the name of Homer can be read, and it is not present in the corresponding passage of the Certamen (102-3): καλῶς δὲ καὶ ἐν τούτοις ἀπαντήσαντος ἐπὶ τὰς ἀμφιβολους γνώμας ὀρμησεν ὁ Ἡσίοδος. The end of l. 47 may be tentatively supplemented with καλῶς δὲ τοῦ, but any further attempt at supplementing these lines seems unsafe.

PMich. inv. 2754

Catalogues = MP3 0076; LDAB 177.


PMich. inv. 2754 transmits, in ll. 1-14, an account of the death of Homer in a
version which is similar to Cert. 327-38; ll. 15-23 contain a section in praise of the poet that is not found in the Certamen or indeed in any other source; a subscriptio giving the name of Alcidamas closes the text. This papyrus was discovered in 1924 during an excavation conducted by the University of Michigan at the Egyptian site of Karanis (Arsinoite nome). It is the final column of a papyrus roll, written both on the recto and on the verso. While the recto is covered by accounts, the verso contains twenty-three lines of text and ends with a subscriptio. Its ‘small well-formed book-hand’ has been dated to the second-third century AD.133

P.Mich. inv. 2754 offers important insights into our understanding of the textual tradition of the Certamen, and sheds light on the more general issue of the relationship between Alcidamas and the Certamen. As in the case of the text transmitted by P.Petr. I 25 (1), a comparison between papyrus (esp. ll. 1-14) and manuscript shows that they give virtually the same account of the story.134 However, the papyrus text is more elaborately phrased, and differs from the manuscript text on some details. The subscriptio allows us to identify Alcidamas as the source for the Certamen’s section on the death of Homer.135

TEXT136

1 οἱ δὲ ὄρῳντες οὐ ἀν ἔσχεδίασαν τόνδε [τὸν στίχον· ὅσσον ἐλομέν Λ[ι]πόμεσθ’ ὅσσ’.ovκ ἐλομεν ψερόμε[σ]θα. ὁ δὲ οὐ δυνάμενος εὑρεῖν τὸ ἀε-
Since its first publication this papyrus has been the object of a lively debate over the authorship of the text transmitted in it and its relationships with the
Certamen. It has been suggested on various grounds that the subscriptio refers only to the text in ll. 15-23, while ll. 1-14 are not by Alcidamas; as a consequence, Alcidamas should not be seen as the source for the Certamen’s section on the death of Homer. However, no indisputable argument has been offered yet as to why we should dissociate Alcidamas from ll. 1-14.

The first editor, Winter, had no doubts that the whole text on the papyrus was to be attributed to Alcidamas and that the sophist was one of the sources for the Certamen.¹³⁷ Soon after that, however, Körte claimed that ll. 1-14 were not by Alcidamas because they contain seven instances of hiatus, which Alcidamas avoided in his On Sophists: according to Körte, the lines may have been quoted by Alcidamas in his work, but were not written by him.¹³⁸ Kirk later built on these considerations. He argued that the lines in question are an interpolation from an anonymous Life of Homer into two consecutive sentences of Alcidamas’ Περὶ Ὀμήρου. He based his argument on a perceived lack of continuity between ll. 1-14 and ll. 15-23; traces of Koiné Greek in ll. 1-14 (ἐσχέδιασαν, ἀλλιεῖαν, φθειρίζεσθαι and the parenthetic use of φασίν); the fact that the Certamen does not mention Alcidamas as the source for that specific section, while on other occasions it does; the fact that a ‘circumstantial prose biography of Homer’ is not likely to have existed ‘as early as in the fifth century’.¹³⁹ Dodds accepted Kirk’s objections to the unity of the papyrus text, but proposed yet another scenario for its transmission: according to him, the roll contained a number of excerpta περὶ Ὀμήρου, and after a quotation on the death of Homer from an anonymous work the compiler quoted an extract from the preface of Alcidamas’ Musaion to close his collection in a suitably grand

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¹³⁷ Winter 1925: 124-5 claims that ‘the new fragment proves conclusively the validity of the Alcidamas tradition’ because the text at ll. 1-14 ‘agrees so closely with the Certamen ... that the relationship is apparent’, and the subscriptio proves it ‘as conclusively as anything can’.

¹³⁸ Körte 1927.

¹³⁹ Kirk 1950: 149-57.
manner.\textsuperscript{140} By contrast, Koniaris suggested that the papyrus fragment was part of a roll which contained the \textit{Certamen} approximately as we have it, followed by a series of quotations about Homer; in his view, a quotation from Alcidamas started the series.\textsuperscript{141}

The attempts to deny Alcidamas’ authorship of ll. 1-14 were not, however, completely successful. Renehan, building on West’s studies, has shown that the forms considered by earlier scholars to contain traces of Koiné Greek are not exclusively postclassical. As for hiatus, Renehan suggests that the avoidance of it in the only treatise by Alcidamas that has reached us in its entirety may be coincidence rather than conscious practice. In fact, he argues on the basis of another fragment, Alcidamas did not always avoid hiatus.\textsuperscript{142}

Other arguments can be added. First, the restoration [Ἀλκίδάμαντος, on the basis of which ll. 15-23 are unanimously attributed to Alcidamas, is ultimately due precisely to the contents of ll. 1-14. In these lines the account of the death of Homer is very similar to that in the \textit{Certamen}, whose connection with Alcidamas is proved by other independent pieces of evidence.\textsuperscript{143} Turning to the alleged break between the two sections, the fact that l. 15 seems to be corrupt suggests that we are not in a strong position to make a judgment.\textsuperscript{144} In any case, the two passages still seem to be linked at least at a thematic level. The papyrus does not directly connect Homer’s death to his inability to solve a riddle, and therefore does not call his wisdom into question. In this version, the riddle seems to work as no more than a \textit{terminus post quem} for Homer’s death.

\textsuperscript{140} Dodds 1952.
\textsuperscript{141} Koniaris 1971.
\textsuperscript{143} Renehan 1971: 104 concludes that ‘if only lines 15-25 of the papyrus had survived no one would be calling it, as it is commonly called, the Alcidamas papyrus’.
\textsuperscript{144} West 1967: 437-8, Renehan 1971: 104 n. 22. Renehan suggests that τούτου in l. 15 may be masculine and refer to Homer. If he is right, that would give us a connection between the two halves of the papyrus on the level of language. See commentary.
This seems to be in line with the content of ll. 15-23, in which Homer is praised: separating Homer’s death from an event that could cast doubt on his wisdom is a good way of reinforcing his educative value. Furthermore, the text is copied continuously, with no sign of separation or space between lines 14 and 15, which suggests that the scribe perceived the text that he was copying as a unity, rather than as two separate sections. The subscriptio, then, because of its size and its position at the bottom margin of the papyrus, seems to refer to the whole text rather than only to its final section.

In conclusion, there seem to be good reasons for thinking that Alcidamas is the author of the whole text on the papyrus, and that both it and the Certamen go back to Alcidamas as their ultimate source.

1. 1-2. οἱ δὲ ... στίχον: the Certamen (327) gives εἰπὸντον δὲ ἐκείνων. This phrase introduces the text of the riddle with fewer words than the corresponding one in the papyrus. It is not possible to know whether the papyrus text contained the scene of Homer asking the boys if they had caught anything (Cert. 325-6).

2. ἔλομεν ... ἔλομεν: the papyrus text reads ΕΛΑΒΟΝ in both cases. The fishermen are here clearly addressing Homer in direct speech, and the first plural person is in fact what they are expected to use (cf. also λ[ι]πόμεσθ’ and φερόμε[σ]θα). Since Winter 1925: 128, the papyrus reading ΕΛΑΒΟΝ has been considered a diplography arising from the use of the same word in ll. 6-7 (indirect speech).

3-4. ὁ δὲ ... λέγοιεν: the papyrus and the Certamen use the same words to inform us that Homer asked about the meaning of the riddle (Cert. 329: ἠρετο αὐτούς ὁ τι λέγοιεν); but the Certamen’s οὐ νοῆσας τὸ λέχθεν seems a concise form of the papyrus’ ὁ δὲ οὐ δυνάμενος εὐφείν τὸ λέχθεν. The story is told with the same details (Homer asks the fisher boys for the meaning of the riddle and they explain it to him) also in the Certamen.

4-6. οἱ δὲ ... φθειρ[i]ζεσ[θ]αι: cf. Cert. 329-30: οἱ δὲ φασιν ἐν ἀλεία μὲν

145 See also Cert. 323-38n.
ἀγρεύσαι μηδέν, ἐφθειρίσθαι δέ. In both texts the explanation of the riddle is based on the contrast, indicated by μέν and δέ, between the two actions of fishing and killing the lice (with minimal lexical variations). The participles that in the papyrus further characterise these actions, οἰχόμενοι and καθήμενοι, are dropped in the Certamen.

5. οἰχόμενοι: this form, supplemented by Hunt, is not attested in other accounts of the story but has been unanimously accepted by all editors because, as Winter points out, it accords with the traces and gives the necessary contrast with καθήμενοι.

6-8. τών δὲ ... ἐλαβον καταλιπείν, oὐς δὲ οὐκ ἐλαβον ἐν τοῖς ἰματίοις φέρειν. The Certamen simplifies the papyrus text: it eliminates αὐτοῦ and gives φέρειν instead of a compound of φέρω (though it is difficult to identify the verb: ἐ.]ναποφέρειν). The Certamen also offers a variation: ἐν τοῖς ἰματίοις for the papyrus’ ἐν τοῖς τρίβωσιν. It may be relevant that this is a context where variations were indeed common: ἐν τῇ ἐσθήτῃ Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.4, Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.5; εἰς οίκοις Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 35.

7. καταλιπεῖν: Winter’s emendation κατα[λ]ιπεῖν for the papyrus’ reading KATA[.]ΠΙΟΙΕΝ is here accepted, since it provides a syntactical parallel to the infinitive ἐ.]ναποφέρειν. The papyrus’ spelling may be partially explained through iotacism.

8-12: ἀναμνησθεὶς ... Ὄμηγ[ο]ῖν: cf. Cert. 332-3: ἀναμνησθεὶς δὲ τοῦ μαντείου ὅτι τὸ τέλος αὐτοῦ ἥκι τοῦ βίου, ποιεῖ τὸ τοῦ τάφου αὐτοῦ ἐπίγραμμα. The story develops in the same way in the Certamen and in the papyrus: Homer remembers the oracle, its content is briefly summarised, and he then writes his tomb epigram. The oracle is however summarised differently in the two texts: ἡ καταστροφή becomes τὸ τέλος in the Certamen; different verbal forms are used (ἥκι, ἥκεν); the personal pronoun is used in different cases (dative and genitive); τοῦ βίου is in different positions. Compare also τὸ
τοῦ τάφου αὐτοῦ ἐπίγραμμα and eἰς ἕαυτὸν ἐπίγραμμα τὸ[δ]ε. τόδε in the papyrus introduces the epigram which is reported straightaway; whereas the author of the Certamen puts it at the very end of his work, after saying that Homer slipped on mud and died. For the position of the epigram in the Certamen see Cert. 336-8n.

12 καλύψει: the Certamen and most other sources of the epigram have the form καλύπτει, and both forms are equally possible.

13-14. Cf. Cert. 334-5: ἀναχωρῶν δὲ ἐκείθεν, ὁντος πηλοῦ ὀλισθῶν καὶ πεσῶν ἐπὶ τὴν πλευράν, τριταῖος ὡς φασὶ τελευτᾷ. The Certamen short-circuits the balanced syntax of the papyrus texts (ἀν[α]χωρῶν ... ὀλισθάει καὶ πεσὼν ... ἐτελεύτησεν) by assimilating ὀλισθάει to πεσὼν. It also introduces some new ideas: ἐκείθεν, τριταῖος and καὶ ἔταφῃ ἐν Ἰῳ.

15-16. περὶ τούτου ... ποιήσομεν†: this sentence, well preserved and clearly readable in the papyrus, is quite obscure in meaning and convoluted in style; the text transmitted seems faulty (hence the cruces, in the absence of fully convincing emendations). This obscure text has also given to several scholars the impression of an abrupt transition between the two sentences, and has been used as evidence for the fact that the papyrus contains two separate texts. However, τούτου in this context can be seen as a masculine pronoun (instead of neuter, as it has so far been interpreted): in this case it would be referring to Homer, resulting in a clearer meaning to the sentence and a better link to the previous one; second, as already mentioned, the version of the death told in the previous lines seems to be in line with the encomiastic tone of this section. Some interpretations (and translations) proposed: Page emended ποιήσομεν to πειρασόμεθα and translated: ‘on this subject, then, we shall endeavor to make our reputation’. Solmsen emended to πειράσομεν, while Körte proposed to expunge ποιεῖσθαι, and interpreted the passage as ‘on this subject, then, we shall make our reputation for excellence’.

16-17. μάλιστα ... θαν- / μαζομένους: the general meaning seems to be that
the author wants to enhance Homer’s reputation, in competition with that of the historians.

ὁρῶν: there is no reason to propose either ὠρῶν<τες> (Winter) or ὠρῶ (Dodds). The first person singular does not seem to be problematic (and is used later in the text too, if the supplements ἀποδίδωμι and παραδούς are correct); the participle may function as a reason clause.

τούς ἱστορικούς: it has been suggested that Alcidamas either sees Homer as a historian (Kirk 1950: 154, who however finds this ‘quite untypical of the Greek assessment of Homer’) or that he sees himself as one, and Homer as a good subject on which to build his own reputation for excellence (Koniaris 1971: 122). But it seems that Alcidamas rather sets himself and Homer against the historians: the particles μέν and δέ and the gist of the passage, as far as it can be reconstructed, seem to suggest this contrast. It is impossible to know more precisely what Alcidamas means by ‘historians’ and how he views them, because this is the only occurrence of the word in his extant works.

17-19. Ὅμηρος ... ἀνθρώ- / ποις: the idea of Homer being honoured by all men is repeatedly emphasized in the Certamen (see also Richardson 1981: 4-5).

19-23. ταύτη[.] ... παραδούς: these last few lines are fundamental to our understanding of the papyrus text. In the first part of the sentence Alcidamas thanks Homer (χάριν ἀποδίδ.) while the second part refers to his account of Homer’s life and poetry (γ]ένος ...καὶ τὴν ... ποίησιν ...παραδ.) – on the supplement γ]ένος see below). In the papyrus the ending of both verbs is unreadable, and there is no agreement among previous editors on the identification of the last letter (ο or ω) before both lacunae. Scholars have suggested a range of verbal forms, and as a consequence the syntax of the whole passage has been variously interpreted. Some question the very unity of ll. 1-14 and 15-23. The most plausible supplements for the two verbs are those by Avezzù: ἀποδίδωμι and παραδούς. He seems right in identifying the traces of the last visible letter of each verb respectively with Ω and Ο, which makes
some of the the other supplements that have been proposed altogether impossible (see below). Avezzù’s reading also gives a plausible general meaning to the whole fragment: Alcidamas is giving thanks to Homer (now, in the last few lines), after having written (in the previous section of the text, i.e. ll. 1-14) about his life and his poetry. That Alcidamas gives thanks to Homer after discussing the poet’s life and poetry sits well with the text of the papyrus, for ll. 1-14 look like the end of a biographical account. The alternatives proposed are less convincing. Page read the lines as meaning ‘Let us then thank (χάριν ἀποδιδόντες) him thus … and as for his origins and the rest of his poetry, let us hand them down (τὸ γάρ ἐνος αὐτοῦ καὶ τὴν ἄλλην ποίησιν … παραδῶμεν)...’. Page’s supplements were accepted by Kirk and Koniaris (who however did not propose a translation). Dodds’ text and translation are similar: ‘offering (ταῦτῃ[ν] … χάριν ἀποδίδο[ύς] him this tribute, let me publish … an accurate account of where he came from and what else he wrote (τὸ γάρ ἐνος αὐτοῦ καὶ τὴν ἄλλη[ν] ποίησιν … παραδῶ).’ None of these texts is paleographically likely (see above, on omega and omicron before the two lacunas) or results in a plausible overall interpretation, for they suggest that Alcidamas’ account of Homer’s life and poetry is yet to come. Other interpretations seem even less likely: Winter proposes ‘let us then give him these thanks for the amusement of the contest itself (ταῦτῃ[ν] αὐτῷ τῆς παιδίας χαρίν ἀποδίδω[μεν αγ] ωνος αὐτοῦ) … and the rest of his poetry let us hand down (τὴν ἄλλη[ν] ποίησιν παραδῶ[μεν])...’ but this rests on an incorrect reading (αγ[ωνος in l. 20 cannot be right); while West’s ‘offering him this return (ταὐτῃ[ν] … χαρίν ἀποδίδο[ύς] ... I will leave him (ἀφέμι)νος αὐτοῦ) and go on to make other poets available too (τὴν ἄλλη[ν] ποίησιν ... παραδῶ[σο].’ makes the passage overly convoluted (see also Koniaris 1971: 123).

19. ταὐτη[].: both ταὐτ[η][ν] and ταὐτη[ζ] seem possible.

τής παιδίας: the papyrus reading has sometimes been emended in παιδείας, which results in Alcidamas thanking Homer for his ‘educational value’ rather
than for the ‘entertainment’ he provides. But other sources show that Homer could be associated with παιδιά too: in Ps.-Plu. *Vit. Hom.* 1.5, the manuscripts attest both the reading παιδείας and παιδιάς.

20. γένος: the letter after the lacuna is with a good degree of certainty Ε: Winter’s αγνοσία is therefore to be rejected. γένος and ποίησις are the subject of many ancient treatises on the poets, including the extant Lives of Homer.

21. δι’ακοβλείας: this supplement seems to be the most plausible in the context: Alcidamas claims that his account of Homer’s life and poetry is *precise*, rather than *short* (διὰ βραχείας: West Koniaris).


*Catalogues* = MP³ 0077.01; LDAB 6838.


This papyrus fragment transmits a text that has been identified, on the basis of a few visible words in the first lines, as an account of the death of Hesiod similar to that attributed to Alcidamas in the *Certamen*; cf. *Cert.* 226-35. The fragment was found in the cartonnage of a mummy, probably in the Fayyum and it belonged to a roll. It is not very well preserved, but thirteen lines of text are visible on the *verso*. On palaeographical grounds it has been dated to the second century BC.¹⁴⁶

Although this papyrus has received only little attention compared to the previous two fragments, it does contain some interesting information.¹⁴⁷ The text does not correspond completely to that transmitted in the manuscript, and reveals once again that the literary sources used by the author of the *Certamen* were subjected to a process of compression and adaptation. Mandilaras shows

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¹⁴⁶ Information on the papyrus is available in the online catalogues MP³ (0077.01) and LDAB (6838); it has been published by Mandilaras 1990, reprinted in Mandilaras 1992, which includes an image of the papyrus.

¹⁴⁷ Some scholars ignore it altogether (e.g. Koning 2010). It has been published only once, and has never been the object of further study.
that in at least two cases (ll. 1-2 and 7) the text of the manuscript is too short to fit the lacunae in the papyrus. Moreover, the presence in l. 8 of ΑΥΤΟΝ, absent from the corresponding passage in the Certamen, shows that the papyrus transmits a somewhat more elaborate text.

Below is Mandilaras’ edition of the text. Although he recognises that the papyrus differs from the manuscript text on several points, he extensively supplemented the former on the basis of the latter. However, we should allow for the possibility that the original text of the papyrus was more different from the Certamen than these supplements suggest.

TEXT

10  [τες κτλ]

COMMENTARY

1-3. εἰς δὲ ... μαντεῖον: cf. Cert. 226-8: εἰς δὲ Οἰνόην τῆς Λοκρίδος ἐλθὼν καταλύει παρ’ Αμφιφάνει καὶ Γανύκτορι, τοῖς Φηγέως παισίν, ἀγνοήσας τὸ μαντεῖον. The first lines of the papyrus are fundamental for identifying the text on the papyrus, as they contain some key elements of the episode: the names Locris (l. 1), Amphiphanes and (partially) Ganyctor (l. 2), and a reference to the misunderstood oracle (l. 3). The supplements Οἰνόην (l. 1) and Φηγέως (l. 2) seem fairly secure, as these same details are found in other versions of the story, including the Certamen (226-7). The Certamen's ἐλθὼν καταλύει is too short to
fit the lacuna between lines 1 and 2. Mandilaras proposes ἔρχεται καὶ καταλύει. The suggestion is certainly attractive: we have seen that L makes a more extensive use of subordination than earlier texts, especially through participles (see e.g. P.Mich. inv. 2754 ll. 13-14).

3-4. Ὁ γὰρ ... ἱερὸν: cf. Cert. 228-9: ὁ γὰρ τόπος οὗτος ἀπας ἐκαλείτο Διὸς Νεμείου ἱερὸν. Line 4 gives another key phrase, Διὸς Νεμείου. The rest of the text can only be tentatively supplemented on the basis of the manuscript.

4-5. [Διατριβῆς] ... Ο[ἱνοεύσιν: cf. Cert. 229-30: διατριβῆς δὲ αὐτῶ πλείονος γενομένης ἐν τοῖς Ὀινώσιντ. That the papyrus reads γενομένης in l. 5 is taken for granted by Mandilaras on the basis of the manuscript text. The end of l. 5 would be of great interest if it was better preserved, as it overlaps with a difficult word in the manuscript: Οἰνώσιν. See commentary on Cert. 230.

6-7. Cf. Cert. 230-1: ὑπονοῆσαντες οἱ νεανίσκοι τὴν ἀδελφὴν αὐτῶν μοιχεύειν τὸν Ἡσίοδον. From the position of the words νεανίσκοι (which seems to be the only entirely visible word on l. 6) and Ἡσίοδον (reasonable supplement for the only visible letters in l. 7: ΔΟΝ), and the space available for additional letters around these, Mandilaras deduces that once again the text of the Certamen does not fit the papyrus. His supplement παρθένον οὐσαν αἰσχύναι gives an idea of how much is missing.

8-10. [ἀποκτείναντες] ... κατεπόντισαν: cf. Cert. 231-2: ἀποκτείναντες εἰς τὸ μεταξὺ τῆς Εὐβοίας καὶ τῆς Λοκρίδος πέλαγος κατεπόντισαν. The corresponding sentence on the papyrus must have been more elaborate. It contained a personal pronoun that is not attested in the manuscript (l. 8: ΑΥΤΟΝ); the space between εἰς τὸ μεταξὺ and τῆς Εὐβοίας shows that, unlike in the manuscript, something is missing between these words: it is possible that some of the space was occupied by τῆς Λοκρίδος, as Mandilaras suggests, so that we would have the two geographical names in reverse order. Εὐβοίας in l. 9 is a very significant reading: it confirms, against all attempts to emend the corresponding passage in the Certamen, that according to Alcidamas the place of
Hesiod’s death was Eastern Locris. See *Cert.* 231-2n.

10-14. Ὕστερον δὲ] ... γνωρίσαν- / [τες: cf. *Cert.* 232-4: τὸ δὲ νεκρόν τριταίου πρώς τὴν γῆν ὑπὸ δελφίνων προσενεχθέντος ἑορτῆς τινὸς ἐπιχωρίου παρ’ αὐτοῖς οὐσίς Ἀριαδνείας πάντες ἐπὶ τὸν αἰγιαλὸν ἐδραμον καὶ τὸ σῶμα γνωρίσαντες [...]. The only relevant words that seem to be visible in the papyrus are τὸ νεκρόν and προσενεχθέντος in l. 10 and 11 respectively. Everything else is supplemented to give a readable text.

**P.Freib. 1.1 b (inv. 12)**

*Catalogues* = MP³ 1577; LDAB 2729; Cribiore 248.


P.Freib. 1.1 b transmits the epigram of Hesiod’s victory (*Cert.* 213-4) as the third in a group of four texts written on the *recto* of the papyrus. The others are eight comic verses, four epic hexameters and a passage from the *Iliad*. The papyrus belonged to a roll that was used as a school book; on the *recto* there are traces of mathematical exercises that were washed out to copy the anthology of verses, and the *verso* contains a lexicon of Homeric words. It is dated to the second or first century BC.

The text of the epigram as transmitted on the papyrus is identical to that in the manuscript of the *Certamen* and in most of the other sources. The context in which the epigram is cited, however, makes the contribution of this papyrus very interesting as it proves that the contest story was used in schools; the analysis of the texts with which the epigram is copied in this papyrus, then,

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148 See commentary for details.

149 P.Freib. 1.1 a Ro: MP³ 2658 (‘Exercices de fractions’) = LDAB 6902 (‘exercise in fractions’); P.Freib. 1 c: MP³ 1219 (‘Homerica, Lexique alphabétique de mots homériques en ou-’) = LDAB 5266 (‘Lexicon Homericum, alphabetic’).

150 Information on the papyrus is available in the online catalogues MP³ (1577) and LDAB (2729); first published by Aly 1914. See also Cribiore 1996: 232. An image is available at the URL: [http://www.ub.uni-freiburg.de/index.php?id=882](http://www.ub.uni-freiburg.de/index.php?id=882).
may give some suggestions as to how the story could have been used.

Below is Aly’s edition of the text.

TEXT

A. -. - - σαυτῷ λα/λείς;
δοκείς τι παρέχειν/ἐμφασίν λυπουμένως;
5 Β. ἐ/μοὶ προσανάθου· λαβέ με//σύμβουλον. [τί δ’οὖ;]
μὴ καταφθο/νήσης οἰκέτου συμβουλί/αν.
πολλάκις ὁ δούλος τοὺς/τρόπους χρηστοὺς ἔχων/
10 τῶν δεσποτῶν ἐγένεται//σαφηνέστερος.
ei δ’ή τύ/χη τὸ σῶμα κατεδο/υσατο,
ὅ γε νοὺς ὑπάρχει/τοῖς τρόποις ἔλευθερος./

5 αὐτῷ λα/λείς;
δοκεῖς τι παρέχειν/ἔμφασιν λυπουμένῳ;

Β. ἐ/μοὶ προσανάθου· λαβέ με//σύμβουλον. [τί δ’οὖ;]
μὴ καταφθο/νήσης οἰκέτου συμβουλί/αν.
πολλάκις ὁ δούλος τοὺς/τρόπους χρηστοὺς ἔχων/
10 τῶν δεσποτῶν ἐγένεται//σαφηνέστερος.
ei δ’ή τύ/χη τὸ σῶμα κατεδο/υσατο,
ὅ γε νοὺς ὑπάρχει/τοῖς τρόποις ἔλευθερος./

15 ὡς δ’ἄλλως ἀκτή ἐν//ἀλιφράντω ἐπὶ πέτρῃ/
ἀγ(κ)ίστρον δ’ ἐλικός τε/λιουχίδα μάσται’ ἀει/ρας,

20 οὐραχος (?) ἐγ λο/[φις α]παλήν τρίχα // — ~ πῶν/.

Ὑpsiόδος Μούσαις Ἑλικωνίσι/τόνδ’ ἀνέθηχεν
ὑμνῳ/ν(ι)κήσας ἐν Χαλκίδι θείον/Ομηρον. //

25 χαλκέω δ’ ἐν κεραμῷ δὲ/δετο τρεισκαιδεκα μήν(α)ζ/
καὶ νῦ κεν ἐνθ’ ἀπόλοιτο Ἀρης/ἀστος πολέμουοη/
30 εἰ μὴ μητρυὶς περικαλλής //Ἡρίβοια/
’Ἐμείς Ἐγ’γειλεν· ὁ δ’ ἐξέκλε/ψεν Ἀρη/
ηθε τειρόμενεν, χαλεπώς/δὲ ἐςεμός ἐδάμνα.

COMMENTARY

On this papyrus the epigram of the Certamen is the third in a series of four texts. The verses that open the sequence are from a lost drama from New Comedy in which a slave encourages his master to accept his counsel.151 The second text (four epic hexameters) is a simile in Homeric style.152 The contents of the verses, although the second part of the simile is badly preserved, are described by

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151 PCG VIII 1027 = CGFP 297. See also Arnott 1999: 78-9 and 2000: 486-9; attributed to Philemon or Menander.
Huxley with these words: ‘they compare, somewhat uneasily, a fisherman’s rod, baited hook and line with the notch of a spear or arrow dragging out the thin thread from a helmet’s plume through which it has passed’. The epigram of the Certamen is then followed by Iliad 5.387-91, where Dione tells the story of Ares bound by Otus and Ephialtes and helped by Eëriboia. In the Iliad this story occurs in a list of gods wounded by mortals that Dione gives to her daughter Aphrodite, who has just been wounded by Diomedes.

The relationship between these four texts and the presence of such a sequence of material in a schoolbook are not clear, but a recent study argues that three of the passages (i.e. except for the simile) describe people of inferior status who advise or overcome a person of superior status: in these texts there would be a slave who offers advice to his master, a mortal who hurts a god and an inferior poet who wins against a superior one. This suggests that the papyrus contains a list of exempla, which was possibly to be used for rhetorical exercises in schools. If this suggestion is right, the presence of the epigram of Hesiod’s victory against Homer in this context becomes significant of the way Hesiod’s victory was commonly perceived. On a general level, it shows how the story of this poetic contest could enter the repertoires of rhetoricians such as Dio Chrysostomus, Themistius and Libanius. More specifically, the fact that the story is placed among examples of inferior people who overcome their superiors shows that Hesiod’s victory was seen as a crucial, if problematic, feature of the episode. It was the final verdict more perhaps than anything else that encouraged and challenged rhetoricians and other authors to take up the story and shape it to their own purposes.

P.Duk. inv. 665 (olim P.Duk. inv. MF75 6)

Catalogues = MP3 0077.02 (antea 2860.01); LDAB 5947.


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154 Pordomingo 2010: 52.
A new papyrus has recently been added to the group of known fragments of the *Certamen*. In 2012, Giovanna Menci of the Istituto Papirologico ‘G. Vitelli’ at Florence pointed out that P.Duk. inv. 665 contains part of an epigram transmitted in the *Certamen*: the lines in question are *Certamen* 309–12, that is, the first four lines of the epigram inscribed on the statue of Homer dedicated by the Argives. The fragment, of unknown origin, transmits the text in five lines of script, the first of which is occupied by a short title (Ο[μήρου εν Αργει]). The text is on the *recto*. Menci has dated it to the sixth-seventh century AD.

This papyrus is particularly interesting and its contribution especially welcome because it is the only witness of the Argive epigram other than the *Certamen*. The fact that we can now compare two versions of the epigram helps us draw some conclusions on the selection, use and transmission of the epigrams present in the *Certamen*, and indeed of the *Certamen* itself: adaptability to new contexts and use in schools will appear once again as two of the main characteristics of this material.

Below is Menci’s edition of the text. The supplements she proposes are based on Allen’s text of the *Certamen*.

**TEXT**

1  Ο[μήρου εν Αργει

Vacuum

θείος Ομήρος οδ εστιν ος Ειλιάδα την [μεγα

λαυχόν πασαν εκοσμησ[εν καλλιεπτ[σοφιηι

| \__________________

] δ. οιαυχεα Τροιην.[η

5  ρειψαν ποιηνην ηυ]κομου Ελενης>> –[155

155 The text of the papyrus had previously been catalogued as marginal scholia: ‘Papyrus marginal scholia from Egypt. Mentions Argos, Troy and Helen.’ LDAB and MP have now been updated; cf. Menci 2012: 43 n. 3.

156 URL: http://library.duke.edu/rubenstein/scriptorium/papyrus/records/665.html. Information about the papyrus is available in the online catalogues MP (0077.02) and LDAB (5947); first published by Menci 2012. An image (72 and 150 dpi) is available at the URL above; reproduction in Menci 2012.
Vacuum vel margo?

For the sake of clarity and following Menci’s example, I reproduce here the corresponding text in the Certamen:

θείος Ὄμηρος ὃδ’ ἐστίν ὃς Ἑλλάδα τὴν μεγάλαυχον
310 πάσαν ἐκόσμησεν καλλιεπεί σοφίης,
ἐξοχὰ δ’ Ἀργείους, οὐ τὴν θεοτειχέα Τροίην
ἡσείπαν ποινὴν ἡμύκόμου Ἑλένης.

COMMENTARY

The first relevant peculiarity of the papyrus text is that at l. 4 it transmits a variant reading: while the Certamen reads θεοτειχέα (‘built by a god’), the papyrus gives the reading ῥιαυχέα that has been supplemented by the editor as ἐριαυχέα (‘greatly glorious’). This case of variation is especially interesting because both words seem to be attested nowhere else. The two variants also show how the epigram could be adapted to different contexts and respond to different traditions. The papyrus reading ἐριαυχέα seems to be suitable for a school context. It creates a balance between the two sides of the Trojan war, each qualified with a compound of αὔχη, ‘pride’: Ἑλλάδα τὴν μεγάλαυχον and τὴν ἐριαυχέα Τροίην. This correspondence between ἐριαυχέα, a hapax, and μεγάλαυχον, an attested adjective, can also aim at explaining the meaning of the former on the basis of the latter. Moreover, ἐριαυχέα is very similar in sound with a Homeric word, ἐριαύχην (an epithet for horses, ‘with large neck’): this similarity may have had a role in the creation of the hapax and we may see this as a didactic game on Homeric vocabulary. On the other hand, it may also

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157 Menci 2012: 46: ‘L’alternativa al tradito θεοτειχέα («con le mura costruite da un dio»), che è hapax legomenon, sembra proprio un altro hapax, ἐριαυχέα («grandemente gloriosa»). Menci 2012: 45: ‘in un papiro che conserva soltanto sei parole pressoché intere, di cui tre nomi propri, è presente sicuramente una variante di un hapax (θεοτειχέα), che è a sua volta hapax (r. 4, ἐριαυχέα); ciò potrebbe dunque accordarsi con l’impressione che si ha da almeno tre degli altri quattro papiri testimoni del Certamen, e cioè la libertà di trattamento che caratterizza testi di questo genere, appartenenti alla letteratura di consumo o scolastica.’
be noted that θεοτειχέα puts the maximum emphasis on the achievement of the Argives by saying that the walls they destroyed were a creation of the gods, and this makes it fit the encomiastic context of the corresponding passage in the Certamen. However, some readers may have objected that what is built by the gods cannot be destroyed by men: ἐριαυχέα may therefore have worked as a corrective reading. The presence of ἐριαυχέα in place of θεοτειχέα may also correspond to a tradition about the Trojan walls according to which they were not built entirely by the gods. In Il. 6.433-4 Andromache mentions a point on the wall that is particularly vulnerable and open to assault; Pindar (Ol. 8.31-46), referring perhaps to this very passage, says that a portion of the wall was built by a mortal rather than by Apollo and Poseidon.

The papyrus also shows that the epigram could circulate in longer or shorter versions. The editor suggests that the quotation of the epigram on the papyrus may be limited to the first four lines. The longer version of the Certamen may be an innovation designed to emphasise the quasi-divine status that Homer has achieved at this point in the narrative.

The fragment may have been part of a roll that contained a collection of epigrams. Although it is later than the assumed time of the composition of the Certamen, it suggests how biographical compilations such as the Certamen may have come into being: authors used material that was available in collections, on which they could draw to enrich and shape the text. The fact that P.Duk. inv.

158 In the Certamen the Argives feel honoured by a passage which Homer performs at Argos and pay him back with signs of divine respect. See esp. Cert. 302-8.
159 See further Graziosi and Haubold 2010: 33 and 202.
160 Menci 2012: 43: ‘...il r. 5 termina con due diplai e un tratto orizzontale la cui funzione potrebbe essere, oltre che riempitiva, indicativa della fine del testo.’
161 Menci (2012: 45) ‘Le peculiarità paleografiche di P.Duk. inv. 665 suggeriscono una copia ad uso privato; la particolare mise en page indirizza verso l’ipotesi di un frammento di rotolo contenente una raccolta di passi, in particolare di epigrammi, destinata alla scuola; tuttavia non si può escludere la possibilità di un foglio isolato.’
665 was probably meant for school use suggests that much of this process took place in school environments.

Note

This edition is based on an inspection of the digital images of the manuscript available online on the website of the Biblioteca Medicea Laurenziana:

http://opac.bml.firenze.sbn.it/Manuscript.htm?Segnatura=Plut.56.1

The line numbers are Allen’s.

Sigla

L = Laur. Plut. 56, 1

Editions

Homer. Cambridge (MA).

Earlier editions consulted:


Other critical studies mentioned in the apparatus are cross-referenced to the Bibliography.
Περὶ Ὁμήρου καὶ Ὁσιόδου καὶ τοῦ γένους καὶ ἀγώνος αὐτῶν

1 Ὁμήρον καὶ Ὁσιόδος τοὺς θειότάτους ποιητὰς πάντες ἀνθρώποι πολίτας ὑδίους εὑχονται λέγεσθαι. ἀλλ’ Ὁσιόδος μὲν τὴν ἴδιαν ὀνομάσας πατρίδα πάντας τῆς φιλονεικίας ἀπηλλαξέν εἰπών ὡς ὁ πατήρ αὐτοῦ:

5 εἴσατο δ’ ἄγχ’ Ἐλικώνος ὀίξυρη ἐνί κώμη Ἀσκοφή, χείμα κακῆ, θέρει ἀργαλέη, οὐδὲ ποτ’ ἐσθλῆ.

Ὁμήρον δὲ πάσαι ὡς εἰπτείν αἰ πόλεις καὶ οἱ ἐποικοὶ αὐτῶν παρ’ ἐαυτοῖς γεγενήθηκαί λέγουσιν. καὶ πρῶτοι γε Σμυρναῖοι Μέλητος ὄντα τοῦ παρ’ αὐτοῖς ποταμοῦ καὶ

10 Κρηθίδος νύμφης κεκλήθησαί φασὶ πρότερον Μελησιγενῆ, ύστερον μέντοι τυφλωθέντα Ὁμήρον μετονομασθήναι διὰ τὴν παρ’ αὐτοῖς ἐπὶ τῶν τοιούτων συνήθη προσηγορίαιν. Χιοὶ δὲ πάλιν τεκμήρια φέρουσιν ἱδιον εἶναι πολίτην λέγοντες καὶ περισώζεσθαι τινας ἐκ τοῦ γένους αὐτοῦ παρ’ αὐτοῖς Ἀγγέλων πολιτικῶν παρ’ αὐτὸς Μελησιγενῆς. Κολοφώνιοι δὲ καὶ τόπον δεικνύουσιν, ἐν ὃ φασὶν αὐτὸν γράμματα διδάσκοντα τῆς ποιήσεως ἀρξασθαι καὶ ποιήσαι πρῶτον τὸν Μαργίτην.


περί δὲ τῶν γονέων αὐτοῦ πάλιν πολλῆ διαφωνία παρὰ πᾶσιν ἐστὶν. Ἐλλάνικος <4 F 5c = fr. 5 Fowler> μὲν γὰρ καὶ Κλεάνθης<fr. 592 Arnim; cf. et 84 F 40> Μαίονα λέγουσιν, Ἐυγαίων <535 F 2 = 2 Fowler> δὲ Μέλιτα, Καλλικής <758 F 13c> δὲ †Μασαγόραν, Δημόκριτος δὲ <ό> Τροιζήνιος <Suppl. Hell. 378> Δαήμονα ἐμπορὸν, ἑνὶ δὲ Θαμύραν, Αἰγύπτιοι
dὲ Μενέμαχον ιερογραμματέα, εἰσὶ δὲ οἱ Τηλέμαχον τὸν Ὁδυσσέως: μητέρα δὲ οἱ μὲν Μήτιν, οἱ δὲ Κρηθηίδα,
οἱ δὲ Θεμίτην, οἱ δὲ Εὐγνηθῷ, ἑνὶ δὲ Ἰδακησίαν τίνα ὑπὸ Φοινίκων ἀπεμπολήθεισάν, οἱ δὲ Καλλιότην τὴν Μου-
σᾶν, τινὲς δὲ Πολυκάστην τὴν Νέστορος. ἐκαλεῖτο δὲ Μέλις, ὡς δὲ τινὲς φασὶ Μελησιγνηθῆς, ὡς <Δ> ἑνὶ
Αὐλητῆς, ὄνομασθήναι <Δ> αὐτὸν φασὶ τινὲς Ὄμηρον διὰ τὸ
tὸν πατέρα αὐτοῦ ὁμηρον δοθήναι ὑπὸ Κυπρίων Πέρσας, οἱ

S E 21 †Μασαγόραν Wilamowitz : Δμασαγόραν Barnes Westermann Allen
Colonna West (coll. Eust. Od. 1713.17) Μασαγόραν Rzach Evelyn-White
ιερογραμματέα: ε in ras. L rest. Nauck (coll. Tz. Alleg. 60) : προγραμματέα S
in marg. Nietzsche 25 Θεμίστην S edd. Θεμιστός Barnes (coll. Paus. 10.24);
Εὐγνηθῶς: Ἄρνηθω Westermann edd. (coll. Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.1) praeter
Nietzsche Evelyn-White; Ἰδακησίαν Rzach 28 Μελησιγνῆς edd. 29 αὐλητήν
L : Ἀλτής Welcker (1835 I: 149) edd. (coll. Schol. T Il. 22.51) 29-30 post φασὶ et
αὐτοῦ dist. L

93
δὲ διὰ τὴν πίρρωσιν τῶν ὀμμάτων· παρὰ γὰρ τοῖς Αἰολεύσιν οὕτως οἱ πηροί καλοῦνται. ὅπερ δὲ ἀκηκόαμεν ἐπὶ τοῦ θειοτάτου αὐτοκράτορος Ἀδριανοῦ εἰσημένον ὑπὸ τῆς Πυθίας περὶ Ὄμήρου, ἐκθησόμεθα. τοῦ γὰρ βασιλέως πυθόμενου πόθεν Ὅμηρος καὶ τῖνος, ἀπεφοίβασε δι᾽ ἑξαμέτρου τόνδε τὸν τρόπον.

ἀγνωστὸν μὲ ἔφει γενείη καὶ πατρίδα γαῖαν ἀμβροσίου σειρήνος. ἕδεις δ’ Ἱθακήσιώς ἔστιν, Τηλέμαχος δὲ πατήρ καὶ Νεστορέη Ἐπικάστη μήτηρ, ἢ μιν ἔτικτε βροτῶν πολὺ πάνσοφον ἄνδρα.

οἷς μάλιστα δεῖ πιστεύειν διὰ τε τὸν πυθόμενον καὶ τὸν ἀποκρινάμενον, ἄλλως τε ὑπάρχως τοῦ ποιήτου μεγαλοφυνός τὸν προπάτορά διὰ τῶν ἐπών δεδοξακότος.

37-40 AP 14.102 37 ἔφει γενείης καὶ πατρίδος αἵης AP 38 Ἱθάκη τις Ὅμηρος AP 39 Πολυκάστη AP 40 πολυπάνσοφον ἄλλως AP

33 Ἀδριανοῦ L corr. S in marg. 39 Πολυκάστη Nietzsche in app. West (coll. Od. 3.464 et Cert. 27) 40 πέρι πάνσοφον West
ἔνιοι μὲν οὖν αὐτὸν προγενέστερον Ἁσιόδου φασίν
εἶναι, τινὲς δὲ νεώτερον καὶ συγγενῆ. γενεαλογοῦσι δὲ
οὕτως: Ἀπόλλωνος φασὶ καὶ Θοώσης τῆς Ποσειδώνος
gενέσθαι Λίνον, Λίνου δὲ Πίερον, Πιέρου δὲ καὶ νύμφης
Μεθώνης Οἰαγροῦ, Οἰαγροῦ δὲ καὶ Καλλιόπης Ὀρφέα,
Ὀρφέως δὲ Ὄρτην, τοῦ δὲ Ἀρμονίδην, τοῦ δὲ Φιλοσέρπην,
tοῦ δὲ Εὐφήμου, τοῦ δὲ Ἐπιφράδην, τοῦ δὲ Μελάνωπον,
tούτου δὲ Δίου καὶ Ἀπέλλαιον, Δίου δὲ καὶ Πυκιμῆδης τῆς
Ἀπόλλωνος θυγατρὸς Ἁσιόδου καὶ Πέρσην. Πέρσου δὲ Μαῖω-
να, Μαίονος δὲ θυγατρὸς καὶ Μέλητος τοῦ ποταμοῦ Ὄμηρον.


τινές δὲ συνακμᾶσαι φασίν αὐτοῖς ἕστε καὶ ἀγωνίσασθαι

55 ὡμόσε <γενομένους> ἐν Αὐλίδι τῆς Βοιωτίας. ποιήσαντα γὰρ τὸν Μαργίτην

᾿Ομηρον περιέχεσθαι κατὰ πόλιν ὁμοφωντα, ἐλθόντα δὲ καὶ εἰς Δελφοὺς περὶ τῆς πατρίδος αὐτοῦ πυρκαζόμεθα τὸς ἔφη, τὴν δὲ Πυθίαν εἰπεῖν·

ἐστιν Ἰος νήσος μητρὸς πατρίς, ἢ σε θανόντα

60 δὲ ἀκούσαντα περιώστασθαι μὲν τὴν εἰς Ἰον ἀφιεῖν, διατρίβειν δὲ περὶ τὴν ἐκεῖ χώμαν. κατὰ δὲ τὸν αὐτὸν

59-60 AP 14.65; Paus. 10.24; Procl. Vit. Hom. 5; St. Byz. s.v. Ἰος; Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom.

1.4 60 παίδων: ἄνδρων Ps.-Plu. Procl.

χρόνον Γανύκτωρ ἐπιτάφιον τοῦ πατρὸς Ἀμφιδάμαντος
βασιλέως Ἑυβοίας ἐπιτελῶν πάντας τοὺς ἐπισήμους ἄνδρας
οὐ μόνον ὅμη καὶ τάχει, ἀλλὰ καὶ σοφία ἐπὶ τὸν ἁγῶνα
μεγάλαις δωρεάις τιμῶν συνεκάλεσεν. καὶ οὐτοὶ οὗν ἐκ
tύχης, ὡς φασί, συμβαλόντες ἀλλήλοις ἠλθον εἰς τὴν
Χαλκίδα. τοῦ δὲ ἁγῶνος ἄλλοι τέ τινες τῶν ἐπισήμων
Χαλκιδῶν ἐκαθέζοντο κριταὶ καὶ μετ’ αὐτῶν Πανοίδης,
ἀδελφὸς ὡν τοῦ τετελευτηκότος, ἀμφοτέρων δὲ τῶν ποιη-
tῶν θαυμαστῶς ἀγανισσαμένων νικήσαι φασί τὸν Ἡσίοδον
τὸν τρόπον τοῦτον· προελθόντα γάρ εἰς τὸ μέσον πυθάνε-
σθαι τοῦ Ὄμηρου καθ’ ἐν ἐκαστον, τὸν δὲ Ὅμηρον ἀποκρί-

69-102 cf. P.Petr. I 25 (1) 69 Πανήδης P.Petr. I 25 (1) l. 4

63 Γανύκτωρ L 69 Πανείδης Hermann (1835: 151) Nietzsche Evelyn-White
Πανήδης Rzach Allen Wilamowitz Colonna Avezzù West (coll. P.Petr. I 25)
νιε Μέλητος Ὄμηρε θεών ἀπο μήδεα εἰδῶς
eἰπ’ ἀγε μοι πάμπρωτα τί φέρτατον ἐστι βροτοῖσιν;

Ὅμηρος·

ἀρχὴν μὲν μὴ φύναι ἐπιχθονίοισιν ἄριστον,
φύντα δ’ ὦμοις ὡκιστα πύλας Αἴδαο περήσαι.

Ὡσίδος τὸ δεύτερον·
eἰπ’ ἀγε μοι καὶ τούτο θεοῖς ἐπιείκειν Ὅμηρε,
tί θνητοῖς κάλλιστον οἶεα ἐν φρεσίν εἶναι;

ὁ δὲ·

ὅπποτ’ ἂν εὐφροσύνῃ μὲν ἔχῃ κατὰ δήμον ἀπαντα,

δαινυμόνες δ’ ἂν δόματι ἂκουάξανται ἀοιδοῦ
épo μεν ἔξεις, παρὰ δὲ πλήθωσι τράπεζα
σῖτον καὶ κρεῖων, μέθυ δ’ ἐκ κρητήρος ἀφύσαν
οἶνοχῶς φορέσαι καὶ ἐγχείῃ δεπάσσων.
tοῦτό τί μοι κάλλιστον ἐνι φρεσίν εἰδεταί εἶναι.

78-9 Thgn. 425 + 427; Stob. 4.52.22; P.Petr. I 25 (ll. 12-5) 78 ἄρχην: πάντων Thgn.
79 ὡπως Thgn. Stob. P.Petr. I 25 84-89 Od. 9.6-11 84 ὥπποτ’ ἂν εὐφροσύνῃ: ἢ
ὅτ’ εὐφροσύνῃ Od. 9.6 89 εἰδεται: φαίνεται P.Petr. I 25 (ll. 27-8).

79 ὡπως Nietzsche Rzach Wilamowitz Evelyn-White (coll. Thgn. 425) 82
18)
οἱ θεόντων δὲ τῶν ἐπῶν, οὕτω σφοδρῶς φασὶ θαυ-
μασθῆναι ὑπὸ τῶν Ἕλληνων τοὺς στίχους ἄστε χρυσοὺς
αὐτοὺς προσαγορευθῆναι, καὶ ἔτι καὶ νῦν ἐν ταῖς κοιναῖς
θυσίαις πρὸ τῶν δειπνῶν καὶ σπονδῶν προκατεύχεσθαι
πάντας, ὁ δὲ Ἡσιόδος ἀχθεσθείς ἐπὶ τῇ Ὀμήρου εὐημερίᾳ
ἐπὶ τὴν τῶν ἀπόρων ὀρμησθεὶς ἐπερώτησιν καὶ φησι τούσδε
τοὺς στίχους:

Μοῦσ’ ἀγε μοι τὰ τ’ ἐόντα τά τ’ ἐσσόμενα πρὸ τ’ ἐόντα
tῶν μὲν μηδὲν ἀείδε, σὺ δ’ ἄλλης μνήσαι ἀοιδῆς.
ὁ δὲ Ὀμήρος βουλόμενος ἀκολούθως τὸ ἀπορον λύσαι φησίν:

οὐδὲ ποτ’ ἀμφὶ Διὸς τῷ βω καναχήποδες ἵπποι
ἄρματα συντρίψουσιν ἐρίζοντες περὶ νίκης.


καλώς δὲ καὶ ἐν τούτοις ἀπαντήσαντος ἐπὶ τὰς ἀμφιβολους γνώμας ἠφίσθην ὁ Ἡσιόδος, καὶ πλείονας στίχους λέγων ἥξιον καθ’ ἕνα ἐκαστὸν συμφάνως ἀποκρίνασθαι τὸν Ὅμηρον.

105 ἔστιν οὖν ὁ μὲν πρώτος Ἡσιόδου, ὁ δὲ ἐξῆς Ὅμηρου, ἐνίοτε δὲ καὶ διὰ δύο στίχους τὴν ἐπερώτησιν ποιούμενον τοῦ Ἡσιόδου·

Hes. δεῖπνον ἐπείθ’ εἰλοντο βοῶν κρέα καὶ λέων ἐπιπλοῦν.

Hom. ἐκλυον ἠδρώντας, ἐπεὶ πολέμου κορέσθην.

Hes. καὶ Φρύγες, οἱ πάντων ἀνδρῶν ἐπὶ νησίων ἀριστοί

110 Hom. ἀνδράσι ληστῆσιν ἐπὶ ἀκτῆς δόρπων ἐλέσθαι.

Hes. χερσὶ βαλῶν ἱοίσιν ὀλῶν κατὰ φύλα γιγάντων

Hom. Ἡρακλῆς ἀπέλυσεν ἀπ᾿ ὀμοίων καμπύλα τόξα.

107-8 Ar. Pax 1282-3 107 δείπνον ἐπείθ’ εἰλοντο: ὡς οἱ μὲν δαίνυντο Ar. 108 ἐπεὶ πολέμου ἐκόρεσθεν Ar.

Hes. οὗτος ἄνηρ ἀνδρός τ’ ἀγαθοῦ καὶ ἀνάλκιδός ἐστι
Hom. μητρός, ἔπει πόλεμος χαλεπῶς πᾶσηι γυναιξίν.

115 Hes. οὔτ’ ἂρ σοί γε πατήρ ἐμίγη καὶ πότνια μήτηρ
Hom. ἃσωμα τὸ γ’ ἐσπείραντο διὰ χρυσῆν Αφροδίτην.
Hes. αὐτάρ ἔπει δμήθη γάμῳ Αρτέμις ιοχέαιρα
Hom. Καλλιστῶ κατέπεφνεν ἀπ’ ἀργυρέοιο βιοίκο.
Hes. ὡς οἱ μὲν δαίνυντο πανήμεροι, οὐδὲν ἐχοντες

120 Hom. οἴκοθεν, ἄλλα παρεῖχεν ἄναξ ἀνδρῶν Αγαμέμνων.
Hes. δεῖπνον δειπνήσαντες ἐνι σποδῷ αἰθαλοεσση
Hes. σύλλεγον ὅστεα λευκὰ Διός κατατεθνεῖτος
Hom. παῖδος υπερθύμοι Σαρπιδόνος ἀντιθείοιο.
Hes. ἢμεῖς δ’ ἂμ πεδίον Σιμοόντιον ἠμοιοί oὔτως

125 Hes. ἰόμεν ἐκ νηῆν ὡδὸν ἀμφ’ ἡμοιοιν ἐχοντες
Hom. φάσαγαν κατήκνεντα καὶ αἰγανέας δολιχαύλους.

Hes. δὴ τὸτ’ ἀριστῆς κούροι χείρεσσι θαλάσσης
Hom. ἀσμενοι ἐσσυμένως τε ἀπείρυσαν ὡκύαλον ναῦν.
Hes. κολχίδ’ ἐπειτ’ ἦγοντο καὶ Αἰήτην βασιλῆα
Hom. φεύγον, ἐπεὶ γίγνωσκον ἀνέστιον ἢ’ ἀθέμιστον.
Hes. αὐτὰρ ἐπεὶ σπείρσάν τε καὶ ἔκπιον οἴδμα θαλάσσης
Hom. ποντοπορεῖν ἠμέλλον ἐυσέλμων ἐπὶ νηῶν.
Hes. τοίσιν δ’ Ἀτρείδης μεγάλ’ εὔχετο πάσιν ὀλέσθαι
Hom. μηδὲ ποτ’ ἐν πόντῳ, καὶ φωνήσας ἔπος ηὔδα.
130
Hom. ἐσθιετ’ ὦ ξεῖνοι, καὶ πίνετε· μηδὲ τὶς ὑμὸν
Hes. οἰκάδε νοστήσεις φίλην ἐς πατρίδα γαῖαν
Hom. πημανθεῖς, ἀλλ’ αὕτης ἀπήμονες οἰκαδ’ ίκοισθε.

127 ἀριστή L corr. S 129 ἐπειθ’ ἴκοντο L corr. Wilamowitz Rzach Evelyn-White
West; βασιλεία L 132 ἐυσέλμων edd. 133-7 sic Goettling Evelyn-White Di
Hermann, 133-136 Hesiodo 137 Homero Nietzsche, 134 καὶ φωνήσας ἔπος
ηὔδα Hesiodo Busse Rzach Wilamowitz
πρὸς πάντα δὲ τοῦ ጃμήρου καλῶς ἀπαντήσαντος πάλιν φησίν ὁ Ὁσίοδος·
140 τοῦτο τι δὴ μοι μοῦνον ἑιθομένῳ κατάλεξον, 
πόσοι ἀμ’ Ἀτρείδησιν ἐς Ἰλιον ἠλθον Ἀχαιοῖ; 
ό δὲ διὰ λογιστικοῦ προβλήματος ἀποκρίνεται οὕτως: 
πεντήκοντ’ ἦσαν πυρὸς ἑσχάραι, ἐν δὲ ἕκαστῃ 
πεντήκοντ’ ὀβελοῖ, περὶ δὲ κρέα πεντήκοντα·
145 τρὶς δὲ τριηκόσιοι περὶ ἐν κρέας ἦσαν Ἀχαιοὶ.
τοῦτο δὲ εὑρίσκεται πλῆθος ἀπιστοῦ· τῶν γὰρ ἑσχάρων 
οὐσῶν πεντήκοντα ὀβελίσκοι γίνονται πεντακόσιοι καὶ 
148 χιλιάδες β’, κρεών δὲ δεκαδύο μυριάδες ἐς ἔυν̣ ῖν̣ κατὰ

142 ὁ δὲ ጃμήρος Barnes Goettling 146-8 interpolationem stat. West 148 ἐ***
Westermann Nietzsche Rzach Allen Colonna <χιλιάδες> ἐ Boissonade 
Wilamowitz <καὶ χιλιάδες> ἐς ἔυν̣ ῖν̣ West
πάντα δή τοῦ Ὄμηρου ὑπερτερούντος φθονῶν ὁ Ἡσίοδος

150 ἀρχεται πάλιν.

ψιέ Μέλητος Ὅμηρ’ εἰ περ τιμῶσι σε Μοῦσαι,

ὡς λόγος, ψύστοιο Δίος μεγάλοιο θύγατρες,

λέξον μέτρῳ ἐναρμόζων ὁ τι δὴ θνητοίσι

κάλλιστόν <τε> καὶ ἔχθιστον- <πο>θέω γὰρ ἀκούσαι.

155 ὁ δὲ φησι·

Ἡσίοδ’ ἐκγονε Διοῦ ἐκόντα με ταύτα κελεύεις

εἰπεῖν· αὐτὰρ ἐγὼ μάλα τοι πρόφρων ἄγορέυσοι.

κάλλιστον μὲν τῶν ἁγαθῶν ἐσται μέτρον εἶναι

αὐτὸν ἐστι, τῶν δὲ κακῶν ἔχθιστον ἀπάντων.

160 ἀλλο δὲ πάν ὁ τι σῷ θυμῷ φίλον ἐστίν ἐρώτα.

Hes. πῶς ἂν ἀριστ’ οἰκοίντο πόλεις καὶ ἐν ἡθεσὶ ποίοις;

Hom. ἐἰ μὴ κερδαίνειν ἀπὸ τῶν αἰσχρῶν ἐθέλοιεν,

οἱ δ’ ἁγαθοὶ τιμῶντο, δίκη δ’ ἁδίκοισιν ἐπείη.

152 ψύστοι L corr. S in marg. 153 μέτρον L corr. Barnes Wilamowitz West;

ἐναρμόζων L corr. Boissonade edd. 154 <τε> S <πο>θέω: θέω L ἴσως ποθέω S

in marg. post 159 versum 165 pos. SE lacunam stat. Nietzsche Rzach 163

tιμοίντο LSE post 163 lacunam stat. Hermann
Hes. εὖχεσθαι δὲ θεοίς ὃ τι πάντων ἐστὶν ἀμεινον;

165 Hom. εὐνοοῦν εἶναι ἑαυτῷ <ἀεὶ> χρόνον ἐς τὸν ἄπαντα.
Hes. ἐν δ' ἐλαχίστῳ ἄριστον ἐχεῖς ὃ τι φύεται εἰπεῖν;
Hom. ὡς μὲν ἡ γνώμη φρένες ἐσθλαί σώμασιν ἀνδρῶν.
Hes. ἢ δὲ δικαιοσύνη τε καὶ ἀνδρεία δύναται τί;
Hom. κοινὰς ὑφελίας ἰδίως μόχθοις πορίζειν.

170 Hes. τῆς σοφίας δὲ τί τέκμαρ ἐπὶ ἀνθρώποις πέφυκεν;
Hom. γιγνώσκειν τὰ παρόντ' ὅρθως, καὶ ἔμ' ἐπεσθαί.
Hes. πιστεύομαι δὲ βροτοίς ποιόν χρέος ἀξίων ἐστίν;
Hom. οἰς αὐτοῖς κίνδυνος ἐπὶ πραχθείσιν ἐπιταί.
Hes. ἢ δ' εὐδαιμονία τί ποτ' ἀνθρώποις καλεῖται;
Hom. λυπηθέντ' ἐλάχιστα θανεῖν ἢ σθέντα <τε> πλεῖστα.

ὁρθέντων δὲ καὶ τούτων, οί μὲν Ἑλληνες πάντες τὸν Ὄμηρον ἐκέλευον στεφανοῦν, ὁ δὲ βασιλεὺς Πανοίδης ἐκέλευσεν ἕκαστον τὸ κάλλιστον ἐκ τῶν ἴδιων ποιημάτων εἰπεῖν. Ἡσίοδος οὖν ἐφη πρῶτος·

180 Πλημάδων Ἀτλαγενέων ἐπιτελλομενάων ἀρχεσθ’ ἀμήτου, ἀρότοι τε δυσομενάων· αἰ δή τοι νύκτας τε καὶ ἡματα τεσσαράκοντα κεκρύφαται, αὖθις δὲ περιπλομένου ἐνιαυτοῦ φαίνονται, τὰ πρώτα χαρασσομένοιο σιδήρου.

185 οὕτος τοι πεδίων πέλεται νόμος, οἴ τε θαλάσσης ἐγγύθι ναιετάουσ’, οἵ τε θαλάσσης ἐγγύθι ναιετάουσ’. οἵ τε ἄγκεα βησσήεντα πόντου κυμαίνοντος ἀπόπροθι πίονα χῶρον ναίουσιν· γυμνὸν σπείρειν, γυμνὸν δὲ βοωτεῖν, γυμνὸν τ’ ἀμάειν, ὅτ’ ἀν ὥρια πάντα πέλωνται.

189 εἰ χ’ ὥρια πάντ’ ἐθέλησθα Hes. Op. 392

190 μεθ' ὧν Ὄμηρος:

ἀμφὶ δ' ἄρ' Ἀϊάντας δοιοὺς ἱσταντο φάλαγγες
καρτεραὶ, ἂς οὔτ' ἢν κεν Ἄρης ὀνόσαιτο μετελθὼν
οὔτε κ' Ἀθηναίη λαοσσός, οἱ γὰρ ἀριστοὶ
κρινθέντες Τρώας τε καὶ Ἑκτορὰ δίον ἐμμυνον

195 φράξαντες δόρυ δουρί, σάκος σάκει προθελύμνη-
ἀστίς ἄρ' ἀστιὴ ἔρειδε, κόρυς κόρυν, ἀνέρα δ' ἀνήρ,
ψαῦν δ' ἵπποκομοι κόρυθες λαμπροῦσα φάλοισι

νευόντων· ἡς τικνοὶ ἐφέστασαν ἀλλήλουσιν
ἔφριξεν δὲ μάχη φθεισίμβροτος ἐγχείησι

200 μακραῖς, ὡς εἶχον ταμεσίχροας, ὡςτε δ' ἀμερδεν
αὐγὴ χαλκεὶς κορύθων ἀπὸ λαμπμομενῶν
θρήκως τε νεοσμήκτων σακέων τε φαεινῶν
ἐρχομένων ἀμυδῆς. μάλιν κεν ἀρασυκάρδιος εἰὴ

ὡς τότε γηθήσειεν ἰδὼν πόνον οὔτ' ἀκάχοιτο.


196 ἀστίς δ' ἄρ' L corr. edd. (coll. Il. 13.131): ἀστις δ' Allen 199
φθεισίμβροτος Rzach Colonna Avezzù
θαυμάσαντες δὲ καὶ ἐν τούτῳ τὸν Ὄμηρον οἱ Ἑλληνες ἐπίνουν, ὡς παρὰ τὸ προσήκον γεγονότων τῶν ἑπών, καὶ ἐκέλευον διδόναι τὴν νίκην. ὁ δὲ βασιλεὺς τὸν Ἡσίόδον ἐστεφάνωσεν εἰπών δίκαιον εἶναι τὸν ἐπὶ γεωργίαν καὶ εἰρήνην προκαλούμενον νικάν, οὐ τὸν πολέμους καὶ σφαγάς
dieξιόντα. τής μὲν οὖν νίκης οὕτω φασὶ τυχεῖν τὸν Ἡσίοδον καὶ λαβόντα τρίποδα χαλκοῦν ἀναθείναι ταῖς Μούσαις ἐπιγράψαντα· Ἡσίοδος Μούσαις Ἑλικωνίσι τόνδ’ ἀνέθηκεν ἠμιν ἡμικήσας ἐν Χαλκίδι θείον Ὅμηρον
tοῦ δὲ ἀγώνος διαλυθέντος διέπλευσεν ὁ Ἡσίοδος εἰς Δελφοὺς χρησόμενος καὶ τῆς νίκης ἀπαρχῆς τῷ θεῷ ἀναθήσων. προσερχομένου δὲ αὐτοῦ τῷ θεῷ ἀπαρχῆς τῇς νίκης ἀπαρχῆς τοῦ θεοῦ ἐνθεόν γενομένην τὴν προφήτην φασίν εἰπεῖν· ὃῦν δοῦτος ἀνήρ ὃς ἐμὸν δόμον ἀμφιπολέει, ἱστος ἀνθρόποις τῇς νίκης ἀδικοροῦσιν· τοῦ δ’ ἦτοι κλέος ἐσται ὡς τ’ ἐπικίδναται ἡμῖν. ἀλλὰ Δίως πεφύλαξεν Νεμείου κάλλιμον ἄλσος· κεῖθι δὲ τοι θανάτῳ τέλος πεπρωμένου ἐστίν.

213-14 AP 7.53, Procl. Vit. Hom. 6, D. Chr. Or. 2.11, P.Freib. 1.1b 213 ἀνέθηκα AP
219-23 Tz. Vita Hesiodi 166-70 Colonna

210 οὕτως West 221 τοῦ δή τοι L corr. Nietzsche West : τοῦ δ’ ἦ τοι Allen Rzach Wilamowitz Colonna; ὡς Σ Nietzsche Rzach Wilamowitz

108
ὁ δὲ Ἡσίοδος ἀκούσας τοῦ χρησμοῦ, τῆς Πελοποννήσου

μὲν ἀνεχώρει νομίσας τὴν ἑκεῖ Νεμέαν τὸν θεόν λέγειν,
eis δὲ Οἰνόην τῆς Λοκρίδος ἔλθὼν καταλύει παρ’ Ἀμφι-
φάνει καὶ Γανύκτορι, τοῖς Φηγέως παισίν, ἀγνοῆσας τὸ
μαντεῖον. ὁ γὰρ τόπος οὗτος ἅπας ἐκαλεῖτο Διὸς Νεμείου
ἱερὸν. διατριβής δὲ αὐτῷ πλείονος γενομένης ἐν τοῖς

‡Οἰνώσιν † ὑπονοήσαντες οἱ νεανίσκοι τὴν ἀδελφὴν αὐτῶν
μοιχεύειν τὸν Ἡσίοδον, ἀποκτείναντες εἰς τὸ μεταξὺ τῆς
Εὐβοίας καὶ τῆς Λοκρίδος πέλαγος κατεπόντισαν. τοῦ δὲ
νεκροῦ τριταίου πρὸς τὴν γῆν ὑπὸ δελφίνων προσενεχ-
θέντος ἑορτῆς τινος ἐπιχωρίου παρ’ αὐτοῖς ὑπὸ Ἀριαδνείας

πάντες ἐπὶ τὸν αἰγιαλὸν ἐδραμον καὶ τὸ σῶμα γνωρίσαντες
ἐκεῖνο μὲν πενθήσαντες ἐθαψαν, τοὺς δὲ φονεῖς ἀνεζήτουν.


226 Οἰνεῶνα Westermann Avezzù 230 Οἰνοεύσιν Friedel (1878-9: 236) Allen
Rzach Colonna West Οἰνεωνείσιν Sauppe (1850: 155) Nietzsche Avezzù
Οἰνεῶσιν Goettling ἐν τῷ Οἰνεῶνι in app. Westermann 231-2 τῆς Βολίνας (vel
tῆς Εὐπαλίας) καὶ τῆς Μολυκρίας in app. Nietzsche τῆς Μολυκρίας καὶ τῆς
Λοκρίδος Goettling τῆς Ἀχαίας καὶ τῆς Λοκρίδος Westermann Evelyn-White
οί δὲ φοβηθέντες τὴν τῶν πολιτῶν ὀργὴν κατασπάσαντες ἀλιευτικὸν σκάφος διέπλευσαν εἰς Κρήτην. οὐς κατὰ μέσον τὸν πλοῦν ὁ Ζεὺς κεφαυνώσας κατεπόντωσεν, ὡς φησιν Ἀλκαδάμας ἐν Μουσείῳ. Ἐρατοσθένης δὲ φησιν ἐν Ἐνηπόδω Κτίμενον καὶ Ἀντιφόν τοὺς Γανύκτορος ἐπὶ τῇ προειρημένῃ αὐτία ἀνελόντας σφαγιασθήναι θεοῖς <τοῖς> ξενίοις ὑπ’ Ἕλλαδι οὐ κεραυνώσας κατεπόντωσεν, ὡς Ἡσιόδος Δημώδους ὁνομα· ὁν καὶ αὐτὸν ἀναφερθῆναι ὑπὸ τῶν αὐτῶν φησιν. ὡστερον δὲ Ὀρχομένοι κατὰ χρησιμόν μετενέγκαντες αὐτὸν παρ’ αὐτοῖς ἔθαψαν καὶ ἐπέγραψαν ἐπὶ τῷ τάφῳ· Ἀσκοὴ μὲν πατρίς πολυλήμος, ἀλλὰ θανόντος ὡστέα πληξίππων γῇ Μινυῶν κατέχει Ἡσιόδου, τοῦ πλείστου ἐν ἀνθρώποις κλέος ἐστίν ἄνδρῶν κρινομένων ἐν βασάνῳ σοφίς.

250-3 AP 7.54, Paus. 9.38.4, Tz. Vita Hesiodi 179-82 Colonna 251 πληξίππων γῇ Μινυῆς Tz. πληξίππων γῇ Μινυῶν AP Paus. 252 ἀνθρώπως κλέος ἐστίν: Ἑλλαδὶ κύδος ὁρεῖται Paus. 253 βασάνοις Tz.; σοφίας Paus.


110
καὶ περὶ μὲν Ἰσίδου τοσαύτα· ὁ δὲ Ὄμηρος ἀποτυχὼν

255 τῆς νίκης περιερχόμενος ἔλεγε τὰ ποιήματα, πρῶτον μὲν
tὴν Θηβαίδα ἐπὶ ἦλ ή ἀρχή.

Ἀργος οὖν ἀδείδε θεὰ πολυδίψιον ἔνθεν ἀνακτεῖς·
eίτα Ἐπιγόνους ἐπὶ ἦλ ἀρχή,

νῦν αὐθ᾽ ὀπλοτέρων ἄνδρῶν ἀρχώμεθα Μοῦσαι.

260 φασὶ γὰρ τινὲς καὶ ταύτα Ὀμήρου εἶναι. ἀκούσαντες
dὲ τῶν ἐπῶν οἱ Μίδου τοῦ βασιλέως παιδεῖς Ξάνθος καὶ
Γόργος παρακαλοῦσιν αὐτὸν ἐπίγραμμα ποιῆσαι ἐπὶ τοῦ
tάφου τοῦ πατρὸς αὐτῶν, ἐφ’ οὔ δὴ παρθένος χαλκῆ τὸν
Μίδου θάνατον οἰκτιξομένη, καὶ ποιεῖς οὕτως·

256 ἔπειγομένου Λ corr. Barnes; ἦ Λ corr. Hermann

258 ἔπειγομένου Λ corr. Barnes; ἦ Λ corr. Hermann
χαλκῆ παρθένος εἰμί, Μίδου δ’ ἐπὶ σήματος ἦμαι. ἔστ’ ἄν ὦδωρ τε νάῃ καὶ δένδρεα μακρὰ τεθήλη καὶ ποταμοὶ πλήθωσι, περικλύζῃ δὲ θάλασσα, ἥλιος δ’ ἀνιὼν φαίνῃ λαμπρὰ τε σελήνῃ, αὐτοῦ τῆς μένουσι πολυκλαύτῳ ἐπὶ τύμβῳ

σημανέω παριοῦσι Μίδης ὅτι τῇδε τέθαπται. λαβὼν δὲ παρ’ αὐτῶν φιάλην ἀργυρᾶν ἀνατίθησιν ἐν Δελφοῖς τῷ Ἀπόλλωνι, ἐπιγράψας

Φοῖβε ἄναξ δῶρόν τοι Ὅμηρος καλὸν ἔδωκα σῇσιν ἐπιφροσύναις· σὺ δέ μοι κλέος αἰὲν ὀπάζοις.


265 χαλκή Rzach; Μιδέω Rzach

112
μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα ποιεῖ τὴν Ὀδύσσειαν ἐπὶ μ,β', πεποιηκὼς ἦδη τὴν Ἰλιάδα ἐπών μ,εφ'. παραγενόμενον δὲ ἐκείθεν εἰς Ἀθηνὰς αὐτὸν ξενισθήναι φασὶ παρὰ Μέδοντι τῷ βασιλεῖ τῶν Ἀθηναίων. ἐν δὲ τῷ βουλευτηρίῳ ψύχους ὄντος καὶ πυρὸς καιομένου σχεδιάσαι λέγεται τούσδε τοὺς

στίχους:

ἀνδρὸς μὲν στέφανοι παῖδες, πῦργοι δὲ πόλης,

ἀνδρὸς μὲν στέφανοι παῖδες, πῦργοι δὲ πόλης,

ἵπποι δ' αὖ πεδίου κόσμος, νῆς δὲ θαλάσσης,

ἵπποι δ' αὖ πεδίου κόσμος, νῆς δὲ θαλάσσης,

λαὸς δ' εἰν ἀγορῇ καθήμενος εἰσοράσθαι.

λαὸς δ' εἰν ἀγορῇ καθήμενος εἰσοράσθαι.

αιθομένου δὲ πυρὸς γεφαρώτερος οίκος ἱδέσθαι

ἀνδρὸς μὲν στέφανοι παῖδες, πῦργοι δὲ πόλης,

ἀνδρὸς μὲν στέφανοι παῖδες, πῦργοι δὲ πόλης,

ἥματι χειμερίῳ ὁπότ' ἄν νείφῃς Κρονίων.

280


113
ἐκείθεν δὲ παραγενόμενος εἰς Κόρινθον ἔφρασέ τι ποιήματα. τιμηθεὶς δὲ μεγάλως παραγίνεται εἰς Ἀργος καὶ λέγει ἐκ τῆς Ἰλιάδος τὰ ἐπὶ τάδε·

οἱ δ’ Ἀργος τ’ εἶχον Τίρυνθα τε τειχώσσαν

290 Ἐρμιῶνην τ’ Ἀσίνην τε, βαθὺν κατὰ κόλπον ἐχοῦσας,
Τροιζήν’ Ἰλιάδας τε καὶ ἀμπελόντι’ Ἐπίδαυρον

νήσσων τ’ Αἰγίναν Μάσητά τε κοῦροι Ἀχαίων,

τῶν αὐθ’ ἤγεμόνευε βοήν ἀγαθὸς Διομήδης
Τυδείδης οὐ πατρὸς ἔχων μένος Οἰνείδαι,

295 καὶ Σθένελος, Καπανής ἀγακλειτοῦ φίλος ύιός·

τοῖς δ’ ἀμ’ Ἐυρύπυλος τρίτατος κίεν ἰσόθεος φώς,
Μηκιστέως ύιός Σαλαίονιδαο ἀνακτος.

ἐκ πάντων δ’ ἠγείτο βοήν ἀγαθός Διομήδης,

300 τοῖς δ’ ἀμ’ ὠγδώκοντα μέλαιναι νῆς ἐποντο·

ἐν δ’ ἄνδρες πολέμοιο δαήμονες ἐστιχόντο

Ἀργείοι λινοθώρηκες, κέντρα πτολέμοιο.


292 οἱ τ’ ἔχων Αἰγίναν S in marg. (coll. II. 2.562); Αἰγίναν τε Μάσητά L  296 Εὐρύαλος Wilamowitz (coll. II. 2.565)  297 Μηκιστέος Rzach
τῶν δὲ Ἀργείων οἱ προεστηκότες ύπερβολὴ χαρέντες
ἐπὶ τῷ ἐγκωμιαζοθαι τὸ γένος αὐτῶν ὑπὸ τοῦ ἐνδο-
ξοτάτου τῶν ποιητῶν, αὐτῶν μὲν πολυτελέσι δωρεαῖς
305 ἑτίμησαν, εἰκόνα δὲ χαλκὴν ἀναστήσαντες ἐψηφίσαντο
θυσίαν ἑπιτελείν Ὀμήρῳ καθ᾽ ἡμέραν καὶ κατὰ μήνα καὶ
κατ᾽ ἐνιαυτὸν <καί> ἄλλην θυσίαν πενταετηρίδα εἰς Χίον
ἀποστέλλειν. ἐπιγράφουσι δὲ ἐπὶ τῆς εἰκόνος αὐτοῦ·
θείος Ὀμήρος δὲ ἐστίν ὡς Ἑλλάδα τὴν μεγάλαυχον
310 πᾶσαν ἐκόσμησεν καλλιεπεῖ σοφίῇ,
ἐξοχὰ δ’ Ἀργείους, οἱ τὴν θεοτειχέα Τροίην
ἤρεισαν ποινὴν ἥκιμον Ὑλένης.
οὐ χάριν ἐστησεν δήμος μεγαλόπολις αὐτὸν
ἐνθάδε καὶ τιμαίς ἀμφέπει ἀθανάτων.

309-12 cf. P.Duk. inv. 665 311 θεοτειχέα: ριαυχεα P.Duk. inv. 665 (ἐριαυχέα Menci)

307 <καί> Westermann : ἄλλην δὲ θυσίαν Hermann Boissonade, ἀλλὰ καὶ
θυσίαν Wilamowitz 309 μεγαλαύχην L corr. Barnes 310 καλλιεπίη σοφίῃ τε
L corr. S in marg. 312 ποινῆς L corr. Barnes 313 ἐστησε ... μεγαλόπολις L
corr. S supra lineam
ἐνδιατρίψας δὲ τὴν πόλει χρόνον τινὰ διέπλευσεν εἰς Δήλον εἰς τὴν πανήγυριν, καὶ σταθεὶς ἐπὶ τὸν κεράτινον βωμὸν λέγει ὑμῖν εἰς Ἀπόλλωνα οὐ ἢ ἄρχῃ:

μνήσομαι οúde λάθωμαι Ἀπόλλωνος ἕκατοιο.

ὡθήνοντος δὲ τοῦ ὑμνοῦ οἱ μὲν Ἰωνεῖς πολίτην αὐτὸν κοινὸν ἐποίησαντο, Δήλιοι δὲ γράφαντες τὰ ἐπὶ εἰς λεύκωμα ἀνέθηκαν ἐν τῷ τῆς Αρτέμιδος ιερῷ, τῆς δὲ πανηγύρεως λυθείσης ὁ ποιητὴς εἰς Ἰον ἐπλευσε πρὸς Κρεόφυλον κάκει χρόνον διέτριβε πρεσβύτης ὡς ἠδη. ἐπὶ δὲ τῆς θαλάσσης καθήμενος παιδῶν τινῶν ἀφ’ ἀλείας ἐρχομένων ὡς φασι πυθόμενος:

ἀνδρεῖς ἀπ’ Ἀρκαδίς θηρίτορες ἢ ὡς ἐχομέν τι;


εἰπόντων δὲ ἐκείνων·

ὅσσ' ἔλομεν λιπόμεσθα, ὡσ' οὐχ ἔλομεν φερόμεσθα,
οὐ νοῆσας τὸ λεχθὲν ἥρετο αὐτοῖς ὃ τι λέγοιεν. οἱ δὲ φασιν
ἐν ἀλείᾳ μὲν ἀγχοῦσαι μηδέν, ἐφθειρισθαί δὲ, καὶ τῶν
φθειρῶν οὔς ἑλαβον καταλιπειν, οὔς δὲ οὐκ ἑλαβον ἐν τοῖς
ἰματιοῖς φέρειν. ἀναμνησθεὶς δὲ τοῦ μαντείου ὅτι τὸ τέλος
αὐτοῦ ἦκι τοῦ βίου, ποιεὶ τὸ τοῦ τάφου αὐτοῦ ἐπίγραμμα.
ἀναχώρων δὲ ἐκείθεν, ὅντος πιλοῦ ὀλισθῶν καὶ πεσῶν ἐπὶ
330 τὴν πλευράν, τριταῖος ὡς φασί τελευτᾷ· καὶ ἐτάφη ἐν Ἰω.
ἐστι δὲ τὸ ἐπίγραμμα τόδε·

ἐνθάδε τὴν ἱερὴν κεφαλὴν κατὰ γαῖα καλύπτει,
ἀνδρῶν ἡμῶν κοσμήτορα θείον Ὄμηρον.

327-38 cf. P.Mich. inv. 2754 ll. 1-14
4. Commentary

The text of the Certamen has been transmitted with no author name and no date of composition. The only element that can be used to date the text is a mention of the emperor Hadrian, who is said to interrogate the Pythia about Homer’s origins. The episode may have been inserted in the narrative when the memory of Hadrian’s actual visit to Delphi, in 125 AD, was still fresh (32-43n.), and in any case provides a terminus post quem.

Although the text as we have it was composed during the imperial times, or later still, the core of the narrative goes back to the fourth-century sophist Alcidamas. Two verses uttered by Homer in the Certamen are attributed by Stobaeus to Alcidamas, and P. Petr. I 25 proves that these verses were connected to the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod by the third century BC (78-9n.). Furthermore, Alcidamas is mentioned as one of the sources for the death of Hesiod at 240, and P. Mich. inv. 2754 (see pp. 70-80) shows that Alcidamas told the story of Homer’s death in a version similar to that in the Certamen. At the heart of the Certamen there is an elaborate narrative structure that presents the two poets according to parallel patterns and depicts a nexus (oracle-contest-death) that may well have already been present in one of the Certamen’s literary sources, quite possibly Alcidamas (56-62n.).

However, Alcidamas probably did not invent the story of the contest between the two poets, and was certainly not the first author of some of the verses in the Certamen. Two lines mentioned in the Certamen are also found in Aristophanes’ Peace vv. 1282-3; the appearance of these verses in this play, performed for the first time in 421 BC, shows that at least some of the hexameter material included in our text predates Alcidamas and was perhaps already connected to the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod in Aristophanes’ times (107-8n.). The author of the Certamen also knows traditions that were widely circulating in the sixth-fifth century BC. For example, Heraclitus referred to the episode of Homer’s death (323-38n.) and Thucydides
is the earliest witness of the legend surrounding Hesiod’s (215-23n.).

Some of the verses at 107-37, the ‘ambivalent propositions’, seem to represent fifth-century BC concerns about Homeric language and can be associated with sophistic circles, as does the syntax of this section (102-37n.). The verses at 148-75 also deal with topics that stem from fifth- and fourth-century philosophical and political discourse. The narrative framework surrounding the contest seems to foster the image of Homer as a democratic poet, which again would fit a fifth- or fourth-century BC context (276-85n.).

The work opens by mentioning Homer and Hesiod as (apparently) equal, but the two poets are quickly set in contrast to each other. The first difference the text underlines involves their place of origin: while Hesiod mentioned his own birthplace, Homer’s silence on the matter inspired a big debate and a wide range of local claims (1-8). Similarly, there is no certainty in respect to his parents. The text thus gives a list of seven alleged fathers and mothers (18-27n.). This sets the scene for claiming Homer as a Panhellenic poet, a claim that becomes explicit later in the text, where Homer’s poetry is said to appeal to all the Greeks (90-1n.).

Once the contest begins, Homer appears as the champion of Greek traditional values, and thereby gains general approval from the public. Homer is able to define what the best and the finest thing are for mortals in terms conformed to dominant Greek views (75-89), and to solve a theological impropriety put in the form of an *aporia* (96-101), while Hesiod’s reaction to his success worsens as the contest proceeds (94n.). Perhaps the most impressive poetic enterprise Homer embarks on during the contest is in reply to Hesiod’s ‘ambivalent propositions’, a series of verses that propose unacceptable views on issues such as the life and behavior of heroes and gods, and which Homer turns into expressions of standard Greek morality. When, in another stage of the competition, Homer demonstrates his expertise on topics that were traditionally considered Hesiodic, he appears to be the inevitable winner of the competition.
(151-75). However, King Panoides makes a surprising appearance in the text and asks both poets to perform what they consider the finest passage from their poetry (176-9).

Homer’s performance makes him appear to be a truly divinely inspired poet, as he enables humans to share, through poetry, the gaze of the gods, while viewing something that they could not bear in reality: war and death. Hesiod, with his description of the cycle of nature and agriculture, does not offer anything that a man cannot experience in his everyday life (180-204n.). Nonetheless Panoides decides that Hesiod should win on the basis that he celebrates peace. As happens in other versions of the story, however, Hesiod’s victory is not at all strongly endorsed in the text (205-10n.). Furthermore, Homer seems to be presented as younger than Hesiod and therefore arguably less expert: during the discussion of the relative chronology of the two poets there seems to be an implicit preference for the version according to which Homer was born a long time after Hesiod, making it perhaps even impossible for them to meet and compete (44-55n.); and in any case Homer is said to have composed only the Margites before competing against Hesiod (55n.).

After the contest, Hesiod is never said to compose new poetry or to travel Greece to perform his works; he only visits Delphi to dedicate the tripod, and to Locris, after misunderstanding an oracle, in an attempt to escape his fate (224-53n.). By contrast, Homer’s artistic production starts, in fact, after the contest. After the comic Margites, he composes two cyclic poems (255-60n.), then the Iliad and the Odyssey (275-6n.) and finally the Hymn to Apollo (315-21n.). This list does not include all the titles attributed to Homer in antiquity, but selects significant examples for each kind of poem linked to him and builds to a climax: the works that were considered of lower status in antiquity are located in the initial phases of his career, and through the Hymn to Apollo the poet is finally consecrated as a Panhellenic poet whose fame will last for evermore. Homer also composes the
funeral epigram for the Phrygian king Midas, a dedication to Apollo engraved on a silver cup (260-74), and the verses recited at Athens before king Medon (276-85). The composition of each of these works is not always connected to a specific city, and Homer is consistently depicted as a travelling poet (56n.). As he goes round Greece performing his poems, the honours he receives increase. At Argos, for example, he is made the object of a cult, and sacrifices are established in his honour (302-8n.). At Delos for the first time, Homer performs in a Panonian context and his success on this occasion results in the attribution to him of the title of ‘common citizen’ of all the Ionians (315-21n.).

Homer’s success brings about a complete reversal of the verdict of the competition, and compensates Homer for it: the Midas episode (260-74), for example, involves an invitation by the sons of another king, a silver cup, and a dedication to Apollo, in a mirror image of the honours Hesiod secured through winning the contest. Later on, Homer also receives ‘costly gifts’, which parallel the gifts offered by the organisers of the poetic contest that Homer lost (304-5n.).

The prophecy concerning Homer’s death, like Hesiod’s, is finally fulfilled while the poet is in Ios. But unlike Hesiod, Homer is never said to misunderstand the oracle, and even his inability to solve a riddle proposed by some boys, which was the basis for some early criticism of Homer’s alleged wisdom, is not emphasised as an outright failing (323-38n.). The work closes with a funerary epigram for the divine Homer, composed by the poet himself.

Title: the title of the work in the manuscript gives an exhaustive description of the contents of the work. The title Certamen Homeri et Hesiodi, with which the work is commonly known, comes from a Latin translation of the shortened form of the title (Ὄμηρον καὶ Ἡσιόδου ἄγων) and goes back to the editio princeps.

1-2. Ὄμηρον ... λέγεσθαι: the opening sentence elevates Homer and Hesiod
above all other poets (for the possibility that other versions of the story of the contest may have given more prominence to other participants, see Introduction on Plutarch, Dinner of the Seven Sages 153f-154a, pp. 18-28). But although Homer and Hesiod are formally presented as equal poets, the description offered fits Homer and subsumes Hesiod as his companion: θειότατος and in fact θειός are standard epithets of Homer but not of Hesiod; similarly, there is discussion and controversy only about Homer’s birthplace because – as the text admits at 2-6 – Hesiod names his own place of origin. The overall effect of the opening sentence is to present Homer as the privileged poet in the pair, and that is indeed how he will be described at many points in the narrative: the Certamen draws on and endorses the traditional image of Homer as the divine poet par excellence in Greek literature (see esp. 180-204n.); Homer is explicitly called θείος at 214, 309 and 338. The opening is geared towards Homer to such an extent that West 1967: 444 suggests that the author might have taken an opening of a lost Life of Homer and simply adapted it to his own work. West tentatively reconstructs the sentence as follows: Ὄμηρον τὸν θειότατον ποιητὴν πάντες ἄνθρωποι πολίτην ἓδιον εὐχονται λέγεσθαι. But the author of the Certamen may, just as easily, have thought of Homer as generally depicted in many ancient Lives, and adapted the description to include Hesiod. The superlative θειότατοι is used of Homer and Hesiod together only here in extant Greek literature. The epithet θειότατος is rarely given to Homer (only a few occurrences: e.g. Pl. Ion 530 b) but never to Hesiod alone. Θείος is a standard epithet of Homer, and θείος Ὄμηρος a hexameric formula (Skiadas 1965: 63-75, Burkert 1987: 44, Graziosi 2002: 67), but is applied to Hesiod only once (Plut. The Obsolescence of Oracles 431e). The claim that all men wish that both poets were said to be their fellow citizens suits, once again, only Homer (see e.g. Eust. Il. 4.17; Isaac Porphyrogenitus Praefatio in Homerum 4 Kindstrand).

2. λέγεσθαι: the popular emendation γενέσθαι does not account for the fact that the biographical material was perceived as fictional already in antiquity. In
order for a city to make its local tradition successful, the poet should persuasively ‘be said’ to be – not necessarily ‘be born’ – a fellow citizen.

2-4. ἀλλ’ Ἡσίοδος … ὁ πατήρ αὐτοῦ: the contrast between Homer and Hesiod is now explicitly put in biographical terms: the statement that Hesiod precluded any rivalry by mentioning his birthplace in his work clearly engages with the standard claim in Homeric biographies that Homer’s silence about himself occasioned a big debate about his life (see e.g. Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.1; Procl. Vit. Hom. 2; Eust. II. 4.17). For the contrast established here between Homer and Hesiod, cf. also Vell. Pat. 1.7.1: Hesiodus … qui uituit ne in id quod Homerus incideret, patriamque et parentes testatus est. West 1967: 444 posits a common source, but both the Certamen and Velleius may be responding to a wide-spread trope or idea.

5-6. εἰσάτο … ἐσθλῆ: = Op. 639-40. The Certamen exploits the practice, common in the ancient Lives, to draw information about the life of a poet from his/her own work. For other biographical anecdotes on Hesiod derived from the Theogony or Works and Days see most recently Kivilo 2010: 7-61, Koning 2010: 31-2, 38-9 and Lefkowitz 2012: 6-13. Although these lines are not quoted in other Hesiodic biographies, they had undisputed influence on the matter of Hesiod’s birthplace. They are echoed in Tz. Life of Hesiod 80-1 Colonna (οἱ (scil. Hesiod’s parents) … τὴν ἑαυτῶν πατρίδα Κύμην ἀφέντες μεταναστεύουσιν ἐπὶ τὴν Ἀσκρην, χωρίον τῶν Βοιωτῶν δυσχείμερον καὶ κακοθέρειον, περὶ τοὺς πόδας κειμένην τοῦ Ἐλικώνος). They feature in many other works (see West 1978: 126. apparatus on Op. 639-40) and are in fact memorable – partly because it is an unusual rhetorical move to disparage one’s own place of origin.

5. εἰσάτο: the Hesiodic manuscripts and the other testimonia read νάσσατο. Despite a minor slip in the manuscript (L reads εἰσάτο, from εἶμι, emended by S in εἰσάτο, from ἐζω – a near synonym of the Hesiodic reading) the Certamen clearly preserves an otherwise unattested variant reading of Op. 639.

7-8. Ὅμηρον δὲ … λέγουσιν: this claim makes Homer a Panhellenic poet, a
view that is endorsed also, and more explicitly, later in the text. It is in fact one of the most salient features of Homer as portrayed in the Certamen: see esp. 91n., 176 and 205, where Homer is said to appeal to ‘the Greeks’ or indeed ‘all the Greeks’; and the episodes told at 286-338. This claim is based on the view, common at least from the imperial era, that the endless debate on Homer’s origins makes him the possession of every city. See e.g. Procl. Vit. Hom. 2 and Heraclit. All. 76.8-9.

8-17. καὶ πρῶτοι ... τὸν Μαργίτην: the text claims that all cities wanted to be considered Homer’s hometown, but then mentions only three. The number is small but the list includes the cities that were generally recognised as having the strongest and most ancient claims about Homer’s origins: Smyrna, Chios and Colophon. These are mentioned at the beginning of the list of Homer’s alleged birthplaces in most of the ancient biographies and in other literary works (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.4 (= AP 16.296) and 2.2; Procl. Vit. Hom. 2; Suda s.v. Ὄμηρος 2; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.2; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.1; Lucianus VH 2.20; AP 16.298). Because of the wide circulation of this triad the author of the Certamen may have made his selection without the help of any specific source (contra West 1967: 445 who suggests a fourth-century source because other birthplaces, which are attested later, are missing in this list). Connections between Homer and these three cities are very old and in fact go back to three passages in the Homeric corpus itself (analysed in Graziosi 2002: 62-79): the Hymn to Apollo (172-3) introduces the figure of the Chian blind man, whom already Thucidides (3.104) identified with Homer; in the Margites (fr. 1 West) the old divine singer who came to Colophon is characterised in a way that fits the traditional descriptions of Homer; finally, in the Hymn to Artemis 9 there is a possible reference to the legend of Homer’s birth by the river Meles near Smyrna. Nagy 2004 suggests that Athens, as the Ionian metropolis, had an interest in stressing the importance of Chios, Smyrna and Colophon. These and other local traditions also appear elsewhere in the text: Ithaca at 23-27 and 37-40 (some of
the alleged parents and the Pythia’s response to Hadrian); Ios at 59-60 (the Pythia to Homer); Smyrna at 75 and 151 (Homer is called ‘son of Meles’); Chios again at 307-8 (the Argives send periodical sacrifices to Chios in Homer’s honour).

8-12. καὶ πρῶτοι ... προσηγορίαι: the Smyrnean tradition about Homer was very well known in the classical period (Stesimbr. 107 F 22; Pi. fr. 264 S.-M.; Eugaion 535 F 2 = 2 Fowler; Critias fr. 50 D.-K.), and it seems likely that legends about Homer circulated in Smyrna before Alyattes’ destruction of that city in 600 BC (Jakoby 1933: 31, Graziosi 2002: 75). The Hymn to Artemis 9, which seems to connect Homer with Smyrna via the river Meles, may also be dated to the same period (West 2003: 17). Beecroft 2010: 75 argues attractively that between its destruction in 600 BC and its rebuilding in the Hellenistic era Smyrna was the ideal place for Homer’s birth in that everyone could accept it because it belonged to no-one. It is certainly true that the Smyrnean tradition contained some of the most common features of Homer’s persona, accepted also in other local claims: Homer’s original name Melesigenes; the epithet νιὲ Μέλητος, interestingly used for Homer also in an epigram aiming to prove that Homer was a Colophonian (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.4 = AP 16.292); the very birth of Homer in Smyrna, accepted in the traditions of Ios and Cyme (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.2 and 3). Smyrna’s special place in the tradition also explains why in the Certamen it is mentioned first (note also πρῶτοι, l. 8).

9-10. Μέλητος ὄντα ... Κρητιδόης νυμφῆς: the parental couple Cretheis-Meles is among the most widely attested for Homer. In the ancient sources Meles is paired only with Cretheis, but Cretheis could also be paired with Maion (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 2.2 and Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.3). The presence in the Odyssey of a similar story (Poseidon rapes Tyro disguised as the river Enipeus, Od. 11.235-52) may have a bearing on the success of this anecdote; it seems also relevant that Tyro is said to marry Cretheus, a son of Aeolus, whose name is very similar to Cretheis’. The similarity between the two stories was certainly
seen by Philostratus (Im. 2.8). The River Meles is the father of Homer also in Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 2.2; Castricius of Nicaea in Suda s.v. Ὄμηρος 1; Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.3; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.1; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.1; in other sources it is the place where Cretheis gave birth to the poet (Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 2-3; Procl. Vit. Hom. 3). Both versions are attested already in the fifth century BC (Meles as Homer’s father: Critias fr. 50 D.-K., Eugaion 535 F 2 = Cert. 20-21; Homer born by the River Meles: Stesimbr. 107 F 22). The author of the Certamen perhaps uses the former version of the legend because it was the one that best illustrated the Smyrneans’ claim about Homer: the mere fact that Homer was born in Smyrna is not sufficient to prove his Smyrnean origins: Ephorus and Aristotle (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.2 and 3) claim that Homer was born by the River Meles in Smyrna, but only because Cretheis, who was from either Cyme or Ios, had to leave her city after becoming pregnant. According to them, the poet is therefore a native of Cyme or Ios (as also Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom 2.2; Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.2 and 3; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.1). By accepting this version of the story the Certamen can later report a genealogy of Homer according to which he is the son of Meles (53) and have Hesiod address Homer as ὑἱὲ Μέλητος Ὄμηρε during the contest section (75 and 151): all these details strengthen the image of Homer as a divine poet. Both Meles and Cretheis are mentioned later in the text in the list of Homer’s alleged fathers and mothers respectively (21 and 24) and although they are mentioned separately, there too we are probably meant to see them as a couple (see 18-27n.). Meles is also given as one of Homer’s alleged original names at ll. 27-28.

10. Κρηϊθίδος: the manuscript form Κρηϊθίδος has been unanimously emended on the basis of Κρηθηίδος at l. 24. The form in l. 24 is one of the best attested in the manuscripts of other biographies, as S indicates (‘confirmatur ab aliis’). However, other different spellings of the name are transmitted elsewhere too: emendations force a unified tradition that never existed, especially in the case of proper names (see also on Melesigenes, below).

κεκλησθαί φασι πρότερον Μελημιγενῆ: as in the case of the name of
Cretheis (above), the two different manuscript forms for Melesigenes are kept (here and at 28). That the original name of Homer was Melesigenes, explained as ‘Born by the River Meles’ or ‘Born of the River Meles’, is a common feature of all Homeric biographies. The etymology has no linguistic basis (see e.g. Wilamowitz 1916b: 370, Marx 1925: 406-8). Maass 1911 suggests that the name Melesigenes means that the poet was born during the Melesia, a festival in honour of Meles (which however is not attested); more convincingly, Marx suggests that the real meaning of Melesigenes is ‘he who takes care of his people’ (‘born of/by the Meles’ being actually Μελητογένη), and this suited the rhapsodes who sometimes claimed to be Homer’s descendants (Graziosi 2002: 75 n. 72). The connection with the river Meles must have been created in order to support the Smyrneans’ claim and the popular etymology will have spread together with the Smyrnan traditions about Homer. However, the manuscripts of other Homeric biographies also testify to forms of the name that show its versatility, and this may have played a role in its wide diffusion: the variants Μελισσογενής or Μελισσογενή and Μελιτογενής (cf. e.g. Allen’s apparatus of Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. on ll. 54 and 64, and more significantly that of Anon. Vit. Hom. 2 on l. 4) seem to connect this name with the words μέλι or μέλισσα (‘honey’ and ‘bee’, common symbols for poetry and poets; cf. also Eust. Od. 1713.17, where honey is said to flow from Homer’s mouth), rather than to a specific place. Fluctuation between -ησ- and -ισσ- is also attested for two other ‘original’ names of Homer, Μελησιάναξ (Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.1) and Μελησαγόρας (Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.5). Of these, only Melesigenes features in the list of alleged original names at 28.

11-12. Melesigenes changes his name into Homer after becoming blind, because ὅμηρος is a common term for blind people in the Aeolian dialect: this is another very well known and widely spread piece of information on the poet (see also Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 13; Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.5; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.1). It is again based on folk etymology (cf. 10n.): the word ὅμηρος is not in fact attested with the
meaning ‘blind’ in extant Greek literature. The etymologizing explanation connects the poet with a quintessential feature of his work: on Homer’s blindness as a sign of his closeness to the gods see esp. Graziosi 2002: 138-63. Other ancient sources dismiss the link between the name Homer and blindness (perhaps because they did not accept that ὀμήρος meant blind, or because they denied the very fact that Homer was blind) and on the basis of an independently attested meaning of the word ὀμήρος claim that Melesigenes was called Homer because he was taken hostage (Procl. Vit. Hom. 3; Suda s.v. Ὀμήρος 3; Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.5). The Certamen knows and mentions this alternative view (see 29-32n.) but without expressing any preference. However, Beecroft 2011: 9 notes that Homer in the Certamen is never said to write, which may suggest that according to this text he was indeed blind.

13-15. Χίοι δὲ … Ὀμηρίδας καλουμένους: Chian traditions about Homer are well attested in Greek literature and from ancient times (Simon. fr. 19 West, Anaximen. 72 F 30, Damastes fr. 11 Fowler, Pi. fr. 264 S.-M., Theoc. Id. 7.47 and 22.218). This passage of the Certamen mentions its most common features: the Homeridae as Homer’s descendants, and their connection with Chios. The link between the Homeridae and Chios is attested already in the classical period: Acusilaos and Hellanicus in Harp. O 19 Keaney: Ὀμηρίδαις Ἰσοκράτης Ἐλένη (10.65). Ὀμηρίδαι γένος ἐν Χίῳ, ὅπερ Ἀκουσίλαος ἐν γ’ (2 F 2). Ἑλλάνικος ἐν τῇ Ἀτλαντιάδι (4 F 20) ἀπὸ τοῦ ποιητοῦ φησίν ὠνομάσθαι. Pace Fehling 1979: 198, who claims that there was no connection between Chios and the Homeridae, this and the following passage clearly link the two. A scholion to Pindar draws a connection between the Homeridae and Chios and also refers to their kinship with Homer: Schol. Pi. Nem. 2.1 Drachmann: Ὀμηρίδας ἔλεγον τὸ μὲν ἄρχαίον τοὺς ἀπὸ τοῦ Ὀμήρου γένους οἳ καὶ τὴν ποίησιν αὐτοῦ ἐκ διαδοχῆς ἤδον· μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα καὶ οἱ ἰαῖσιοδοι οὐκέτι τὸ γένος εἰς Ὀμηρον ἀνάγοντες. The expression ἐκ διαδοχῆς, intended as ‘by right of succession’ (Burkert 1979: 54; Graziosi 2002: 214), refers to a genealogical connection with
Homer, though, as pointed out most recently by Collins 2004: 183, it can also be interpreted as ‘by relay’, with reference to a continuous performance of the Homeric verses. The words οἱ ὀμηροὶ οὐκέτι τὸ γένος εἰς Ὄμηρον ἀνάγοντες seem to imply that in later times a rhapsode who was not a descendant of Homer’s could also be called a Homerid. Some ancient scholars questioned the Homeridae’s descent from Homer (Harp. ibid.: Σέλευκος δὲ ἐν β’ περὶ βίων ἀμαρτάνειν φησὶ Κράτητα νομίζοντα ἐν ταῖς Ἱεροποιίαις Ὅμηρίδας ἀπογόνους εἶναι τοῦ ποιητοῦ· ὄνομασθήσαν γὰρ ἀπὸ τῶν ὀμήρων…). Nevertheless, it is clear that our text drew on a very well attested tradition, which is also found in one of the ancient Homeric biographies: in Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 25 Homer married a woman in Chios and had two daughters, one of which died unmarried while the other married a Chian man. It must have been easy for ancient readers acquainted with this material to see in these lines a reference to the Homeridae (contra West 1999: 372; for the use of the Homeridae as evidence for Homer’s Chian origins see Str. 14.1.35.21: ἀμφισβητοῦσι δὲ καὶ Ὅμηρον Χῖοι, μαρτύριον μέγα τοῦ Ὅμηρίδας καλουμένους ἀπὸ τοῦ ἐκείνου γένους προχειριζόμενος; Eust. II. 4.17: ἀμφισβητοῦσι δὲ αὐτοῦ καὶ Χῖοι μαρτύριον προχειριζόμενοι τοῦ καλουμένους Ὅμηρίδας ὃν καὶ Πίνδαρος μέμνηται). The Homeridae seem to have been personally involved in the making of Homer’s biographical legends: Isoc. Hel. 65 testifies to their activity in this respect; Eustathius says that the Homeridae hesitated to mention that Homer was defeated by Hesiod in a poetic contest (see Introduction on Eustathius, pp. 51-2). The idea that Homer was from Chios probably became predominant in fifth- and fourth-century Athens precisely thanks to the Homeridae and their connection with the Peisistratids.

15-17. Κολοφώνιοι δὲ ... Μαργίτην: Homer’s Colophonian origins are attested also by Nicander (fr. 14 Schneider) and Antimachus (fr. 130 Wyss = 166 Matthews). Colophon has ancient claims to Homer, and they are probably connected with Margites fr. 1 West (for a good survey of the problems related to
this fragment and a discussion of its role in the Margites see Gostoli 2007: 20-3 and 71-4). That the Margites played a key role in the Colophonian tradition is evident also in this section of the Certamen; though our text chooses to present it as the first work of a young Homer (thus dissociating him from the old singer of Margites fr. 1 West). This way of dating the Margites in relation to Homer’s other works is common in the imperial period, when its authenticity was often questioned and at times strongly denied. Moreover, it fits the way Homer features in the rest of the Certamen and seems to have an apologetic function.

The attribution of the Margites to Homer seems to have been accepted from the time of Archilochus (Archil. fr. 303 West apud Eustr. in EN 6.7 = Margites T1 Gostoli; see Gostoli 2007: 11-13 on this difficult testimony) to at least the fourth century BC (Arist. Po. 1448b24-1449a1 = Margites T3 Gostoli). In later times, when Homer was strictly and solely associated with the Iliad and the Odyssey, the Margites was considered the work of a young and immature Homer (D. Chr. 53.4 = T6 Gostoli: δοκεῖ γὰρ καὶ τοῦτο (scil. τὸν Μαργίτην) τὸ ποίημα ὑπὸ Ὀμήρου γεγονέναι νεωτέρου καὶ ἀποπειρωμένου τῆς αὐτοῦ φύσεως πρὸς ποίησιν) and was gradually excluded from the Homeric corpus, together with other works (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.5: ἐγραψε δὲ ποιήματα δύο, Ἰλιάδα καὶ Ὀδύσσειαν· ὡς δὲ τινες, οὐκ ἀληθῶς λέγοντες, γυμνασίας καὶ παιδίων ἑνεκα καὶ Βατραχομυομαχίαν προσθεσαί καὶ Μαργίτην; Procl. Vit. Hom. 9: γέγραφε δὲ ποιήσεις δύο, Ἰλιάδα καὶ Ὀδύσσειαν ... προστιθέασι δὲ αὐτῷ καὶ παιγνία τῶν· Μαργίτην, Βατραχομαχίαν...; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.3: οὐδὲν δ’ αὐτοῦ θετέον ἔξω τῆς Ἰλιάδος καὶ τῆς Ὀδύσσειας, ἀλλὰ τοὺς ὡμοὺς καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ τῶν εἰς αὐτὸν ἀναφερομένων ποιημάτων ἠγητέον ἀλλότρια καὶ τῆς φύσεως καὶ τῆς δυνάμεως ἑνεκα. τινες δ’ αὐτοῦ φασίν εἶναι καὶ ... τὴν τε Βατραχομυομαχίαν καὶ τὸν Μαργίτην). In the Certamen, the position of the Margites in Homer’s career helps to mitigate his defeat, for there seems to be a suggestion that he composed only that work before competing against Hesiod (55n.): Homer composed the Margites as his first work (ποιῆσαι πρῶτον τὸν
Μαργίτην; after that, he went round from town to town reciting poetry (ποιήσαντα γὰρ τὸν Μαργίτην Ὄμηρον περιέρχεσθαι κατὰ πόλιν ὡς ἀψωδοῦντα); around the same time (κατὰ δὲ τὸν αὐτὸν χρόνον) Ganyctor organizes the contest.

18-27. περὶ δὲ ... τὴν Νέστορος: the text lists seven alleged fathers and seven mothers for Homer, many of which are otherwise unknown. The number seven is also used to control the sprawling tradition about Homer’s birthplaces (e.g. AP 16.297-8). Sources for the names are indicated only in a few cases, and only in relation to the fathers. Some mothers quite clearly seem to match the fathers in the same order so as to form couples attested by external evidence (Maion-Metis; Meles-Cretheis; Masagoras-Themite; Telemachus-Polycaste): that may help to explain the lack of authorities for the mothers. Some of these characters are explicitly paired up in Suda s.v. Ὅμηρος 1, that reports a similar list. But it is not possible to prove that the two separate lists derive in fact from one list in which the names were paired (as suggested by West 1967: 445): we do not know enough about the remaining characters to speculate about the legends circulating about them. As far as we can tell, the lists offer a fairly comprehensive overview of the tradition by alluding to several of its main branches (Smyrnean, Cypriot, Egyptian and Ithacan claims are all recognizable). The lists seem to be carefully structured: they start off by referring to the best-known traditions and their characters (Smyrna: Maion, Meles, Metis, Cretheis; Cyprus: Masagoras, Themite) and conclude with less common and at the same time more striking names (Telemachus, Calliope, Polycaste). It is not possible to identify the source for these lists but Tzetzes (Alleg. 59-66 Boissonade) and Suda s.v. Ὅμηρος 1 transmit similar ones: either the Certamen was the source for these later texts or a list was circulating in antiquity that was used as a common source for all. Tzetzes reports the same list of fathers as in the Certamen, sometimes with different spellings and sporadically incorporating additional information (see Introduction on Tzetzes,
pp. 47-51, for other similarities between the *Certamen* and Tzetzes’ works). The Suda, after reporting a shorter but very similar list, goes on to give the same genealogy as is found at 45-53.

19-20. Ἑλλάνικος ... Μαίονα: 4 F 5c = fr. 5c Fowler. Hellanicus (mythographer and ethnographer, fifth-fourth century BC) is mentioned to confirm the Smyrnean tradition, which heads the list as in the case of Homer’s birthplaces (8-12). Maion is indeed often connected to Smyrna (e.g. Procl. *Vit. Hom.* 3; on Maion see also 20n.). We know that Hellanicus took an interest in Homer’s and Hesiod’s genealogy from 4 F 20, on the Homeridae, and 4 F 5a-b-c, according to which Maion was Homer’s father, and Homer and Hesiod were both descended from Orpheus. The *Certamen* too reports this genealogy (45-53) but with the important difference that Homer is here the son of Meles. From Charax (103 F 62), we can infer that according to Hellanicus Maion was paired with Metis (West 1967: 445, Fowler *ad loc.)*.

19. Κλεάνθης: fr. 592 von Arnim; see also 84 F 40. This claim may come from Cleanthes’ Περὶ τοῦ ποιητοῦ (so Wachsmuth *apud* Pearson 1891: 51; Pearson 1891 fr. 67; the title is known from D. L. 7.174-5), to which most of Cleanthes’ fragments on Homer are attributed (frr. 55, 65, 66, 67 Wachsmuth *apud* Pearson 1891; 54, 55, 63, 65, 66, 67 Pearson; fr. 526, 535, 549, 592 von Armin). Von Arnim 1905: 133 (on fr. 592) suggested that Κλεάνθης in *L* is a misspelling for Νεάνθης, with whom he was sometimes confused (see e.g. fr. 593 von Arnim). The suggestion is attractive, for Cleanthes’ fragments on Homer mainly deal with allegoric interpretation of the Homeric poems. By contrast, Neanthes certainly had biographical interests: he wrote a work titled Περὶ ἐνδόξων ἀνδρῶν (84 F 13) and dealt with lives of philosophers and poets (84 F 18 on Sophocles’ death; 84 F 20 on Plato’s death; 84 F 25 on Epicurus’ death; 84 F 27 the young Empedocles’ poetic activity). However, the emendation here seems unsafe because we cannot be certain that Cleanthes did not also include some biographical information about the poet in his work.
20. Μαίονα: Maion is the most prominent figure as Homer’s father in the poet’s biographies together with Meles, which explains the fact that these two names start off the list. Maion is also mentioned in the genealogy at 52-53, but as Homer’s grandfather (her daughter generated Homer with the river Meles). See also 19-20n. Maion’s presence as Homer’s father may be connected to the Homeric works, where Maion is the name of a minor character from Thebes (II. 4.391-400) who led an attack on Tydeus. Furthermore, in some biographical texts Maion is connected with Lydia (Aristoteles in Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.3; Lucianus Dem. Enc. 9), and we know that Μαίονες was an alternative name for the Lydians, which allegedly derived from the name of the eponymous hero or that of a local river (Ael. Her. De Pros. Cath. 3.1.296). Homer himself used the ethnic Μήνες, whence the later form Μαίονες (see Eust. 1575.26). In the Lives Maion is paired with Metis, Cretheis and Hrynetho (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 2.2; Anon. Vita Hom. 2.1; Stesimbr. in Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.3).

20-1. Εὔγαίων δὲ Μέλητα: 535 F 2 = 2 Fowler. The source is a historian from Samos who lived in the fifth century BC. His name is spelled differently in the sources (see Bertelli BNJ s.v. Euagon of Samos on 535 T1 and T2): L gives the form Εὔγαίων, but an inscription from Priene (535 F 3), the oldest attestation of Euagon’s name (180 BC), suggests that he was in fact called Εὔάγων. He may have been singled out here because he seems to be one of the most ancient sources for Meles as the father of Homer. The scarcity of fragments from his work (only four, and two testimonia) leaves us without a context for this biographical claim. However, we know that Euagon had a strong interest in biographies: in 535 F 4 he deals with the life of Aesop and claims that he was a Thracian slave. Euagon’s choice of Meles as the father of Homer may reflect his interest in mirabilia; cf. 535 F 1 (on the Neia, mythological wild beasts living in Samos; see also Bertelli on 535 T 1). Like later sources, Euagon may already have paired the river Meles with Cretheis (thus Fowler).

21. Καλλικλῆς δὲ Ἡμασαγόραν: 758 F 13c. Callicles is a historian or
grammarian from the Hellenistic era. Here he is most likely mentioned to introduce a Cypriot tradition about Homer: we know from Anon. *Vit. Hom.* 1.2 that Callicles thought that Homer was from Salamis in Cyprus (758 F 13a: κατὰ Καλλικλέα δὲ τῆς ἐν Κύπρῳ Σαλαμίνος). At 29-30 (= 758 F 13c) the *Certamen* claims that Homer’s father was offered as a hostage by the Cypriots to the Persians: Callicles may be the source for that claim too. As we learn from Paus. 10.24.3 (= 758 F 13d) the Cypriots reckoned Themisto to be Homer’s mother. The name Θεμίτη at 25 may refer to the same character, so that we would have another parental couple implicitly paired up in the text. In the Homeric biographies, a Cypriot origin for Homer is referred to also at Anon. *Vit. Hom.* 2.1; Suda s.v. Ὄμηρος 2; Ps.-Plu. *Vit. Hom.* B 2. Connections between Homer and Cyprus were also established by interpreting the Homeric poems: for the *Iliad* see *Schol. T II.* 21.12 = 758 F 13b: ὡς δ’ ὅθ’ ὑπὸ ὀιτῆς πυρὸς ἀκρίδες ἤρεθονται / φευγέμεναι ποταμώδει· ἐντευθέν τινες Κύπριον φασι τὸν ποιητήν· κατὰ τινας γὰρ χρόνους ὀχλεῖται ἡ Κύπρος ὑπὸ ἀκρίδων, ὡς ἡ Κυρήνη καὶ ἡ Βάρκη; for the *Cypria* see Pi. fr. 265 S.-M. in Ael. *VH* 9.15; Tz. *H.* 13.637 (the poem was given by Homer to Stasinus of Cyprus as the dowry of his daughter) and esp. Proclus in Phot. *Bibl.* 319a 24 (Proclus reports that according to some people the poem was named *Cypria* after Homer’s birthplace).

†Μασαγόραν: the name is not clearly readable in L. Μασαγόραν has been suggested on the basis of traces in the manuscript and on the form Μασαγόραν transmitted by Tzetzes (*Alleg.* 62), who is the only other source for this name. Tzetzes also informs us that Mas(s)agoras was a merchant, either because he confused him with the next name in the list (Daemon, a merchant: see 22) or because he had access to now lost information. The form Δμασαγόραν, restored by Barnes on the basis of the name of Homer’s father as transmitted by Eustathius (*Od.* 1713.22) and accepted by most editors, goes back to a tradition that Homer was from Egypt, rather than Cyprus, and therefore does not seem to have any connection with the source and the story given here.
Democritus of Troezen is a writer who lived in the first century AD (Lloyd-Jones and Powell 1983: 175). His extant fragments deal with poets (e.g. Aristophanes: *Suppl. Hell. 377*) and philosophers (e.g. Empedocles: *Suppl. Hell. 375*). It is difficult to contextualize the claim attributed to him in the present passage of the *Certamen*: the view that Homer’s father was a merchant is unique (except for Tzetzes’ claim about Massagoras, on which see 21n.), though travel is widely attributed to Homer and his lineage. The name Daemon is attested only here and in Tzetzes. It may be seen as a speaking name designed to explain Homer’s special talents; cf. his father Thamyras and his mothers Metis and Calliope, discussed below. Democritus is not mentioned anywhere else in relation to Homer’s biography. The spelling of his name varies in the manuscript tradition: while Athenaeus gives Δημήτριος (*Suppl. Hell. 376-7*), the form Δημόκριτος in Λ is transmitted also by the manuscripts of Diogenes Laertius (*Suppl. Hell. 374*). Allen’s suggestion to reduce this claim of the *Certamen* and that in Anon. *Vit. Hom.* 1.3 (which runs: κατὰ δὲ Δημοκρίνην Ἀλήμωνος) to the same tradition is interesting but would need more evidence. First, it would presuppose yet another different form of the name of Democritus of Toezen. Secondly, it would involve identifying two characters, Alemonos and Daemon, which may in fact represent two different traditions about Homer’s origins. Even if it is possible that these two names were confused in the manuscript tradition of Democritus’ work, or of the two Lives, Democritus may be presenting Homer’s father as a ‘skilled, experienced’ (δαήμων) merchant, while Democritus suggests a poor beggar (ἀλήμων is the Homeric word for beggars: cf. *Od*. 17.376 and 19.74). Finally, a person called Democritus is mentioned in Schol. Α Ι. 2.744 in relation to a textual problem (Ἀίθικεσσί: Δημοκρίνης ἀγνοήσας Ἀιθιόπεσσιν ἐγραφεν, κακῶς), but we do not have evidence for the philological activity of Democritus: Democritus and Democritus may in fact be two different people.
22. Ἐνιοὶ δὲ Θαμύραν: this character must be identified with Thamyris (see also Tz. Alleg. 64, who writes Θαμύρων), the bard who is said at Il. 2.591-600 to challenge the Muses in song and to be punished by them. Thamyris is nowhere else attested as the father of Homer and the source of the Certamen is not indicated. However, it is a common habit in the ancient biographies to manufacture genealogical links between poets and the character Thamyris in particular seems to present some features that make him suitable for such a role. First, he is a Homeric character. Secondly, some sources say that Thamyris was punished by the Muses by becoming blind (e.g. Hes. fr. 65 M.-W.). On Thamyris see the recent study by Wilson 2009. Nothing else is known about the biographical legend linking Thamyris and Homer. The corresponding character in the list of mothers is another unknown character, an Ithacesian girl sold by the Phoenicians. West 1967: 445 pairs Thamyris with the Muse Calliope (26-7), but he is not on safe ground: according to tradition, Thamyris asked to marry one of the Muses if he won the contest against them (Schol. b Il. 2.595), but he was defeated and punished (see also Paus. 4.33.7; D. Chr. 13.21) and there is no trace of an actual union of Thamyris with any of the Muses.

22-3. Αἰγύπτιοι δὲ Μενέμαχον ἱσογραμματέα: there is no other known source for Menemachus besides Tzetzes (Alleg. 60) who, as usual in this passage, does not mention his own source. The reading ἱσογραμματέα is not completely clear in L but Tzetzes may give some authority to it. In his list of Homer’s seven birthplaces Tzetzes lists Egyptian Thebes, which is the only Egyptian city that seems to have had claims on Homer (perhaps because of its mention in Il. 9.381-4; see also Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.1: ἄλλοι δ’ Αἰγύπτιον ἀπὸ Θηβῶν), but in the Certamen there is no explicit mention of Menemachus’ home town. The Certamen connects Homer’s Egyptian origins with an Egyptian source, uniquely so. Suda s.v. Ὅμηρος 2 does not give any source (οἱ δ’ Αἰγύπτιον); Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.2 (ἄλλοι δ’ Αἰγύπτιον αὐτὸν εἶπον διὰ τὸ ἦν παράγειν τοὺς ἡρώας ἐκ στόματος ἀλλήλους φιλούντας, ὅπερ ἐστὶν ἔθος
τοὺς Αἰγυπτίους ποιεῖν) may point to the ancient habit of inferring Homer’s birthplace from his poetry, not always with a view to making him a fellow citizen (Zenodotus of Mallos made him a Chaldaean: see Schol. AT II. 23.79b; Aristarchus an Athenian: Schol. A II. 13.197). Homer was considered an Egyptian by a Cypriot, Alexander of Paphos (in Eust. Od. 1713.17). There is no evidence of a connection between Menemachus and any of the women in the list of mothers, so that pairing him with Calliope (the corresponding name in the list of mothers) or the woman from Ithaca (West 1967: 445) is mere speculation.

23-4. εἰσὶ δὲ οἱ Τηλέμαχον τὸν Ὄδυσσέως: another case of a genealogical connection between the poet and his characters: on Thamyris see 22n. The reference to Telemachus is evidently designed to connect the poet with Odysseus; this is clear also from ll. 37-43. In Suda s.v. Ὄμηρος 1 Telemachus and Polycaste are mentioned as parents of Homer, and in the Certamen too Polycaste is mentioned in the list of mothers (27): this is another couple that seems to be implicitly matched up in our text. The legend derives from the meeting between Polycaste and Telemachus described in Od. 3.464, where Polycaste bathed Telemachus upon his arrival at Pylos. Despite the concerns of the ancient scholiasts (Schol. Od. 3.464: τόφρα δὲ Τηλέμαχον λούσεν καλὴ Πολυκάστη· λουθῆναι αὐτῶν ἐποίησεν· οὐ γὰρ αὐτὴ ἔλουσεν. ἢ ὅτι ὑπὸ παρθένων ἔθος ἦν τοὺς ἠρωᾶς λοῦεσθαι), legends about the offspring of the couple were current already in archaic times (cf. Hes. fr. 221 M.-W., where they have a child called Persepolis). In the oracle uttered by the Pythia to Hadrian, however, Telemachus is matched with Epicaste: see 32-43n.

24. οἱ μὲν Μήτης: this character is mentioned as the mother of Homer only here; Suda Ὄμηρος 1 gives the name in the form Εὐμήτης. Her name, ‘Cleverness’, is appropriate for the mother of Homer; see above for connections with Odysseus. The Suda confirms that Maion is connected to Metis in one strand of the tradition (on Maion see 20n.): the Certamen too seems to pair them
up as both names are in the first position in their respective lists. The Suda also adds that Eumetis was the daughter of Euepes son of Mnesigenes and married Maion who went to Smyrna at the same time as the Amazons (Μαίων, ὃς ἠλθεν ἀμα ταῖς Αμαζόσιν ἐν Σμύρνῃ καὶ γῆμας Εὔμητιν τὴν Εὐέπους τοῦ Μνησιγένους ἔποιησεν Ὄμηρον). The names Euepes and Mnesigenes are otherwise unknown but are both speaking names (built on the words ἔπος and μνήμη). The fact that Maion went to Smyrna ‘together with the Amazons’, who are connected to foundation myths of Smyrna (see e.g. Str. 12.3.21; Schol. bT ΙI. 6.186), may also connect Homer with these myths, and certainly makes him one of the first citizens of Smyrna.

οἱ δὲ Κρηθηίδα: on Cretheis, and the couple Cretheis-Meles, see 9-10n.

25. οἱ δὲ Θεμίτην: she is probably to be identified with Themisto, Homer’s mother in the Cypriot tradition according to Pausanias (10.24.3): see 21n.

οἱ δὲ Εὐγνηθῶ: this name is not otherwise attested. The merchant Daemon is the man in the corresponding position in the list of fathers, but there is no evidence to connect them. However, there is no need to emend Εὐγνηθῶ to Ὕρνηθῶ (see apparatus), as the Certamen suggests no connection with Maion, Hymnetho’s partner in the Homeric Lives (Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.3; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.1). The appearance of Eugnetho here may perhaps have been inspired by Hymnetho, but it is no mere slip: somebody created an obviously speaking name, and it should stand.

25-6. ἔνιοι δὲ Ἰθακησίαν τινὰ υπὸ Φοινίκων ἀπεμποληθείσαν: this character is nowhere attested in the Homeric biographies but it displays some features that are common in this type of literature: the fact that she is said to be from Ithaca is clearly an attempt to connect Homer with the Odyssey (see also the case of Telemachus, 23-4n.); stories about forced movements of the mother of Homer, and more generally the modest origins of the poet, were common: see e.g. Cretheis who had to escape from her home town after becoming pregnant (Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.2-3). The role of the Phoenicians as traders and
their connection with abduction stories in the *Odyssey* (esp. *Od.*, 15.415-84) seem also relevant here. It is unclear why Rzach proposed the emendation Ἰδακησίαν.

26-7. οἱ δὲ Καλλιόπην τὴν Μοῦσαν: a transparent attempt to make Homer the inspired poet *par excellence*. Ancient readers were attuned to the symbolic force of this claim: compare an epigram by Antipater (*AP* 16.296: εἰ δὲ μὲ Φοίβου/ χρὴ λέξαι πινυτάν ἀμφαδὰ μαντοσύναν,/ πάτρα τοι τελέθει μέγας οὐρανός, ἐκ δὲ γυναικὸς/ οὐ θνατάς ματρὸς δ᾽ ἐπλεο Καλλιότας; see also *AP* 16.295) and the way this same epigram is introduced in Ps.-Plu. *Vit. Hom.* 1.4 (ἀξιον δὲ μηδὲ τὸ ὑπὸ Ἀντιπάτρου τοῦ ἐπιγραμματοποιοῦ γραφὲν ἐπίγραμμα παραλιπέτειν, ἔχον οὐκ ἀσέμνως; see also Isaac Porphyrogenitus *Praefatio in Homerum* 8 Kindstrand (οἱ δὲ τὴν Καλλιόπην φασὶ γεννῆσαι τούτον, εἰκότως διὰ τὴν τῶν ὅμιμων αὐτοῦ καλλιέπειαν). Calliope is Homer’s mother also in Anon. *Vit. Hom.* 2.1. In the *Suda* (*Ὅμηρος* 1) her partner is Apollo, who does not appear in the *Certamen*’s list of fathers. Apollo and Calliope are mentioned in the genealogy at 46 and 48 respectively, but with different roles.)

27. τινὲς δὲ Πολυκάστην τὴν Νέστορος: see 23-4n.

27-32. ἐκαλεῖτο δὲ ... πηροὶ καλοῦνται: the issue of the poet’s original name, already mentioned earlier in the text (see 10-12n. for a discussion on the connection between Smyrne and the name Melesigenes), now becomes the focus of attention. The *Certamen* offers three alleged original names (thus echoing the list of birthplaces at 8-17) and suggests two explanations as to why they were dropped. As in other lists, the text combines well known traditions with less widely attested ones: Meles and Aulettes are otherwise unknown while Melesigenes is very common. The change of name is motivated with reference to the most widely circulating etymologies for the name Homer (‘blind’ and ‘hostage’) but unlike what we are told in all the extant Lives, here it is Homer’s father, rather than Homer himself, who has been taken hostage. Conversely
Meles, elsewhere the name of Homer’s father, is here attributed to the poet himself.

27-8. ἐκαλεῖτο δὲ Μέλης: otherwise the name of Homer’s father, in the context of the Smyrnean tradition (9-10n.). The absence of punctuation in this part of the manuscript seems to show that Melesigenes was perceived, at the very least by the scribe of L, as another form of the name Meles, rather than a different one (the manuscript text runs: ἐκαλεῖτο δὲ Μέλης ὡς ὑ ὁ νές φασὶ Μελησιγενῆς· ὡς δὲ ἐνιοὶ ἀνλητήν). As a proper name, Meles is attested for a singer mentioned by Plato (Grō. 502a4).

28. ὡς δὲ τινὲς φασὶ Μελησιγενῆς: see 10n.

28-9. ὡς <ἄ> ἔνιοι Αὐλητῆς: an otherwise unknown name for Homer, clearly referring to Homer’s poetic activity; for other speaking names in Homer’s family see the genealogy at 45-53. Welcker 1835: 149 proposed the emendation Ἀλτης, unanimously accepted by later editors, on the basis of Schol. T II. 22.51: ὀνομάκλυτος Ἀλτης: Ἀθηνοκλῆς φησὶ τὸν Ὀμηρὸν πρῶην Ἀλτην καλεῖσθαι διὰ τὸ ἐπαινεῖν αὐτῶν ὀνομάκλυτος. Altes is a minor Homeric character, the father of Priamus’ first wife Laotoe, and is mentioned in the Iliad only twice (II. 21.85-6 and II. 22.51). The fact that Homer called him ὀνομάκλυτος (despite his minor role) led Athenocles to think that Altes was Homer’s original name. But although Αὐλητῆς may result from a corruption of Ἀλτης, it also testifies to the continued creative energy of the biographical tradition and may respond to a shift in paedagogical emphasis: Ἀλτης responds to the habit of drawing biographical information on Homer from his works; Αὐλητῆς would be a speaking name, like many others transmitted in the poets’ genealogies and in the Certamen too. There is no need therefore to emend the name given by the manuscript, except for its ending: the accusative in the manuscript (see apparatus) is due to a misunderstanding of the copyist, who probably thought that this name was connected to the following infinitive ὀνομασθῆναι (as the absence of the necessary punctuation seems to point out), which is instead to be
taken with the accusative Ὄμηρον.

29-32. ὀνομασθῆναι ... καλοῦνται: the text lists the two most common etymologies for the name Homer, ‘blind’ and ‘hostage’: for discussion of this alternative etymology see 11-12n. The Certamen does not express a preference for either of the etymologies listed. About the possibility that Homer’s Cypriot father Masagoras was given hostage to the Persians, and more generally for the Cypriot tradition on Homer, see 21n. That it is Homer’s father who was given hostage and that he was given to the Persians are details unique to the Certamen: in the rest of the biographical tradition Homer himself is said to be given hostage by the Smyrneans either to the Chians (Procl. Vit. Hom. 3) or the Colophonians (Suda s.v. Ὄμηρος 3). For modern discussion of Homer’s name see Bonfante 1968, Deroy 1972, Durante 1957, West 1999, Nagy 1979: 296-300 and 2006, Debiasi 2001 and 2012: 463-70.

32-43. ὅπερ δὲ ἀκηκόαμεν ... δεδοξακότος: the mention of the emperor Hadrian (117-38 AD) is our only clue for dating the Certamen, but it is not easy to interpret. The Greek may mean that Hadrian was still alive (e.g. Nietzsche 1870: 536 and most recently Uden 2010), but does not exclude that the compilation was made a little after the emperor’s death: see Wilamowitz 1916: 397 (‘der Verfasser wird nicht viele Dezennien nach Hadrian gelebt haben’), Vogt 1959: 196 n. 6 (‘Freilich darf man nicht an eine Entstehung noch in hadrianischer Zeit denken, sondern lediglich an die Regierungszeit Hadrians als terminus post quem’), West 1967: 433 (‘Hadrian is dead but of fresh memory’). Furthermore, the epithet θειότατος was used of Hadrian both during his life and after his death (cf. Mason: 1974: 53 and 125). However, the claim that we must trust the oracle ‘given the identity of the enquirer and the responder’ (41-2) and the very presence of the episode in this work seem to indicate that it was inserted in the narrative while the emperor was still alive, perhaps not much after his visit to Delphi (125 AD). In a recent study Uden 2010 (esp. 123-9) convincingly argues that this claim
is to be seen in the context of Hadrian’s role in contemporary debates about Greek literature and culture, which did not always meet with approval. The presence of a different response by the Pythia to the same question (56-60) suggests that who authored the Certamen did not really believe that the answer given to Hadrian was the most trustworthy, and probably inserted that claim only as a formal sign of respect for the emperor. But the content of Pythia’s response does not need to be read as ironic: Uden 2010: 127 claims that the notion of an Ithacan Homer would have appeared absurd to anyone in antiquity, but there is nothing to prove this claim. Certainly, within the Certamen that tradition is presented as equal to any other (see 23-4: Telemachus; 25-6: the Ithacan girl).

37-40. ἄγνωστον ... ἀνδρα: this epigram is found only here and in AP 14.102, with some textual variants, among which the name Epicaste, instead of Polycaste (see also Od. 3.464 et Cert. 27). In AP 14 it is transmitted among riddles, mathematical problems and other oracular texts (book 14 is titled Αριθμητικὰ καὶ γρῖφοι). For other stories of people interrogating the oracle on Homer, and other oracular responses, see AP 16.292-299, and Lucian Alex. 53.

44-55. ἐνιοί μὲν οὖν αὐτὸν προγενέστερον ... ἐν Αὐλίδι τῆς Βοιωτίας: the Certamen now discusses another much debated issue of Homer’s biography, his date. The discussion is based on a comparison between Homer and Hesiod, which was one of the most common ways of approaching the matter in antiquity. Graziosi 2002: 90-124 identifies three distinct ways of dating Homer by connecting him to a particular place or event, to a specific individual (usually another poet), and to his subject matter, the Trojan War. Focussing on Homer’s connection with Hesiod is a meaningful choice in the present context, in that it allows the text to introduce their contest, and hints at its outcome. In antiquity, moreover, such discussion of Homer’s and Hesiod’s relative chronology was also seen as a means to assess the relationship between heroic
and didactic poetry; see most recently Beecroft 2010: 79: genealogical claims function as claims about genre theory, therefore the variations in the relationships between two poets are a means of assigning priorities to the different genres and configuring their relationships in different ways. The Certamen introduces three options, apparently without taking sides (ἐνιοι μὲν ... τινὲς δὲ ... τινὲς δὲ). But only the second option, which portrays Homer as a younger contemporary of Hesiod, is supported by a genealogy. The first one (Homer is older than Hesiod), as also the third (Homer and Hesiod are exact contemporaries and competed with one another) are presented without any further support. This confirms the impression, given early on in the text, that at the time of the contest Homer was only at the beginning of his artistic career (see 15-17n.), perhaps as a way of mitigating Homer’s defeat against an older and more expert Hesiod. In fact, a close reading of the genealogy and a comparison with other sources, may even suggest that the Certamen presents the contest as potentially implausible: according to the final part of the genealogy as found in L (and quite differently from other sources of the genealogy, see esp. 51-3n.) the two poets’ lifetime would hardly have overlapped.

44-5. ἐνιοι μὲν οὖν αὐτὸν προγενέστερον Ἡσιόδου φασίν εἶναι: the text does not offer any support to the view that Homer is older than Hesiod. Homer’s chronological priority was often used to assert his greater authority (T5-T9 Most, esp. T7 = Vell. Pat. 1.7.1: ut tempore tanto viro (scil. Homero), ita operis auctoritate proximus; T8 = Plut. Letter of Condolence to Apollonius 105d: ὁ δὲ (Ἡσίοδος) μετὰ τοῦτον καὶ τῇ δόξῃ καὶ τῷ χρόνῳ), a view which is clearly incompatible with Homer’s defeat in the contest.

45-53. τινὲς δὲ νεώτερον ... Ὀμηρον: the presence of an extended genealogy makes this option look like the most trustworthy among the three proposed. The genealogy must have been circulating as early as in the fifth century BC: see Proclus (Vit. Hom. 4), who quotes the historians Hellanicus (4 F 5b = fr. 5...
Fowler), Damastes (5 F 11b = fr. 11 Fowler) and Pherecydes (3 F 167 = fr. 167 Fowler); another version is transmitted in Suda s.v. Ὅμηρος 1, with reference to the historian Charax (103 F 62). For an overview see Kivilo 2010: 12-17. This traditional material, however, is consciously adapted in the Certamen to suit its view of Homer and Hesiod. Thus, the Certamen provides the two poets with divine origins, in accordance with the opening claim that Homer and Hesiod are the most divine poets (see 1-2.). Examples include Apollo, Poseidon, Methone, Calliope, Meles and the nymph Thoosa, whose counterpart in Charax was a Thracian woman, Aithousa. For the same purpose the genealogy includes some divine mothers: we find them together with those male figures who are neither gods nor poets, thus ensuring that each level of the genealogy features either a divinely inspired figure, or a deity (Methone is mentioned with Pierus, Calliope with Oeagrus). Divine mothers are also mentioned at the beginning and end of the genealogy: Thoosa, daughter of Poseidon, appears at the beginning, Hesiod’s mother Pycimede, daughter of Apollo, at the end. (Homer’s own mother does not need to be a goddess as his divine origins are secured by his father, the river god Meles.) As well as several poets (Linus, Orpheus and Melanopus) the genealogy also features names that would suit poets (Harmonides, Philoterpes, Euphemus, Epiphrades). Other names are attested elsewhere, but with different roles (Melanopus, Dius, Apelles, Maion) and the precise relations among some of the characters also vary; for example, while Homer and Hesiod are first cousins in Proclus and the Suda, the genealogy in the Certamen supports the claim that Homer was younger than Hesiod. Accordingly, the positions of some characters are changed and additional characters inserted (Perses, Maion’s daughter and Meles) in order to increase the chronological gap between the two poets.

46. Ἀπόλλωνός φασὶ καὶ Θοώσης τῆς Ποσειδώνος: Thoosa is a character known also from other sources, but with different roles than the one attributed to her in this context: she is Poseidon’s wife rather than his daughter and is
never said to be Apollo’s partner (Od. 1.71-3: she is a nymph, daughter of Phorcys, mother of Polyphemus by Poseidon; Schol. Il. 1.71; Schol. Theoc. 11.67-68; Apollod. 7.4.6; Eust. Od. 1.22.3; Emp. fr. 122.9; Nonn. D. 39.293). In Charax’ version Aithousa, described as a woman from Thrace, takes Thoosa’s place: unlike the Certamen, Charax does not emphasise the divine origins of the poets.

In other sources, Aithousa is the name of a nymph, who is also said to be Poseidon’s daughter and to have had a son by Apollo (Apollod. 3.100; Paus. 9, 20, 1; Schol. Hes. Th. 54b1; Ael. Herod. De Pros. Cath. 296, 7; the son is named Eleutheros, not Linus). Some early editors followed Charax and emended Θοώσης to Αἰθούσης, but there is no reason to believe that that was the name used in a hypothetical original version of this genealogy.

47. Λίνος: on this character see West 1983: 56-67 and Ford 2002: 151. Linus and the Linus song, funeral dirge to which he is connected, are known to both Homer and Hesiod (Il. 18.569-70; Hes. fr. 305-306 M.-W.); his presence is thus suitable for the genealogy of these two poets. Several myths circulated about Linus in antiquity; cf. Paus. 9.29.9, who reports the view that at least two poets of this name existed. The genealogy of the Certamen is unique: most commonly, Linus is said to be the son of Apollo and Calliope (Apollod. 1.3.2; Paus. 1.43.7 and 2.19.7), though D. L. 1.4.1 claims that his parents are Hermes and the Muse Ourania (for Ourania only cf. also Hes. fr. 305 M.-W.), and sometimes he is said to be the son of Oeagrus and Calliope (also mentioned in the Certamen, but as parents of Orpheus two generations later). Linus is said to have competed with the god Apollo, and after losing the contest was killed by the god (Paus. 9.29.6).

Λίνου δὲ Πίερος: Pierus is known as the father of nine maidens called Pierides. As was the case with Linus (see above), his family too is connected to a contest story: the Pierides are said to have challenged the Muses in a poetic contest and, after their defeat, to have been turned into birds (Paus. 9.29.3-4; Ant. Lib. 9). In the Certamen he is the son of Linus and father of Oeagrus. In the genealogy of Charax he occupies the same position. Other sources suggest a
different lineage: according to Melisseus (402 F 1) Pierus is Linus’ father and Methone his sister.

47-8. Πιέρου δὲ καὶ νύμφης Μεθώνης Οἰάγρων: among the extant versions of this genealogy Methone is mentioned only here: Proclus starts with the following generation (Orpheus) and Charax gives only the names of the male characters. She is a nymph, one of the Alkyonids, who threw themselves into the sea after Herakles killed their father, and subsequently turned into halcyons: see Suda s.v. Ἀλκυονίδες ἡμέραι.

48. Οἰάγρων: it seems that there is no other trace of Oeagrus’ being the son of Pierus and Methone. In D. S. 3.65.6 he is the son of the Thracian king Charops and king of Thrace himself. The claim that he fathered Orpheus is found in all versions of this genealogy and seems to be the only fixed feature of this character. See below.

Οἰάγρων δὲ καὶ Καλλιόπης Ὀρφέα: several witnesses agree that Orpheus’ parents were Calliope and Oeagros (A. R. 1.23; Tz. Ad Lyc. 831); though others give no name for the mother (Pl. Ἱμπ. 179d, D. S. 4.25.2 and Clem. Al. Protr. 7.63). Oeagros has a different son in Proclus (Dorion) and in Charax (Dres). According to Apollod. 1.14.1, Calliope and Oeagrus also had Linus, who in this genealogy is in another position. On Calliope see 26-7., where she is mentioned in the list of Homer’s mothers. Here she guarantees the presence of a divinity in earlier levels of Homer’s genealogy.

Ὀρφέα: the Certamen is the only extant text in which Homer and Hesiod are descendants of Orpheus. Orpheus is arguably the most important poet in this genealogy, and indeed Proclus reports the genealogy only from Orpheus onwards, claiming that ‘Hellanicus, Damastes, and Pherekydes trace his lineage back to Orpheus’. According to Kivilo 2010: 16-17 and 54-6 his presence in the genealogy may point to a role of the Orphic poets in creating it, and more generally in shaping biographical traditions (see esp. pp. 54-6, where she also spots Orphic influences in the traditions about Hesiod). The connection
between Homer, Hesiod and Orpheus was not only genealogical: frequent references to Orpheus, Musaeus, Hesiod and Homer (usually in this order, cf. Hes. T17, T18, T116a, T119bi, bii Most) suggest that together they were seen as the most ancient and authoritative poets. For the possibility that this series of names is to be interpreted chronologically, see Graziosi 2002: 107 n. 51, Ford 2002: 45, Koning 2010: 52-5.

49. Ὀρφέως δὲ Ὄρτην: this seems to be the only attestation of a character named Ortes. His counterpart in the genealogy of Charax is called Δρῆς: Goettling, Nietzsche and Rzach emend the text of L on that basis, but Dres too is otherwise unknown. Proclus gives yet another name, Dorion. Both Proclus and Charax add Eukles, a name that is integrated into this genealogy by many editors (see apparatus) but on no safe ground.

Ἀρμονίδην: the name is suitable for a poet, but as many others in this context it is nowhere else attested in relation to the genealogy of Homer and Hesiod. In Il. 5.60 Harmonides is the father of Phereclus, and, like his son, is described as a Trojan ship-builder. The scholium to the passage makes it clear that the name Harmonides was connected with the verb ἀρμόζειν and that it was felt to be significant in this context (Ἀρμονίδεω: ὅτι ὀνοματοθετικὸς ὁ ποιητής, καὶ ἐν Ὀδυσσείᾳ παραπλησίως ποιεῖ· οἰκεῖον γὰρ τέκτονος τὸ ἀρμόζειν, κάκει (sc. X 330): ‘Τερπιάδης δὲ τ’ ἄοιδός’). It would seem that Lucian aimed for a similar effect when introducing Harmonides the flute-player as the protagonist in his homonymous dialogue. Tzetzes (H. 168), commenting on the Iliadic passage, exemplifies the many uses of the verb ἀρμόζειν by comparing ship-builders and rhetoricians on the ground that they both ‘ἀρμόττουσι’ (πλοία, ships, or λόγους, words). Proclus and Charax transmit the name Ἰδμονίδην, another unknown character. The emendation Ἰαδμονίδην, proposed by Nietzsche and Rzach, is unconvincing: this name is not attested, and it has been created on the basis of Aesop’s kinsman Ἰάδμων, or Ἰδμων (see Hdt. 2.134; Suda s.v. Ἀίσωπος; Plu. The Delays of Divine Vengeance 557a) that seems to be irrelevant in this.
context and it misses the importance of speaking names in the text. See also, on Auletes, 28-9n.

Φιλοτέρπην: this name is attested only in this genealogy, in all of its versions. It is clearly another speaking name (‘fond of pleasure’) which may suit a poet. The compound is also attested as an adjective (e.g. Nonn. D. 40.366).

50. Εὐφημον: another speaking name suitable for a poet, or for a poet’s ancestor. It is frequently found as the name of Stesichorus’ father (Pl. Phdr. 244A; St. Byz. s.v. Μάταυρος; Vita Pindari, De Novem Lyricis 11 Drachmann; Suda s.v. Στηρίχοφος) and also appears in Musaios’ genealogy (Suda s.v. Μουσαίος). As an ancestor of Homer and Hesiod, Euphemus is attested only here and in the genealogy of Charax. Proclus gives the form Chariphemus. For Chariphemus as the founder of Cyme see Ephorus 70 F 99 = Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.2. For Euphemus as a Homeric character see Il. 2.846 (he is the son of Troezenus and the captain of the Ciconian spearmen).

Επιφράδην: another little-known character with a name that may suit a poet; cf. ἐπιφραδέως (from ἐπιφράζομαι), ‘wisely’, ‘circumspectly’. The name is not attested outside this genealogy.

Μελάνωπον: a mythical poet from Cyme who features also in other biographies of Homer and Hesiod, though in different roles: Pausanias (5.7.8) claims that he lived after Olen; he composed a hymn to Opis and Hecaerge, two daughters of Boreas who introduced the worship of Artemis to Delos (as testified also by Call. Del. 292). Melanopus apparently claimed that these two maidens came to Delos before Achaeaia, who according to Olen was the first to arrive on the island. In the Certamen Melanopus is the father of Apellaios and Dios; in Proclus he is the father of Apelles and grandfather of Dios and Maion; cf. Suda s.v. Ἡσίοδος (father of Apelles, grandfather of Dios). The name of Melanopus is also attested elsewhere in connection with Homer: in Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 1 a character with the same name, although not safely identifiable with the poet mentioned by Pausanias, is a man of modest means who went from
Magnesia to Aeolian Cyme when this city was founded and there fathered Homer’s mother Cretheis; in Lucian Enc. Dem. 9.16 he is again said to be the father of Homer’s mother (καὶ μητέρα <τὴν> Μελανώπου).

51-3. τούτου δὲ ... Ὅμηρον: as this genealogy is used here as evidence for Homer’s being younger than Hesiod and related to him, the final part differs substantially from Proclus’ version, where the poets are said to be contemporaries: Procl. Vit. Hom. 4: Μαιώνα γὰρ φασὶ τὸν Ὅμηρου πατέρα καὶ Δίον τὸν Ἡσίόδου γενέσθαι Ἀπέλλιδος τοῦ Μελανώπου. (Charax reports only Homer’s parentage and neglects to insert Dius and Hesiod.) This is achieved mainly by giving different roles to Apelles, Maion and Dius and other subtle variations. In the Certamen Maion is presented as two generations younger than Dius, Hesiod’s father, and Homer is not his son but his grandson by his daughter. The ultimate result is to present Homer as three generations younger than Hesiod. The reading Πέρσου makes Maion the son of Hesiod’s brother, and the kinship between the two poets is reinforced. There is no need to emend it to Ἀπέλλου or a different form of this same name (see apparatus). This emendation would balance the genealogy, otherwise brutally interrupted by Apelles’ side, and would make it more similar to its counterparts in other sources; but complete consistency between the various versions cannot be achieved. Inserting another female character, the daughter of Maion, allows the text to introduce the river god Meles and give Homer a divine parent (thus balancing the fact that Hesiod’s mother Pycimede is the daughter of Apollo). Nietzsche’s emendation (καὶ θυγατρὸς instead of θυγατρὸς καί) is not necessary.

51-2. Δίου δὲ καὶ Πυκιμήδης τῆς Ἀπόλλωνος θυγατρὸς Ἡσίοδον καὶ Πέρσην: while the name of Hesiod’s brother comes from Works and Days, and perhaps that of his father too (cf. Op. 299: Πέρση, δίον γένος), Hesiod makes no mention of his mother in his work. The tradition, however, unanimously transmits the name Pycimede since at least the fourth century BC (Ephorus 70 F
1= Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. A 2). Nothing is known about the origins of her name, which is appropriate for the mother of a didactic poet: it means ‘cautious minded’, ‘wise’ (see also Kivilo 2010: 9). Ephorus (loc. cit.) claims that Dius married Pycimede in Ascra, after leaving Cyme because of debts. In Tz. Life of Hesiod 1 Colonna Dius and Pycimede leave Cyme together; in this context she is also explicitly said to be the mother of Perses. In P.Oxy. 3537 r. she is mentioned as ὀλβίστη μήτειρα; cf. also Suda s.v. Ἡσίοδος. The fact that Pycimede is said to be Apollo’s daughter (a suggestion not found anywhere else) reinforces the claim of kinship between the god of poetry, mentioned at the very beginning of the genealogy, and the two poets who at the beginning of the work were introduced as θειότατοι (1).

54-5. τινές δὲ συνακμάσαι ... ἐν Αὐλίδι τῆς Βοιωτίας: in a work that devotes much space to the contest of Homer and Hesiod, this episode is introduced in a surprising way. The phrasing implies that Homer and Hesiod had to be contemporaries in order to be able to compete, but this option is introduced in the same way as the others (τινές δὲ ... φασίν) and is supported by no evidence. Some authors in antiquity refused to believe that the contest happened on the basis that the two poets did not live at the same time (Proclus and Tzetzes, see Introduction, pp. 44-51). The connection between the story of the contest and the view that the two poets lived at the same time is found elsewhere too (cf. Philostratus in Introduction, pp. 31-5; Aul. Gell. NA 3.11.3) and the two traditions may well have developed to support each other (see also Kivilo 2010: 22; but note Hdt. 2.53.2; Clem. Al. Strom. 1.21.117.4; Sync. Chron. 202.21-2 and 206.9 (T 10, 12, 14 Most), where no such connection seems to be implied.

55. ὁμόσε <γενομένου> ἐν Αὐλίδι τῆς Βοιωτίας: by saying that Homer and Hesiod met up in Aulis before the contest, the compiler draws a further detail of the story from Hesiod’s Works and Days 650-9: the two poets are said to make the same trip from Aulis to Chalcis that Hesiod mentions in that passage, and by which he sets his poetry against that of Homer – see Introduction on Hesiod,
esp. p. 12. It is unlikely that Aulis is mentioned here as the location of the contest, *pace* Nagy 2010: 43 among others. First, there is a linguistic problem in the transmitted text of the manuscript: the expression ἀγωνίσασθαι ὁμόσε (‘compete with each other’?) is never attested in Greek literature, and it is unlikely that ὁμόσε should be taken together with ἀγωνίσασθαι. Moreover, at 67-8 the contest is said to have taken place at Chalcis. Because the location of the contest was fixed at Chalcis by Hesiod himself, and was accepted unanimously in all other versions of the story, Chalcis must be the correct location of the contest in the *Certamen* too. Nietzsche’s emendation ἐν Χαλκίδι τῆς Εὐβοίας may thus seem tempting (see Nietzsche’s apparatus *ad loc.*: ‘Εὐβοΐα et Βοιωτία nomina saepius confunduntur, veluti in schol. ad Hesiod. *Theog.* v. 54’), but it too founders on the difficulty of construing ἀγωνίσασθαι with ὁμόσε. Busse’s supplement <γενομένους> elegantly restores the gist of the text before corruption occurred: the two poets met at Aulis before the contest, and together sailed to Chalcis to compete. Importantly, this sequence of events is also implied in the following lines: 66-8: καὶ οὗτοι οὖν ἐκ τύχης, ὡς φασί, συμβαλόντες ἀλλήλοις ἔλθον εἰς τὴν Χαλκίδα. The particles γὰρ at 55 (ποιήσαντα γὰρ τὸν Μαργίτην) and οὖν at 66 (καὶ οὗτοι οὖν), that brings the narrative back to the contest, indicate the presence of a digression that explains how the poets ended up competing in Chalcis after their initial meeting in Aulis.

ποιήσαντα γὰρ τὸν Μαργίτην: the *Margites* is the only work that Homer is said to have composed before the contest; all other works are attributed to the period after it (*Thebaid* and *Epigoni* at 256 and 258, *Iliad* and *Odyssey* at 275-6, *Hymn to Apollo* at 317; some epigrams). Moreover, Homer is explicitly said to be getting on in years only after the composition of the *Hymn to Apollo*, his last work to be mentioned before his fatal sojourn on Ios (323). The *Certamen* thus seems to suggest that the contest happened while Homer was still young, perhaps to play down the significance of his defeat. The idea, current in
Imperial times, that the *Margites* is a juvenile work, and more specifically that it was Homer's first, was already introduced in par. 2 (see 15-17n.).

56. ἐνεργεῖον, κατὰ πόλιν ἀψωιδήν: from the beginning of his artistic career Homer is presented as a travelling poet and performer. The verb ἀψωιδέω appears twice in the *Certamen*. In both instances it refers to Homer, and means 'to perform'. By contrast, compounds of ποιέω are used in the text to indicate acts of poetic creation: 55-6: ποιήσαντα γὰρ τὸν Μαργίτην περιέρχεσθαι κατὰ πόλιν ἀψωιδήν; 286-7: ἐκείθεν δὲ παραγενόμενος εἰς Κόρινθον ἐφαρμόζει τὰ ποιήματα. Homer is thus depicted here both as a poet and as a proto-rhapsode, that is, the first performer of his own poetry. The latter idea may have been promoted by Homeric rhapsodes keen to give their profession a respectable ancestry. Indeed, the very fact that composition and performance are separated so clearly in the text may point to rhapsodic practice, as reflected also in the famous story of Cynaethus stealing from Homer told in Schol. Pi. N. 2.1. On the rhapsodes see Graziosi 2002: 21-40; on 'wandering poets' more generally see Hunter-Rutherford 2009. Some Greek texts present Hesiod too as a rhapsode, and indeed as a proto-rhapsode, sometimes along with Homer: [Hes.] fr. 357 M.-W. (on which see the Introduction, pp. 14-18) and 4 F 464 (ἔφησι πρὸς τὸν Ἡσίοδον Νικοκλής), both transmitted in Schol. Pi. N. 2.1; Pl. R. 10.600d: Ὅμηρον δὲ ἀρα οἱ ἐπὶ ἐκείνου, εἰπερ οίος τ' ἦν πρὸς ἀρετὴν ἐνῆσαι ἀνθρώπους, ἠ Ἡσίοδον ἀψωιδεῖν ἀν περιόντας εἰὼν. Rhapsodes must have performed Hesiod's works too: cf. Pl. Lg. 2.658d: ἀψωιδόν δὲ καλῶς Ἰλιάδα καὶ Ὅδυσσειάν ἢ τι τῶν Ἡσιοδείων διατιθέντα τάχ' ἂν ἣμείς οἱ γέφυρτες ἣδηστα ἀκούσαντες νικᾶν ἄν φαίμεν πάμπολ. For the hypothesis that Hesiod depicts himself as a rhapsode in Th. 30, see Patzer 1993. In the *Certamen*, however, the verb ἀψωιδέω is only used of Homer, one of several points of contrast between the two poets. While Homer travels a lot and his travels are always connected to his poetic performances, Hesiod travels far less: he goes to
Chalcis to participate in the contest; after that, he goes to Delphi to dedicate his victory and consult the oracle, and then to Oinoe in an unsuccessful attempt to escape his fate. The text thus reinforces the image of Hesiod as a poet who was always, and from the beginning, connected to a particular place. Homer, by contrast, emerges as a poet who travelled around the cities of Greece during his lifetime and could therefore be claimed by every Greek city after his death.

56-62. ἐλθόντα δὲ καὶ εἰς Δελφοὺς ... περὶ τὴν ἐκεί χώραν: Homer himself goes to interrogate the Pythia about his own birthplace: this fits well in a text that opens by emphasising the debate existing over the poet’s origins. The Pythia establishes a genealogical connection between Homer and Ios: an apparent contradiction with 37-40, according to which the Pythia told Hadrian that Homer was from Ithaca. This may agree with the impression that the author of the Certamen does not share his own claim on the truthfulness of this utterance (41-3). On the Pythia’s response to Homer see 59-60n. The oracle also contains a prophecy on Homer’s death: this allows a parallel with the oracle consulted by Hesiod, later in the text (215-23). The fact that Homer’s oracle is mentioned so early in the narration, while Hesiod visits Delphi only after the contest, is meaningful in narrative terms. The oracles (and therefore the fate of the two poets) and the contest seem to have strong causal relations with each other. The meeting between Homer and Hesiod, hence their contest, takes place ultimately because of the oracle Homer received (the poet ended up in Aulis in an attempt to stay away from the established place of his death as revealed by the Pythia); Hesiod in turn consults the oracle precisely because of the contest (he goes to Delphi to dedicate the victory). As Vogt 1959 and West 1967 argue, it is possible that the episode of Homer’s oracle was present already in Alcidamas’ account. Alcidamas was the source for the the episode of Hesiod’s oracle and death (240), and the source for Homer’s death too (P.Mich. inv. 2754): the episode of Homer’s oracle would complete an elaborate narrative structure and
depict a clear nexus oracle-contest-death, which may well have been present already in one of the Certamen’s literary source.

59-60. ἔστιν Ἰος νήσος ... αἰνιγμα φύλαξαι: (AP 14.65) the epigram is transmitted with several variations in other sources, some of which mix it with verses from another oracle given by the Pythia to Homer: (AP 14.66) Ὄλβιε καὶ δύσδαιμον—ἐφυς γὰρ ἐπ’ ἀμφοτέροις / πατρίδα διζηαι· μητρὸς δὲ τοι, σὺ πατρὸς ἐστι / μητρόπολις ἐν νήσῳ ἀπὸ Κρήτης εὑρείς, / Μίνως γαῖς, οὔτε σχεδὸν οὔτ’ ἀποτηλοῦ· / ἐν τῇ μοῖρ’ ἐστίν σε τελευτῆσαι βιότοιο, / εὔτ’ ἄν ἀπὸ γλώσσης παίδων μὴ γνῶς ἐσακούσας / δυσεξύνετον σκολιοῖς λόγοις εἰσημένον ὕμνον· / δοὺς γὰρ ὡς μοῖρας λάχες· ἢν μὲν ἀμαυρὰν / ἑλιῶν δισσῶν, τὴν δ’ ἀθανάτως ἱσόμοιον, / ζῶντι τε καὶ φθιμένως φθιμένος δ’ ἔτι πολλόν ἀγήρως. On this epigram see Skiadas 1965: 49-52. Pausanias (10.24.9) and Stephanus of Byzantium (s.v. Ἰος) report a version of the oracle that starts with the first two verses of AP 14.66 and then continues with our AP 14.65. Pseudo-Plutarch reports both the epigrams in succession, as they are in the Greek Anthology.

62-8. κατὰ δὲ τὸν αὐτὸν χρόνον ... ἠλθον εἰς τὴν Χαλκίδα: these lines are part of the short digression which started at 55n. and explains how the two poets ended up competing in Chalcis. Many of the details concerning the setting of the poetic contest are taken from Op. 650-9 (Hesiod’s sea trip from Aulis; the contest is held on the occasion of Amphidamas’ funeral games; these games were organized by Amphidamas’ sons; and remarkable prizes are announced).

63. Γανύκτωρ: this name occurs in two circumstances in the account of the life of Hesiod. He is the son of Amphidamas, organiser and judge of his father’s funeral games, here and in Tz. Life of Hesiod 126 Colonna. But according to other traditions, of which the Certamen too, among others, is aware, Ganyctor is a son of Phegeus, from Locris, one of Hesiod’s murderers with his brother
Amphiphanes (226–7n.) or a man from Naupactus father of Hesiod’s murderers (241n.).

63-4. Αμφιδάμαντος βασιλέως Εὐβοίας: this character is mentioned only by Hesiod (Op. 654) and in passages related to the story of the contest. Plutarch (fr. 84 Sandbach, p. 26) says that Amphidamas died in a sea battle during the Lelantine war. This war was fought between Chalcis and Eretria and it is approximately dated between the end of the eighth and the beginning of the seventh century BC. See Breilich 1961: 47-64 and Parker 1997: 59-93. Hesiod’s mention of Amphidamas and Plutarch’s claim have also been taken as a chronological clue for Hesiod. However, given the scarcity of precise information on Amphidamas and the Lelantine war, some scholars have doubted the credibility of Plutarch’s claim (for discussion see Evelyn-White 1914: XVI, Sinclair 1932: 68, West 1966: 43-4 and 1978: 321, Edwards 1971: 203-4, Fehling 1979, Janko 1982: 94-8, Kivilo 2010: 46, Ercolani 2010: 16, Kõiv 2011). Thucydides shows that this war was perceived as a big event that took place in an undefined past and in which for the first time the rest of the Greek world was divided in alliance with one side or the other (Th. 1.15.3: μάλιστα δὲ ἐς τὸν πάλαι ποτὲ γενόμενον πόλεμον Χαλκιδέων καὶ Ἕρετριῶν καὶ τὸ ἄλλο Ἑλληνικὸν ἐς ξυμμαχίαν ἐκατέρων διέστη). In this respect, regardless of the historical reliability of Plutarch’s claim, the Lelantine war may have been perceived in antiquity as an appropriate historical background for the story of the contest of the two greatest poets.

64-6. πάντας τοὺς ἐπισήμους ἄνδρας ... συνεκάλεσεν: this claim highlights the importance of the event. The fact that other competitions besides the poetic one were included in Amphidamas’ funeral games is not explicitly claimed in Hesiod’s Works and Days but could easily have been inferred from the fact that the poet specifies that he won ‘ὕμνῳ’ (657), in song, thus not ruling out the possibility of other kind of games. The idea of an opposition between wisdom and physical strength (φῶμῃ καὶ τάχει and σοφία, l. 65) appears already in
Xenophanes (fr. 2 West) and was a common contrast for Alcidamas: Richardson 1981: 5, and O’ Sullivan 1992: 80.

68-70. τοῦ δὲ ἄγωνος ... τοῦ τετελευτηκότος: the way the judges are introduced creates (unfulfilled) expectations about how the competition will be judged. No one would expect that Panoides, who appears here at the same level as the other notable Chalcideans sitting as judges (μετ’ αὐτῶν) and is apparently singled out only as brother of the deceased, will in fact have total decisional power (205-10n.).

69. Πανοίδης: a character who is attested only in texts related to the contest of Homer and Hesiod. In the form given by L (here and in l. 177) it is a speaking name meaning ‘All-knowing’. However it is probably used ironically here, as the Certamen does not seem to agree with the final verdict and other texts too show that he became famous precisely because he turned out to be wrong in his judgement (205-10n.). P.Petr. I 25 l. 4 gives Πανήδης and this form has been unanimously used to emend L. But the two forms represent two different attempts at etymologising the name and should both be kept in the text of their respective witnesses. Πανήδης has been interpreted as ‘he who enjoys everything’ (πᾶν + ἴδυς: see Kirchhoff 1892: 887) and again indicates the king’s inepitude as a judge. Another attested form is Πανίδης (Philostratus, Tzetzes and Michael Apostoles Collectio Paroemiarum). Iotacism alone does not explain the existence of the different forms of the name.

70-2. ἀμφότερον δὲ τῶν ποιητῶν ... τοῦ τρόπον τούτου: the outcome of the contest is well known, and not modifiable. Thus the text reveals it already at the beginning of the account of the competition, focussing thereafter on the way (τρόπον) Hesiod came to win.

72-4. προελθόντα ... Ὄμηρον ἀποκρίνασθαι: the words that describe Hesiod taking centre stage, εἰς τὸ μέσον, are common in the description of performative contexts in antiquity: see Detienne 1990: 83-98 and Ford 2002: 32 (esp. n. 25 for references). The text then briefly explains that, throughout the
competition, Hesiod will ask questions and Homer will reply to each of them. This general summary substitutes for more precise indications given in earlier versions before each exchange of verses: cf. P.Petr. I 25. The roles of Homer and Hesiod were different in other accounts of the contest: see Plu. Dinner of the Seven Sages 153a-154f, where Hesiod answers a riddle, and Tzetzes (Life of Hesiod 127 Colonna) who claims that the two poets exchanged improvised verses πρὸς ἀλλήλους, ‘to each other’.

74-89. The first two exchanges of verses are aimed at defining the ‘best’ and the ‘finest’ thing for mortals. These themes are very common in lyric and symposiastic poetry and inform early philosophical enquiry too (Ford 1997: 92-3. See e.g. Sappho fr. 16 Voigt on the κάλλιστον; Plu. Dinner of the Seven Sages 153a for Thales replying to similar questions). Taken together the first two challenges and responses are expressions of common Greek thoughts: Homer claims that the best thing for mortals is not to be born, or to die as soon as possible; the ‘finest’ thing for men, the activity that gives most pleasure to mortals once they are born, is the symposium. From the first few verses, it becomes clear that the hexameters of the Certamen fully draw on the epic tradition. They are created by using a high number of epic formulae and metrical patterns (e.g. the caesura κατὰ τρίτον τροχαῖον, on which see e.g. West 1982: 35-6 and Kirk 1985: 18-24). Sometimes traditional or very popular verses are quoted too. The passage can also be taken as evidence for the quotation of Homeric verses in symposiastic contexts.

75. ὑιὲ Μέλητος ... εἰδὼς: the expression ὑιὲ Μέλητος Ὄμηρος is created on the model of similar invocations of epic heroes: Ατρέος ὑιὲ (Agamemnon: e.g. Il. 2.23); Τυδέος ὑιὲ (Diomedes: e.g. Il. 4.370); ὑιὲ Πριάμου (Hector: e.g. Il. 7.47); Μενοιτίου ὑιὲ (Patroclus: e.g. Il. 9.202); Πηλῆος ὑιὲ (Achilles: e.g. Il. 16.21). ὑιὲ Μέλητος is also at 151 and parallels ἐκγονεὶ Δίου (i.e. son of Dius) used by Homer for Hesiod at 156. For Homer as the son of the river Meles see 9-10n.; θεῶν ἀπὸ μήδεα εἰδὼς in the second half of the hexameter is formulaic too (Od.
Both parts of the verse highlight Homer’s divine nature.

76. εἰπ’ ἄγε μοι ... βροτοῖσιν: the actual question is contained in the last part of the couplet while the first part of this hexameter is again created by using formulaic expressions: εἰπ’ ἄγε μοι is used at the beginning of the hexameter in e.g. ll. 3.192. Πάμπρωτα is in connection with καὶ τοῦτο (81) that follows the second instance of εἰπ’ ἄγε μοι (‘come, tell me first of all’ ... ‘come, tell me this too’). The expression φέρτατόν βροτοῖσιν provides a metrically suitable substitute for the corresponding words in the verses that Homer uses to answer, ἐπιχθοίσαις ἄφισον.

78-9. ἀρχήν μὲν μὴ φύναι ... Ἀἴδαο περήσαι: Homer replies with traditional verses. They are first attested in Theognis (425-8, with added pentameters) but Campbell 1983: 23 suggests that Theognis might have taken the hexameter lines from an earlier source. They are widely attested in several sources: for a list see West 1971, apparatus ad Thgn. 425 ff. More generally, the concept they express was very common (see e.g. S. OC 1225-7, B. 5.160-2). The wide circulation of these verses and ideas certainly explains Homer’s success in this stage of the competition (ll. 90-94), and the very fact that Homer pronounces them makes him a repository for wisdom in the Certamen. The presence of this couplet in P.Petr. I 25 (ll. 12-15) proves that it was connected to the story of the contest between Homer and Hesiod at least by the third century BC, but the connection may well be even older: the couplet is quoted by Stobaeus (4.52.22) under the lemma ἐπαινοῖς θανάτου as coming ἐκ Ἀλκιάδάμαντος Μουσείου and on the basis of this quotation Nietzsche (1870 and 1873) found in Alcidamas’ Musaion the source for the agonistic section of the Certamen (for a more sceptical view see Muir 2001: xix). Theognis’ version has πάντων at the beginning of the couplet, while all the passages that connect these verses to the contest story (implicitly, i.e. Stobaeus, or explicitly, i.e. Certamen and P.Petr. I 25) transmit the reading ἀρχήν. For detailed discussion see Nietzsche 1870: 536, Busse 1909: 113.
n. 1, Wilamowitz 1916b: 401, Vogt 1959: 196 and 202. ὠμος is only in the Certamen, but the emendation in ὡς (see apparatus) is unnecessary. For πύλας Αἴδαο περήσαι cf. II. 5.646: πύλας Αἴδαο περήσειν; II. 23.71: πύλας Αἴδαο περήσω.

81. εἶπ' ἄγε μοι ... Ὀμῆρε: for the first half of the hexameter see 76n. The second part is used to address Homer with another formulaic epithet, θεοῖς ἐπιείκελος. This epithet, found always in the same position in the hexameter, is used in Homeric poetry for Achilles (θεοῖς ἐπιείκελ' Ἀχιλλεύ: e.g. II. 9.485) and in Hesiod is found in the forms θεοῖς ἐπιείκελα τέκνα and θεοῖς ἐπιείκελον ἄνδρα (Th. 963, 987 and 1020). Homer’s divine nature is again emphasised (see also 75n.).

82. τί θνητοῖς ... εἶναι: Hesiod’s new question centers on the theme of the ‘finest thing’ for men. The emendation θνητοῖς κάλλιστον (first proposed by Rzach on the basis of the corresponding papyrus reading), in place of θνητοῖς ἄριστον of the manuscript, is here accepted. Homer has already defined the ‘best thing’ (ἄριστον) for men in the first session: it would make no sense for Hesiod to ask again the same question and for Homer to give a different answer. ἄριστον may be due to the influence of the same word at 78. See also commentary on P.Petr. I 25, 17-19.

84-9. ὁππότ' ἄν εὐφροσύνη ... εἰδεταί εἶναι: the verses used for Homer’s response to Hesiod’s challenge are a description of feasting taken from Odyssey 9.6-11, although this work has not been composed yet at this point in the narrative: see 275-6n. These verses in their original context start off Odysseus’ speech, when Alcinous invites him to reveal his identity and tell his story. In the Certamen Homer’s choice of performing these verses is a guarantee of success for him (see 90-4 for the audience’s reaction), for they express another common Greek view (cf. Heldmann 1982: 77: ‘typisch griechische Lebensfreude und Diesseitigkeit’). In antiquity these Homeric lines were often seen as problematic and criticised (e.g. Plato, R. 390a-b) and were very famous and widely quoted
and discussed (see Hillgruber 1999: 335-6, Pontani 2005: 236 n. 232). Heubeck and Hoekstra 1989: 12 also remark that the scene depicted by Odysseus, ‘the joyful, lavish banquet is an outward and visible sign of a stable and peacefully ordered community as exemplified by the Phaeacian utopia’: Homer, by choosing to perform these verses in reply to Hesiod’s question, appears as a supporter of the social order that they signify. This image of Homer will be central in the exchanges at 151-75. Like the verses of the previous answer, these verses too were certainly connected to the contest story by the third century BC (P.Petr. I 25), and also in this case the connection may go as far as back as Alcidamas’ Museion. The beginning of this passage has been adapted in the Certamen to the new context: while in the Odyssey the first verse starts with ἢ ὅτ’ ἐυφροσύνη (connected to the comparative in the previous verse: οὗ γὰρ ἐγώ γέ τι φημι τέλος χαριέστερον εἶναι) the quotation here begins with ὁππότ’ ἄν εὐφροσύνη. In the last verse, the papyrus reads φαίνεται while both the Certamen and the vulgata of the Odyssey read εἰδεται.

90-4. ὄηθέντων δὲ ... προκατεύχεσθαι πάντας: the position of prominence that Homer will hold throughout the competition is asserted already after the first round. The reaction of the public highlights some of the most important features of Homer as depicted in the Certamen: the ability to provoke wonder and amazement in the public, the obvious appeal to a Panhellenic audience, and the fact that his performance is used as aetiology for future festivals and performances in antiquity.

90-1. ὄηθέντων δὲ τῶν ἐπών: most editors added τούτων after δὲ on the basis of the papyrus reading, but this seems unnecessary.

οὐτω σφοδρῶς φασι θαυμασθῆναι: θαύμα appears from the beginning as a prominent feature of Homeric poetry: it is a reaction that Homer will inspire throughout the contest and will lead the public to ask for him to be awarded the victory (205-6: θαυμάσαντες δὲ καὶ ἐν τούτῳ τὸν Ὅμηρον οἱ Ἑλληνες ἐπιήνουν). Reactions to poetic performances are described in similar terms
already in the *Odyssey* (see e.g. *Od.* 1.325-6 and 1.339-40; more references and discussion in Lanata 1963: 8-9 and Ford 1992: 51-2) and in other Homeric biographies (Ps.-Hdt. *Vit. Hom.* 5 12, 22, 36). θαύμα is an important idea in Alcidamas’ stylistic theory too (O’ Sullivan 1992: 74) and he attributes it explicitly to Homer: *P.Mich.* inv. 2754, ll. 15-18: Ὄμηρος γοῦν διὰ τοῦτο καὶ ζῶν καὶ ἀποθανόν τετίμηται παρὰ πάσιν ἀνθρώποις.

**τοὺς στίχους:** the manuscript reading τὰ ἐπὶ causes a grammatical problem with the following χρυσοῦς αὐτοῦς (91-2). Rzach’s emendation τοὺς στίχους (on the basis of the papyrus) is the most convincing solution proposed (better than Nietzsche’s αὐτοὺς <στίχους>). The manuscript reading may be simply due to the influence of the previous τῶν ἐπὶ.

**ὑπὸ τῶν Ἑλλήνων:** by calling the public that is attending the contest ‘the Greeks’ (cf. also l. 176 ‘οἱ μὲν Ἑλλήνες πάντες’ and l. 205) the *Certamen* parallels the claims of Homer’s Panhellenism made at the opening of the text on biographical grounds (dispute over his birthplace: see 7-8n.). *P.Mich.* inv. 2754 offers a similar assessment (17-19: Ὄμηρος γοῦν διὰ τοῦτο καὶ ζῶν καὶ ἀποθανόν τετίμηται παρὰ πάσιν ἀνθρώποις. Cf. also τῶν Ἑλλήνων at l. 22 of the same papyrus) thus showing that this idea was supported by Alcidamas too.

91-2. ὡστε χρυσοῦς αὐτοῦς προσαγορευθῆναι: the definition of *Od.* 9.5-11 as ‘golden verses’ is attested only here and in *P.Petr.* I 25, 31-2, and it is not possible to know whether it goes back to Alcidamas, or to an earlier source (see Kaiser 1964: 213-14, with references at p. 214 n. 3). It is nevertheless clear in meaning and based on traditional elements. It recalls the definition of χρυσέα ἐπὶ for Pythagoras’ words, for example. The metaphorical use of the adjective χρύσεος is already attested in epic poetry (e.g. referred to Aphrodite: *Il.* 3.64; *Od.* 8.337) and, perhaps more pertinently, Homer himself is called ‘golden’ (Tz. *Life of Hesiod* 141 Colonna: Ὄμηρος γὰρ ὁ χρυσοῦς; Anon. *Vit. Hom.* 2.2 and

92-4. καὶ ἐτὶ καὶ νῦν ... προκατεύχεσθαι πάντας: Homeric poetry was recited on public sacrifices and banquets (see e.g. Pl. *Ion* 535d) but there is no evidence for such performances of this specific passage. It is therefore impossible to know whether this claim was inspired by actual performative experiences or not, but it surely fits the habit of the *Certamen* to use (or perhaps create) myths on performances by Homer as aetiology for other (actual?) festivals and sacrifices: cf. Homer at Argos, at 302-8. Such claims emphasise the persistence of Homer’s legacy. There is no space in the papyrus for καὶ ἐτὶ καὶ νῦν and it may be an attempt by the author of the *Certamen* to make his sources seem relevant to his own time (discussion in Wilamowitz 1916b: 401 n. 1 and Vogt 1959: 216 n. 65).

94. ὁ δὲ Ἡσιόδος ἄχθεσθεις ἐπὶ τῇ Ὀμήρου εὐημερίᾳ: this description of Hesiod’s reaction to Homer’s success starts depicting a great contrast between the two poets. From here onwards Hesiod will appear keener than Homer on quarrels and competition (see also 148-50n.), and this will be in striking contrast to the grounds on which Panoides will issue his judgement (205-10n.).

95. ἐπὶ τῶν ἀπόρων ὡμῆσεν ἐπερῶτησιν: the contest moves on to a more difficult challenge: a question to which there seems to be no possible answer. Such challenges are found in a variety of contexts in ancient Greece (e.g. Heracl. fr. 18 D.-K., Plu. *Alex.* 64). In Alcidamas’ *On Sophists* the word ἀπορία is used to describe the condition in which those who are used to written speeches find themselves when it comes to speak on the spot (*Soph.* 8, 15, 16, 21; in contrast with εὐπορία, see *Soph.* 3, 6, 13, 19, 24, 34): for him, therefore, the fact that Homer does not find himself in an aporetic situation, but is able to solve challenges immediately, may be a relevant illustration of good rhetorical performance.
97-101. Μοῦσ' ἄγε μοι ... περὶ νίκης: Homer is asked not to talk about anything that is, was or shall be and replies by giving a negative prophecy: there will never be funeral games for Zeus, as he is an immortal god. Plutarch mentions this part of the contest as the decisive one in his account of the story; the question is set forth by Lesches, while Hesiod has to reply and is consequently awarded the victory; Plutarch’s version of the question contains no ‘difficulty’ (Dinner of the Seven Sages 153f-154a, see Introduction).

97-8. Μοῦσ' ἄγε μοι ... σὺ δ' ἄλλης μνήσαι ἀοίδης: the ability to know present, past and future is usually connected to the Muses and their ability to sing everything: for the formula τά τ' ἐόντα τά τ' ἐσσόμενα πρό τ' ἐόντα see e.g. Hes. Th. 38; cf. also [Hes.] fr. 204.113 M.-W. (see West 1966: 166). The same ability is attributed with the same words to the seer Chalcas as well (Il. 1.70) and the scholium to Th. 32 (where the formula appears in a shortened version) makes it clear that poets and prophets are similar in that both categories are divinely inspired. Therefore the presence of this formula (although reversed, as Homer is asked to sing nothing that is, shall be, or was, but rather ‘another song’) together with Homer’s ability to answer such question, outlines once again Homer’s divine inspiration. For Alcidamas, this section of the contest may have been particularly significant as an expression of another key point of his literary theory: the freedom to choose any subject for a declamation (in response e.g. to the attack put forth by Isocrates (Hel. 11; see O’Sullivan 1992: 83). Μοῦσ' ἄγε μοι is not formulaic but it may have been constructed on the model of εἶπ' ἄγε μοι (76) with the addition of an invocation to the Muses since the formula that follows, as mentioned above, is often connected to them. The second verse too is reminiscent of the epic formulaic vocabulary. Collins 2004: 104 sees in μηδὲν ἄειδε a parodic reference to the Homeric μὴν ἄειδε (Il. 1.1); σὺ δ' ἄλλης μνήσαι ἀοίδης is an adaptation of the verse that closes many Homeric Hymns (ἅυτὰρ ἐγὼ καὶ σείο καὶ ἄλλης μνήσομ' ἀοίδης. See e.g. h.Hom. 2.495, 3.546.
100-1. οὐδὲ ποτ’ ἀμφι Διὸς ... ἐρίζοντες περὶ νίκης: the funeral games for an immortal god are something that cannot exist at any present, past or future times. Homer here supports the traditional image of the gods presented in his work, against a long tradition of attacks, and alternative versions. There was a well-developed debate about the existence of a tomb of Zeus in Crete and this debate can be traced back to the fourth century BC (Kokolakis 1995: 125; complete list of references in Cook 1914: 157-63 and 1925: 940-3) – although the debate flares up in the Hellenistic period: Callimachus (Jov. 4-7) and Euhemerus (T 69 A in Winiarczyk 1991). Homer in the Certamen goes back to the topic of Zeus’ immortality at 122-3 (where Hesiod provocingly mentions the ‘white bones of dead Zeus’) and defends another orthodox view on the gods when he denies the possibility of Artemis’ marriage at 117-18. The tomb of Zeus seems to have been a topic for declamations, even if there is only one late witness for this: Philostr. VS 2.4.569-570. O’ Sullivan’s suggestion about the significance of this exchange of verses for Alcidamas (see 97-8) finds perhaps some confirmation in Philostratus.

102-37. Because of Homer’s success in solving the ἀπορον question, Hesiod turns to a more difficult challenge, the ‘ambiguous proposition’. Hesiod’s challenges are ambiguous in that they present, more or less explicitly, improper views on issues that mattered to the Greeks: the life and behaviour of heroes (e.g. 107), the enemies of the Greeks (e.g. 109), the nature and behaviour of the gods (e.g. 117). Sometimes the exchanges of verses also reflect points of disagreement between Homeric and Hesiodic poetry (e.g. 113-14). Thematic connections marking the transition between groups of exchanges (a series of verses is on banquets, another on men and women, another on water and navigation) may have helped in memorizing the sequence. Homer turns Hesiod’s claims into the expression of a common Greek thought by adding a new line that enjambs an element of Hesiod’s and changes its meaning. Some of the hexameter material was circulating by Alcidamas’ time and may have been...
known to him: ll. 107-8 are transmitted in Aristophanes’ Peace, performed in 421 BC; furthermore, as has been noted, in terms of content the challenges in this section are often sophistic in flavour and may represent fifth century BC concerns about Homeric language (see e.g. 113-14n). For Sophistic approaches to archaic epic see: Richardson 1975, Ford 2002: 80, Morgan: 2000 esp. 89-132, Koning 2010: 111-15 and 217-23, Boys-Stones 2010: 40-8. Sophistic influences are apparent in terms of syntax too: Homer is forced to introduce into hexameter poetry complicated syntactical structures reminiscent of sophistic prose, in order to present a complete ‘proper’ thought. Most epic hexameters stand on their own in terms of both syntax and meaning; similarly, Hesiod’s verses in the Certamen stand on their own grammatically (most of them are main clauses, and have all the elements necessary to work syntactically) and express ideas that can be conceived in principle (for example, a tradition on Zeus’ mortality: see 100-1 n.). While in the Homeric poems enjambment in most cases is used to expand or elaborate the thought expressed in the previous line (‘progressive’ enjambment), sometimes a Homeric runover line has a stronger connection with the previous one, and in extreme cases it may contain an element that is necessary for the first line to make sense, or even to correct a statement which may be problematic at the level of content (e.g. Il. 5.339-40: ...ὠει δ’ ἀμφότερον αἷμα θεοῖο / ἵκωρ, οἴς πέρ τε ὑπειραζόσι θεοῖσιν). Similarly, Hesiod’s lines too are problematic at the level of content and correction is provided by an enjambment. Yet, unlike in the Iliadic lines, the impropriety is resolved at the level of syntax: in other words, Homer gives Hesiod’s line a new syntactical structure by reinterpreting it as requiring ‘necessary enjambment’. The final result is that each ‘proper’ unit of thought is now contained in two lines, rather than in one, as is generally the case in the Homeric poems. Possibilities inherent in the Homeric tradition (the practice of the ‘necessary’ enjambment and the possibility of using enjambment correctly) are in these lines set in dialogue with new intellectual developments. For studies on the Homeric enjambments

105-6. ἔστιν οὖν ... Ἡσιόδου: in the manuscript the verses are reported in succession, two per line, with no indication of the speaker and no separation between the different exchanges. This is the only guideline for the attribution of verses to each speaker and will turn out to be not detailed enough (see esp. 133-7n). It is a sign of the text’s tendency towards conciseness (contrast P.Petr. I 25).

107-8. δείπνον ... κορέσθην: in Hesiod’s verse the heroes are said to be eating beef and necks of horses. Homer corrects Hesiod’s improper suggestion about eating necks of horses, which is reminiscent of barbarian, rather than Greek, food habits (Collins 2004: 187), by enjambing καύχενας ἵππων with another verb, ἐκλυον, the heroes turn out to dine on beef, and cleanse the horses’ necks of sweat, as they were sated with war. The couplet is transmitted, with variants, in Aristophanes’ Peace 1282-3. There, it is not used as an example of ἀμφίβολος γνώμη (the two verses are recited by the same character and the first verse is not seen as problematic), but offers the opportunity for a comic response by another character (Son of Lamachus: ὡς οἱ μὲν δαίσυντο βοῶν κρέα, καύχενας ἵππων / ἐκλυον ἱδρώντας, ἐπεὶ πολέμου ἐκόρεσθεν. Trygauæus: εἶν; ἐκόρεσθεν τοῦ πολέμου κατ᾽ ἡσθιον / ταύτ᾽ ἀδε, ταυθ’, ὡς ἡσθιον κεκορημένοι), on which see Sommerstein 1985: 194 and Olson 1998: 308. The mention of these verses in Peace, performed for the first time in 421 BC, shows that at least some of the hexameters contained in the Certamen pre-date Alcidamas. It is also possible that Aristophanes was aware that the couplet was connected to the story of the contest of Homer and Hesiod. On a general level, both Aristophanes and the Certamen present the couplet in contexts where the opposition between poetry of war and poetry of peace is a core issue; many of the verses mentioned in the passage from Peace come from Homeric poetry (cf. also Richardson 1981: 2); the incipit of Aristophanes’ quotation, ὡς οἱ μὲν
δαίνυντο, is also transmitted in the *Certamen* in another passage connected to a feasting scene (119); hence Aristophanes may have been aware of a collection of verses similar to that in the *Certamen*. The whole scene in *Peace*, then, starts by quoting at l. 1270 another verse transmitted in the *Certamen* as well, the *incipit* of the *Epigoni* (259; the scholium to Aristophanes attributes the *Epigoni* to Antimachus, while the *Certamen* attributes it to Homer; cf. Di Benedetto 1969: 161 and 259n.). Even more interestingly, Aristophanes seems to echo, in his re-enactment of a contest between a poet of peace and a poet of war, the same poetic strategies Homer and Hesiod use in this section of the *Certamen*. At *Peace* 1270 the boy begins the verse, which is completed by Trygaeus, who adds a new one, so that the previous’ speaker’s words are reversed: Π. Α’: νῦν αὖθ’ ὀπλοτέρων ἀνδρῶν ἀρχαιόθα- ΤΡ. Παῦσαι, / ὀπλοτέρους ἄδων, καὶ ταύτ᾿, ὦ τρισκακώδαμων, / εἰρήνης οὐσίας (the *Certamen* transmits Μοῦσα instead of the Aristophanic παῦσαι; for a similar poetic game see also *Peace* 1286-1287). The description of a cruel battle at vv. 1273-8, ‘a slight misquotation from *Il.* 4.446-9’ (Sommerstein 1985: 194), echoes Homer’s finest passage in the *Certamen* (176-204). For discussion see also Meyer 1892: 377, Busse 1909: 108-19, Kirk 1950: 150, Compton Engle 1999: 327-8. Alcidamas therefore can have been responsible neither for the insertion of these hexameters within the contest story, nor the invention of the story itself. The hexameter at 108 as it stands in the manuscript does not scan. Emending πτολέμου in πολέμου seems the most convenient solution: while πολέμου is a very common epic form, πτολέμου is rarer and never found in this metrical position. Aristophanes’ πολέμου ἐκόρεσθεν is fifth-century language and may be Aristophanes’ own adaptation of the epic forms πολέμου and κορέσθην (e.g. *Od.* 4.541); it should not be used to emend the manuscript (against Wilamowitz). βωὸν κρέα in this metrical position and καὐχένας ἵππων are not Homeric.

109-10. καὶ Φρύγε ... δόρπον ἐλέσθαι: Hesiod’s verse claims that the Phrygians are the best people at navigation. Homer’s answer is difficult and
different interpretations have been proposed, where the dative ἀνδράσι ληστής is given different meaning and function: Evelyn-White translates ‘to filch their dinner from pirates on the beach’ and Collins ‘among thieves to take their dinner on the shore’. Wilamowitz suggests the emendation δόρπα πένεσθαι (based on Il. 24.444) and he is followed by West who translates ‘at preparing supper on shore for a pirate crew’. In any case, by giving this answer Homer achieves two goals. First, he denies the Phrygians’ maritime supremacy: in the Iliad (e.g. 2.862-3) they were not a maritime force, so ἑπί ἀκτῆς is a more appropriate location for them than ἑπί νησίν. Second, by associating them with pirates and possibly making them stealing food, he presents them in an overall negative light. In this respect Homer expresses a typically Greek attitude toward these people and consequently is able to gather approval among his Greek audience. The Phrygians were allies of the Trojans, and in the Athens of the fifth century BC these two names were interchangeable. The Phrygians were also associated with cruelty, luxury and cowardice (see Hall 1988 and 1989: 38-9, Erskine 2001: 73-4, West 2003: 329, Collins 2004: 187, Bryce 2006: 140-2). καὶ Φρύγες at the beginning of verse is also at Il. 10.431; ληστής is in the same position at Od. 16.424; δόρπον ἑλέσθαι recalls δόρπον ἐλοντο at Od. 14.347.

111-12. χερσὶ ... τόξα: in Hesiod’s verse someone (as yet unspecified) is said to shoot arrows at the Giants with his hands, χερσὶ. Homer solves the problem by linking χερσὶ to ἀπέλυσεν (ἀπ’ ὄμων καμπύλα τόξα): with his hands Heracles undoes the bow from his shoulders, and then uses it to shoot arrows. The Giants are described as δολίχ’ ἐγχεα χερσὶν ἐχοντας by Hesiod (Th. 186) and this may explain why the difficulty of Hesiod’s verse is based precisely on the word χερσὶ. This exchange seems to refer to the Gigantomachy, the battle between gods and Giants in which Heracles helped the gods; in epic, the episode is mentioned, or alluded to, at Th. 954 and Hes. fr. 43a.65 M.-W. (see West 1966: 419 and Clay 2003: 113-15). In the manuscript the verses are presented in the opposite sequence to this edition: it seems necessary to reverse
the order, as proposed first by Nietzsche, because at 112 there is no apparent
difficulty that could be solved by any element in the previous line. Line 111 as it
is transmitted in L does not scan, but it seems sufficient to emend ὄλλων in
ὁλων. The dative ιόσιν does not necessarily need to be emended to its
accusative form (see apparatus) because this would require, for metrical
reasons, a further emendation (οὐλον and ἀνόμων). καμπύλα τόξα is
formulaic and often occurs in the same metrical position as at 112 (e.g. ll. 3.17).

113-14. οὔτος ... γυναιξίν: this couplet starts off a series of verses about the
tHEME OF THE UNION BETWEEN MAN AND WOMAN. Hesiod is applying two opposite
adjectives to the same person: a man is said to be the son of a ‘good and
cowardly’ man. Homer enjambs the second adjective, ἀνάλκιδος, with a new,
feminine name, μητρός, so that the man is now said to be the son of a good man
and a cowardly mother: war, as Homer explains, is hard for all women. The
play on the double value of the adjective ἀναλκίς may reflect early fifth-century
concerns about Homeric language. Protagoras (A 28 D.-K.) remarked that the
word μήνιν because of its meaning should be masculine, but Homer uses it as
feminine (Graziosi 2001: 67). In this exchange Homer is using language
properly, because ἀναλκίς is an adjective for women, not for the Homeric
ἀγαθὸς ἀνήρ. For such man, ἀλκή is an important martial quality (Kirk 1990:
97), while ἀναλκίς is strongly connected to inability in war (together with
ἀπτόλεμος: ll. 2.201; 9.35; 9.41), and it is usually applied to warriors as a rebuke
(e.g. the formulaic κακὸν καὶ ἀνάλκιδα, on which see below); or indeed to
women, as in the present couplet after Homer’s contribution: ἀναλκίς is used in
connection with Aphrodite when Diomedes recognizes her in ll. 5.330-2 and is
used of women more generally at ll. 5.349. The verse as proposed by Hesiod
and the way Homer corrects it also seem to reflect two different views, one
more Hesiodic and the other more Homeric, on what an ἀγαθὸς ἀνήρ is, for,
unlike the Homeric poetry, Hesiod does not emphasise ability in war as a
necessary requirement for good men. For his verse Hesiod reverses a Homeric
formula, found always in the same metrical position: ἀγαθοῦ καὶ ἀνάλκιδος instead of the Homeric κακὸν καὶ ἀνάλκιδα (Il. 8.153; 14.126) and κακὸν καὶ ἀναλκιν (Od. 3.375).

115-16. οὔτ’ ἄφ... Ἀφροδίτην: according to Hesiod’s verse, in order to conceive a child (σοί, ‘for you’, ‘to have you’) a father and a mother did not have a physical union (οὔτ’ ἄφ... ἐμίγη). It is not precisely clear how the syntactic connection between this and the following verse works and the text of Homer’s answer seems corrupt. It seems though that the key element for Homer’s solution is διὰ χρυσῆν Ἀφροδίτην: i.e. the body was sowed ‘by the action of golden Aphrodite’, presented as a substitute for physical union. The couplet may be centered on a parodic use of the formulaic διὰ χρυσῆν Ἀφροδίτην (cf. also LfgrE) and may point to ancient and now lost discussions about this formula. That phrase is generally used in epic in the opposite sense to Homer’s answer, that is as a metaphor for sexual union. The fact that the formula occurs only in Hesiod (Th. 822; 962; 1005; 1014; fr. 23a.35 M.-W.; fr. 221.3 M.-W.; for discussion see West 1966: 78 and 398) and is here pronounced by Homer may also suggest that it is the point of the discussion in this exchange. Πατὴρ ἐμίγη καὶ πότνια μήτηρ is built on the Homeric πατὴρ καὶ πότνια μήτηρ which occurs both in the Iliad (e.g. Il. 9.561) and in the Odyssey (e.g. Od. 6.30). The emendation αὐτάρ (Rzach, Evelyn-White), which eliminates the negation οὔτε at the beginning of the verse, does not clarify the meaning of the couplet, nor does the translation proposed by Evelyn-White (who accepts it): ‘But for you, your father and lady mother lay in love – / when they begot you by the aid of golden Aphrodite’. West gives yet a different meaning to the first verse, but by putting σῶμα τὸ γ’ ἐσπείραντο between cruces does not offer a definitive solution: ‘Nor with you your father and lady mother make love – / †the body which† they sowed through golden Aphrodite’. Both the manuscript reading ἐσπείραντο and the emendation proposed σπείραντε are unattested forms.

117-18. αὐτάρ ... βιοὶ<ο>: this couplet closes the series of verses about men and
women. δὴμήθη γάμῳ, cannot be allowed to refer to the virgin goddess Artemis, as Hesiod’s verse implies. Homer’s contribution clarifies that it was Callisto who got married, and for this reason Artemis shot her with an arrow. Homer is referring here to the story of Callisto, friend and hunting companion of Artemis, told in different versions (listed in *LFGRe* s.v. Καλλιστώ). She had sworn to preserve her virginity in honour of Artemis but was seduced by Zeus, and as a punishment she was either transformed into a bear or, as in this couplet, killed by Artemis. This exchange too may be seen as reflecting fifth-century Sophistic concerns about Homeric language (Graziosi 2001: 66-7). Homer’s answer suggests solving the impropriety by means of a different distribution of words among the sentences in the couplet – that is, moving an imaginary comma from the end of the verse to after γάμῳ; in a similar vein, a fragment from Democritus (fr. 22 D.-K.) deals with the possibility of alternative word division in the Homeric poems. Ἀρτεμίς ἱοχέαιρα (or its accusative form) is formulaic (e.g. *Il.* 5.53, Hes. *Th.* 14) and generally occurs at the end of the hexameter. ἀπ’ ἀργυρέοιο βιοίο occurs only once in epic, at *Il.* 24.605 (but cf. *Il.* 1.49: ἀργυρέοιο βιοίο) and refers to Apollo rather than Artemis. Nevertheless, in *Il.* 24.605 too it is closely connected to the formula Ἀρτεμίς ἱοχέαιρα (found in the next verse) and introduced by the same verb (πέφνεν) as in this couplet: *Il.* 24.605-6: τοὺς μὲν Ἀπόλλων πέφνεν ἀπ’ ἀργυρέοιο βιοίο / χωόμενος Νιώθη, τὰς δ’ Ἀρτεμίς ἱοχέαιρα.

**119-20. ὡς οἳ μὲν ... Ἀγαμέμνων:** the poets deal again with the topic of feasting. Homer corrects the absurd suggestion that the heroes ‘feasted throughout the day with no food’ by saying that they had no food ‘of their own’ (οἴκοθεν), but it was provided by Agamemnon. Through this exchange of verses Homer and Hesiod are presenting and defending their different conceptions of feasting, food, and society. Hesiod’s verse may be an exaggeration of the frugality advocated in the *Works and Days* (see e.g. vv. 40-1: νήπιοι, οὐδὲ ἰσαίσιν ὅσῳ πλέον ἡμισυ παντὸς / οὖδ’ ὅσον ἐν μαλάχῃ τε καὶ
ἀσφοδέλω μέγ’ ὀνειωρ), while Homer transforms this couplet into a typically Homeric scene of feasting. The visible difference is Agamemnon’s generous behaviour: the only banquet offered by Agamemnon in the Homeric poems is in Il. 9.89-91, where he is said to invite the Achean leaders (for feasting in Homer see Foley 1999: 169-200; list of Homeric feasting episodes in Foley 1999: 272-3). Perhaps not surprisingly, the Certamen uses here the highly formulaic epithet ἀναξ ἀνδρῶν for Agamemnon, which is also found later in that Iliadic passage (at Il. 9.96). The exchange also looks like a comment on the question of how the heroes support themselves, as they are never seen to work, while according to the Hesiodic ideal of self-sufficiency, one cannot eat without working and it is a bad idea to rely on gift-eating kings, or even on neighbours. Homer transforms this couplet into a typically Homeric scene of royal patronage, as the food was provided by Agamemnon.

121-3. δείπνων ... ἀντιθέου: in Hesiod’s verses it is said that after feasting the heroes looked for the bones of the dead Zeus among the sooty ashes. But Homer, who cannot accept the idea of Zeus’ mortality (see also 115-16n. on another theological impropriety, and 100-1n. on the tomb of Zeus), connects the genitive Διός with παιδός and thereby specifies that the bones are those of Sarpedon, the mortal son of Zeus, and not those of the god himself. Sarpedon’s death causes much grief to Zeus in the Iliad (16.419-683), and the episode was also popular on vases (LIMC s.v. Sarpedon). On Sarpedon see Clay 2008-2009; more specifically on Sarpedon’s death see Nagy 1983. For the first time Hesiod’s question takes up two lines (cf. 105-6). Hesiod’s first verse (121) also contains a difficulty, which is solved by Hesiod’s own second verse (122). According to 121 the heroes are actually said to be feasting among the sooty ashes: the second verse connects more suitably the sooty ashes with another action, the search of bones. The fact that the bones are said to be those of Zeus brings about a second difficulty, which the next verse solves as explained above. In this context, according to the statement of the text at 105-6, we have to see in 121-2 Hesiod’s
question, and in 123 Homer’s answer (and in this case Evelyn-White’s translation of 101-2, which leaves out the difficulty and solution contained in these two verses and focuses on 122-3, seems very appropriate: ‘When they had feasted, they gathered among the glowing ashes the bones of the dead Zeus – / born Sarpedon, that bold and godlike man’). In other contexts, though, we may imagine that the verses were distributed in a different way, as a back and forth, or even between a number of speakers, as follows: Speaker A: l. 121; Speaker B: l.122; Speaker A or C: l. 123 (see also West 1967: 441). The phrase ἐνὶ σποδῷ αἰθαλοέσσῃ is not epic (but cf. Il. 18.23; Od. 24.316: αἰθαλόεσσαν at the end of the verse). ὀστὲα λευκά is in the same metrical position in Hes. Th. 540, 555 and 557 (cf. also Il. 16.347, 23.252, and Emp. fr. 96.19 at the end of the verse; Il. 24.793 at the beginning of the verse). ἀντῖθεος is a common epithet for Sarpedon (e.g. Il. 5.629) although never used in the same case and metrical position, while ὑπέρθυμος is never connected to him. κατατεθνεῖτος is not attested in epic, where there is the form κατατεθνήτως (e.g. Il. 7.89, also in the same metrical position); but this is not a sufficient ground for an emendation (see apparatus).

124-6. ἡμεῖς ... δολιχαύλους: a new theme links, from now onwards, the last group of verses: water and navigation. As in the previous exchange (121-3), Hesiod asks his question in two verses and Homer replies with one. This too may be a double riddle (that is, the first verse presents a difficulty that the second verse of the question itself seems to solve) but the text is quite unclear.

At 124, ἀμ πεδίον (‘over the plain’) is improperly accompanied by ἡμεῖν (‘sitting’) instead of a verb of motion as would be required (cf. the instances of ἀμ πεδίον in the Iliad: 5.87, 5.96, 23.464). This is provided at 125 (ἰομεν), but in this new line there is nothing that attaches to ἡμεῖν (cf. also West 1967: 441 n. 1). For this reason, it has been proposed that after 124 a line attributed to Homer has fallen out. In any case, Homer’s skills are put to test on the basis of the difficulty at 125. The paradox contained in the new line is that ὄδόν seems to be the object of ἀμφ’ ὕμοισιν ἔχοντες (carrying the road on their shoulders?).
Hence Homer in his line gives a new object to the verb ἔχοντες, and leaves ὀδόν in connection with ἱμερὸν (‘we walk our way’; cf. also Hdt. 6.34: ἱόντες τὴν ἱφήν ὀδόν). ‘Hilted swords and long-socketed javelins’ seems an obvious continuation for Homer, as in Homeric poetry ἀμφὶ ὁμοίων is often connected to weapons (cf. ll. 2.45, 3.328, 11.527). φάσγανα occurs only three times in Homer (ll. 15.713, Od. 16.295, Od. 22.74) and only once with κώστηντα (this adjective is more often connected to ξίφος). αἰγανέας δολιχαύλους is Homeric and occurs in the same metrical position at Od. 9.156.

127-8. δὴ τὸ τοῦ ἀριστῆς ... ὀκύαλον ναῦν: the problem proposed by Hesiod’s verse lies in the expression χείρεσσι θαλάσσης (‘with hands of/from the sea’). Homer enjams it with elements that change its function within the sentence: with their hands the boys tear off (ἀπείρυσαν) from the sea a speedy ship (ὀκύαλον ναῦν). In this exchange of verses there may be a reference to the problem of personification of rivers, such as the Scamander in ll. 21.136-60. In this passage the river Scamander is angry at Achilles because the hero has thrown many bodies of Trojan warriors into his water. The river is repeatedly said to talk to Achilles, and to chase him with its water, but in one particular verse its human appearance is explicitly mentioned: v. 213, ἀνέρι εἰσάμενος, βαθέης δ´ ἐκ φθέγξατο δίνης. Interestingly, this verse is omitted in some of the manuscripts of the Iliad, which may point to the fact that an anthropomorphic appearance of the river god may have been seen as problematic. This verse, certainly known to Aristarchus (cf. scholia ad loc.), was either included in later times because ‘it was thought that the river god could not address Akhilleus unless he took human form’, as Richardson 1993: 71 observes, or omitted precisely because the river god was thought not to be human in form. The expression ἀμφὶ ἀριστῆς κοῦροι is not attested in Homeric or Hesiodic poetry (but cf. Hes. fr. 1.2-3 M.-W.: Μούσα παίδθεις, κοῦροι Διός αἰγόχοιο / αἴ τοῦ ἀρισταί ἐσαν), while ἀσμενοι is found at the beginning of verse, in the formulaic ἀσμενοι ἐκ θανάτου, at Od. 9.63, 9.566, 10.134; ἐσσυμένως is
suitable in most metrical positions: it is found in the same position as in this
couplet at Od. 9.73 and 16.51; ὠκύαλον ναῦν at the end of verse is found, in the
metrically equivalent nominative form, at Od. 12.182 and 15.473.

129-30. κολχίδ’ ... ἀθέμιστον: Medea, the Colchian maid, was taken away
from King Aietes, but there is no mention of King Aietes himself being borne
away, as Hesiod’s verse suggests. Through Homer’s reply Αἰήτην βασιλῆα
becomes the object of φεύγον: they bore away the Colchian maid, and fled King
Aietes. The episode of Medea being carried away by Jason is told by Hesiod
(Th. 992-5) but does not feature in Homer. See also Th. 956-62 for another
mention of both Aietes and Medea in Hesiod. This exchange between Homer
and Hesiod also reflects the different attributes of King Aietes in their
respective poetry: against the Hesiodic διοτρεφέος βασιλής (Th. 992) Homer
uses ὀλοόφρονος Αἰήταο (Od. 10.137), in line with the negative epithets used in
the answer: ἀνέστιον ἦδ’ ἀθέμιστον. L reads Κολχίδ’ ἐπειδ’ ἱκόντο (‘when
they reached Colchis’), a reading that does not allow the verse to be an
ἀμφίβολος γνώμη as there is no apparent difficulty. Wilamowitz interpreted
Κολχίδα as the Colchian maid, rather than as Colchis, and then emended the
following text in ἐπειδ’ ἱγόντο, inspired by the Hesiodic κούρην δ’ Αἰήταο...
ἥγε παρ’ Αἰήτεω (Th. 992-5). The manuscript reading can easily be explained in
terms of the double meaning of the form κολχίδα and the similar sound of
ἱκόντο and ἱγόντο, each of which suits one of the meanings of κολχίδα. Also
Αἰήτην βασιλῆα in the same metrical position is found in the Hesiodic passage
(Th. 957). For ἀνέστιον ἦδ’ ἀθέμιστον cf. Il. 9.63-4: ἀφρήτωρ ἀθέμιστος
ἀνέστιος ἐστιν ἐκείνος / ὅς πολέμου ἔραται ἐπιδημίου ὠκυόντος, a single
but very famous instance, as the many quotations of it show (e.g. Ar. Pax 1097).

131-2. αὐτὰρ ... ἐπὶ νηῶν: the salty water of the sea, οἶδμα θαλάσσης, cannot
be the object of ἐκπίον. Homer connects it to another verb: they prepared to sail
(ποντοπορεῖν ἥμελλον) the water of the sea. Drinking the sea is used in the
context of an ἀποφία in another relevant passage, Plu. Dinner of the Seven Sages
176

153f (see introduction on Plutarch, pp. 18-28). There the Egyptian king Amasis, during an exchange of riddles in a competition in wisdom with the king of the Ethiopians, was asked to drink up the ocean. The first part of the first verse is clearly and extensively based on a Homeric formulaic verse: αὐτὰρ ἐπεὶ σπεισάν τε πίνων θ’ ὥσον ήθελε θυμός (e.g. Il. 9.177; Od. 3.342; cf. also Od. 21.273), conveniently modified on the basis of the new context (inclusion of the difficulty at the end and slight variations in the central feet of the hexameter).

οἶδμα θαλάσσης is in the Hymn to Demeter 14 in the same metrical position; ἐυσέλμων ἐπὶ νηῶν too is based on Homeric verse-making practice: ἐὔσσελμος (the normal epic form) is common epithet for ships and ἐυσσέλμων ἐπὶ νηῶν is found in Od. 8.500 and 24.117. Similar forms (in different cases or with different prepositions, but always in the same metrical position) are also common: cf. e.g. Il. 7.419; Od. 12.358.

133-7. τοῖσιν ... ἴκοισθε: these verses contain two separate but connected sequences of challenges and responses. At 133 Hesiod claims that Agamemnon prayed that the heroes might die. Homer corrects this statement in his line (134) by making Agamemnon pray that the heroes might never die at sea (μηδέ ποτ’ ἐν πόντῳ); and with the second part of his verse seems to invite Hesiod to go on with another challenge on the same topic, more specifically he invites him to create an utterance by Agamemnon (καὶ φωνήσας ἔπος ηὔδα). Hesiod then creates the new challenge in two verses (this time only the second one seems to contain a difficulty): Agamemnon is again said to pray that the Achaeans might never go back to their homeland. In the last verse, thanks to Homer’s intervention Agamemnon is said to pray that that Achaeans might never go back harmed, but rather in safety. The text here reflects Agamemnon’s problematic standing as a leader in the Iliad. The issue of returning home is dramatised with particular force at the beginning of the poem, through Agamemnon’s false dream, and its demoralising consequences; on Agamemnon’s leadership see Haubold 2000: 52-68. The suggested division of
the verses among the speakers seems to be the one that best suits the structure of the competition as described in this section of the Certamen: both verses which contain difficulties (133 and 136) are attributed to Hesiod, while the solutions belong to Homer (134 and 137). Moreover the number of verses attributed to both speakers is in agreement with the general guidelines given at the beginning of the section: Homer always replies with one verse, while Hesiod sometimes asks the question in two verses. Other solutions have been proposed. Nietzsche suggests attributing to Homer only the last verse. Hermann’s proposal (133-4 to Hesiod, 135-7 to Homer) would not involve any solution of difficulty by Homer. Busse’s suggestion of dividing line 134 between the two speakers would again go against the set rules. The expression καὶ φωνήσας ἔπος ηὔδα is inspired by the Homeric formulaic verse καὶ μιν (or σφεας) φωνήσας ἔπεα πτερόεντα προσήυδα (e.g. Il. 1.201; Od. 1.122; Hymn to Apollo 451). Line 136 is inspired by Od. 19.258: οἰκάδε νοστήσαντα φίλην ἐς πατρίδα γαίαν (but see also οἰκάδε νοστήσειε at Od. 2.343 and οἰκάδε νοστήσας e.g. Od. 4.103).

138-9. πρὸς πάντα ... Ἡσίοδος: Homer’s success continues, and seems to be increasing after each stage of the competition (cf. also the previous descriptions at 90-4 and 102) until he finally receives praise from ‘all the Greeks’ (176: οἱ μὲν Ἐλλῆνες πάντες). All this leads the reader to believe that Hesiod is left with no chance of winning.

140-1. τούτῳ ... Αχαιοί: Hesiod asks how many Achaeans went to Troy together with the Atreides. Arithmetical riddles in hexameter were common in antiquity: see e.g. the contest between Chalcas and Mopsus (esp. [Hes.] 278 M.-W. and Pherecydes 3 F 142) and the collection of arithmetical riddles in AP 14. The topic of this riddle is touched on by Homer in the Iliad: during the invocation to the Muses that opens the Catalogue of Ships (Il. 2.484-93) he claims that it would not be possible for him to describe or name the whole crowd of the soldiers who went to Troy unless the Muses themselves were to
recount all those who went to besiege Troy. Such a task, therefore, would require the assistance of the Muses, and by giving an answer Homer proves that he has the Muses on his side. On the value of this invocation to the Muses for Homeric poetics see most recently Ford 1992: 57-90, Graziosi and Haubold 2010: 1-8, Clay 2011 (esp. ch. 1). Whether or not Homer knew the actual number of Achaeans who participated in the war was also object of debate, and was naturally related to the interpretation of the poet’s claim at II. 2.488-93 (see Schol. bT on Il. 2.488: [...] χρὴ οὖν νομίζειν ὅτι οὐ χαλεπὸν τὸ εἶπεῖν τὸν ἀριθμὸν, ἀλλὰ τὸ περὶ ἑκάστου διελθεῖν οὕτως ἀκριβῶς ὡς περὶ τῶν ἡγεμόνων, τίς καὶ πόθεν καὶ τίνων πατέρων καὶ προγόνων, καὶ τὰς πράξεις καὶ τὰ πάθη, ἃ καὶ ὑπὲρ δήγησιν). Such exchange may have been of interest to a fifth-century audience: the size of the Achaean expedition was calculated and discussed by Thucydides, according to whom the Trojan war was not as big as those fought in his own time (Th. 1.10.5: πρὸς τὰς μεγίστας δ’ οὖν καὶ ἐλαχίστας ναῦς τὸ μέσον σκοποῦντι οὐ πολλοὶ φαίνονται ἐλθόντες, ὡς ἀπὸ πάσης τῆς Ἑλλάδος κοινῆ πεμπόμενοι). See also Graziosi 2001: 68. The first verse contains a request to speak which draws on the formulaic vocabulary of epic poetry. ἐειρομένῳ is found in the expression εἰπέ μοι εἰρομένῳ (but in the first colon of the hexameter) at Od. 15.263 and Od. 24.114. The imperative κατάλεξον is in the same metrical position in a highly formulaic verse with the same introductory function as this (ἀλλ’ ἄγε μοι τόδε εἰπὲ καὶ ἀτρεκέως κατάλεξον, e.g. Il. 10.384). It also occurs in Od. 16.235-6, in a similar context: Odysseus is asking Telemachus to count the number of the suitors (ἀλλ’ ἄγε μοι μνηστήματα ἀριθμήματα κατάλεξον ἢ ὕφο εἰδέω, ὡσοι τε καὶ οἱ τινὲς ἀνέφες εἰσι). ἀμ Ἀτρεΐδησιν occurs only three times in epic poetry and always in relation to the Achaean expedition: at II. 2.761-2 the poet asks the Muses to tell him who were the best among the Acheans who followed the Atreides at Troy (v. 762: οἰ ἀμ Ἀτρεΐδησιν ἐποντο); at Od. 17.103-4 Penelope says that her bed is always wet with her tears since Odysseus went to Troy with the Atreides.
Idomeneus is said to have gone to Troy with the Atreides (ἀλλ’ ὁ μὲν ἐν νῆσσι κορωνίσαν Ἰλιον εἶσω / ὑπεθ’ ἀμ’ Ἀτρείδησιν...). In the two occurrences from the Odyssey the expression ἀμ’ Ἀτρείδησιν is in the same metrical position as in our verse.

142. ὁ δὲ ... οὕτως: the expression ἀποκρίνομαι διὰ λογιστικοῦ προβλήματος does not have parallels in extant Greek literature. Nevertheless its meaning is clear: ‘to reply by means of an arithmetical problem’ (West).

143-5. πεντήκοντ’ ... Ἀχαιοί: Homer calculates in 112,500,000 the number of the Achaeans who took part in the expedition to Troy (50 fire-hearths x 50 spits x 50 pieces of meat x 900 Achaeans; on the recurrence of number fifty in Homer’s reply see Unanua Garmendia 2003). The number Homer proposes is striking and 146-8 present an interesting comment in this respect. But the fact itself that Homer gives an answer to this question is sufficient to prove that he is a divinely inspired poet (see 140-1n.). Moreover, the high number Homer proposes seems (playfully) to reassert the greatness of the Achaean expedition in reply to attacks such as that of Thucydides (above) (Graziosi 2001: 68). That this is an important point is also suggested by a comparison with another Iliadic passage, II. 8.562-3: there the Trojans are counted in a way that is closely similar to Homer’s answer (they are gathered in groups of fifty people around a thousand fire-hearths: χίλι’ ἄρ’ ἐν πεδίῳ πυρὰ καὶ ὅτα, παρ’ ἐκάστῳ / εἴατο πεντήκοντα σέλᾳ πυρὸς αἰθομένῳ), and turn out to be considerably fewer than the Achaeans. The practice of counting people by dividing them in groups is common in epic poetry: see e.g. II. 2.123-8 (another passage about the numerical superiority of the Achaean over the Trojans), as well as the contingents of the Boeotians (II. 2.509-510) and of Philoctetes (II. 2.719-720) in the Catalogue of Ships.

146-8. τούτῳ δὲ εὐφρίσκεται ... μυριάδες ἐ ἀνώ: this claim seems incompatible with 149, where it is said that Homer has replied successfully to
all the challenges (κατὰ πάντα δὴ τοῦ Ὁμήρου ὑπερτεροῦντος). Hence West 1967: 442 n. 2 (see also West 2003: 335 n. 13) suggests that it is a marginal gloss that has been interpolated in the text in later times. It is an interesting claim nonetheless, because it shows that the topic of the exchange, the number of Achaeans who went to Troy, generated debate and comments throughout antiquity. The manuscript text is incomplete and unclear towards the end. Either the sentence was already incomplete in the source, perhaps because of physical damage (West 1967: 442 n. 2), or the copyist stopped copying the sentence after the letters ‘ε υ ν because of the difficulty of interpreting them. ‘ε may well be the symbol for 5,000 (which with δεκαδύο μυριάδες would make 125,000, the expected quantity of pieces of meat) but υ and ν are more problematic: if they too are numerals (400 and 50 respectively) they give a wrong result. Nietzsche proposes that the symbols ‘ε and υ should be read together as ευ and connected to the next sentence (ευ κατὰ πάντα δὴ τοῦ Ὁμήρου ὑπερτεροῦντος).

148-75. κατὰ πάντα ... πλεῖστα: Hesiod now moves to asking a series of philosophical questions about morality, religion, government and good citizenship. In some cases the questions touch on topics already presented in previous sections (Wilamowitz 1916b: 403 defines this section as a ‘Dublette’) but there are differences. As West 1967: 442 notes, the verses ‘reek of the late fifth or early fourth century’. In terms of language, the epic formulaic vocabulary is less frequently exploited, and some words are rarely or never used in early epic (see e.g. δικαιοσύνη at 168 and καιρός at 171). The topics discussed in this section informed widely fifth- and fourth-century philosophical and political discourse. Sophistic influences are identifiable throughout the section. More specifically, there are also many connections with Alcidamas’ On Sophists, which explain why these verses might have been relevant to him, or why he might have created them. Furthermore, more explicitly than in the previous sections, Homer masterfully discusses and covers
topics that were traditionally considered Hesiod’s fields of expertise and sometimes recall specific passages from *Works and Days* (e.g. justice and the city at 161-3; warning against corruption at 162; wisdom at 170-1; interactions between men at 172-3; see Koning 2010: 161-86). Homer’s wisdom seems all-encompassing.

148-50. κατὰ ... πάλιν: once again Homer is said to be able to reply well to every question and Hesiod’s disappointment continues. Hesiod this time reacts with φθόνος. The presence of this word recalls *Works and Days* 24-6 (and may indeed be a pointed reference to that passage), where Hesiod says that the ‘good’ ἔρις regulates, among other things, the competition between bards: φθόνος is an important component of it (Hes. Op. 25: καὶ πτωχὸς πτωχῷ φθονέει καὶ ἀοιδὸς ἀοιδῷ). (On this passage see West 1978: 147 and Verdenius 1985: 27). Hesiod therefore seems to be acting in accordance with his own teaching, and is stimulated by the success of his opponent to do better in the competition (Koning 2010: 257-8). However, this mention of φθόνος occurs in a context where the Hesiodic idea of it can easily be misinterpreted: the contrast with Homer’s peaceful and nevertheless successful attitude is very clear and can put the Hesiodic φθόνος in a negative light (see also Clay 2003: 179 on Hesiod being a ‘bad sport’ here). The *Certamen* seems to be putting in action a perceptive reading of a Hesiodic passage and inviting readers to do the same.

151-4. νιὲ Μέλητος ... ἀκούσαι: Hesiod asks Homer what is at the same time the best and the worst thing for mortals. The way Hesiod addresses Homer seems to respond to the previous exchange: Homer answered to Hesiod’s question about the number of the Achaeans who went to Troy and thereby showed that the Muses are on his side (see 143-5n.). It may therefore be for this reason that Hesiod uses the epithet νιὲ Μέλητος, that refers to Homer’s divine origins (for the river god Meles as Homer’s father see 8-9n.) and asks for yet another piece of evidence for the fact that Homer is honoured by the Muses (εἰ περὶ τιμῶσι σε Μούσαι). Hesiod’s insistence on this matter may also be due to
the fact that he had famously claimed in his works a connection with the Muses for himself, and indeed this was a constant feature in the reception of his persona (Heldmann 1982: 83): this is the first example in this section of Homer taking upon himself some Hesiodic features. The epithet ὑψίστοιο Διὸς μεγάλουο θύγατρες is never attested for the Muses in this form; Διὸς μεγάλουο θύγατρες is also, in the same metrical position, in Antimachus fr. 1 Wyss; Διὸς μεγάλου is in the same metrical position at Od. 11.268 (Διὸς μεγάλου μιγείσα). Zeus in early hexameter poetry is never called ὑψιστὸς, but he is in later sources: Pind. Nem. 1.60; Aesch. Eum. 28. The core of Hesiod’s question is contained in the last two verses of his utterance. This recalls the first two exchanges, about the best and finest things for men (75-9 and 81-9), but with a Sophistic twist: the practice of making opposite speeches on the same topic is Sophistic, and the contents of both answer and question seem to refer to specific philosophical doctrines (see below).

μέτρῳ: the interpretation of this question depends on the solution of a textual problem concerning this word. The manuscript reads μέτρον but the emendation μέτρῳ, first proposed by Barnes and followed by Wilamowitz and West, seems necessary. Editors and translators have given two different meanings to the word μέτρον depending on whether they accepted the transmitted accusative or the emendation in dative: ‘standard’ for those who have kept the accusative, (Evelyn-White translates ‘tell me a standard that is both best and worst’; Avezzù: ‘dimmi una misura che sia la migliore e la peggiore insieme’); ‘meter’ (hexameter) for those who have emended in dative (West: ‘say – fitting into meter – what is for mortal the finest and the worst’; De Martino 1984: ‘dimmi, nel metro adatto, qual è per i mortali la cosa più bella e più odiosa’). The form μέτρῳ solves grammatical inconsistencies in the text and gives the most appropriate meaning for the word μέτρον in this context. The accusative of the manuscript reading does not suit the verb ἐναρμόζων (which is itself a necessary and unanimously accepted emendation of the transmitted
ἐναρμόζον): ‘to adapt a standard’, or even ‘to adapt a meter’, would not make sense in this context. Those who keep the accusative and give to μέτρον the meaning of ‘standard’ in fact do not translate ἐναρμόζων. With the emendation in dative and the meaning ‘meter’ the sentence would mean ‘fitting into meter’: ἐναρμόζων is given a role in the sentence and the question assumes an additional nuance: this request to fit the contents of the answer into meter may be seen as an allusion to the fact that the issues touched on in it are typical also of some Sophistic literary production in prose (cf. also Gorgias, Hel. 9: τὴν ποίησιν ἀπασαν καὶ νομίζω καὶ ὄνομάζω λόγον ἔχοντα μέτρον). Homer in his answer uses μέτρον as ‘standard’ but this does not mean that the word must have the same meaning in the question as well: there may be an intentional play on these several meanings of the word of the same type as in Critias 4 IEG (ll. 3-4): οὐ γὰρ πως ἡ τοῦνομ’ ἐφαρμόζειν ἐλεγείωι, / νῦν δ’ ἐν ἑαμβείω κείσεται οὔκ ἀμέτρως. Note the presence of ἐφαρμόζειν, which parallels the Certamen’s ἐναρμόζων. On the use of μέτρον in this passage by Critias see Ford 2002: 43.

156-60: Ἡσίοδ’ ἐκγονε Δίου ... ἐρῶτα: the expression Ἡσίοδ’ ἐκγονε Δίου parallels and at the same time contrasts the epithet used for Homer in the question (ὑιὸς Μέλητος at 151): while Homer’s father is a river god, Hesiod’s father Dius is never said to be more than a common mortal in the extant sources (Koning 2010: 133, Kivilo 2010: 8). The next words of Homer’s answer make the contrast between the two poets even sharper: to Hesiod’s φθόνος (148-50), Homer responds by replying willingly (ἐκόντα) and gladly (πρόφρων). For πρόφρων in epic cf. e.g. Hymn. Merc. 561: προφρονέως ἔθελουσιν ἀληθείην ἀγορεύειν. The core of Homer’s answer is that the best and at the same time the worst thing for mortals is to be a measure for oneself: to be so of good is the best thing, to be so of evil is the worst. See also West’s translation: ‘the finest thing is to be a measure of good for oneself, and the worst of all, to be so of evil’. The word μέτρον may be a reference to the Protagorean doctrine of the ἀνθρώπος μέτρον (fr. 1 D.-K.: πάντων χορμάτων μέτρον ἦστιν ἀνθρώπος, τῶν μὲν
ὄντων ὡς ἔστιν, τῶν δὲ οὐκ ὄντων ὡς οὐκ ἔστιν), to which sometimes Homer was connected in antiquity: Pl. *Thet.* 160d. But Homer claims that being a standard for oneself is also the worst of things for mortals, thus firmly taking distance from such Sophistic doctrines. For another possible reaction by Homer to Protagorean attacks see 113-14n.

ἄλλο δὲ πᾶν ὁ τι σῷ θυμῷ φίλον ἔστιν ἐρωτα: Homer is inviting here Hesiod to ask another question in the same way in which rhetoricians and Sophists like Alcidamas and Gorgias invited the public to put forth a topic on which they would test their improvisation skills (Vogt 1959: 198 for references). ὁ τι σῷ θυμῷ φίλον ἔστιν: cf. the formulaic φίλον ἐπλετο θυμῷ (e.g. *Il.* 7.31).

161-3. πῶς ἄν ... ἐπείη: Hesiod asks now what the best way to run a πόλις is. This is another central issue in Hesiodic poetry, and a topic of great interest to the Sophists too. Homer manages to reply in a very Hesiodic fashion. The warning to avoid immoral and illegal profit is typical of Hesiod and informs Hesiod’s addresses to Perses and the kings: e.g. *Op.* 352: μὴ κακὰ κερδαίνειν: κακὰ κέρδεα ἵσ᾽ ἀάτῃσιν. For the necessity of punishment of unjust behaviour see Hes. fr. 286: Τῆς κακῆς τις ἀτείνοιτο if a wrongdoer suffers the same injustice he brought about. Also in this case we can see a contrast to certain Sophistic doctrines according to which ‘justice is nothing other than the advantage of the stronger’ (Thrasymachus fr. 56 D.-K.).

164-5. εὐχεσθαι ... ἁπαντα: Hesiod asks what the best thing to pray the gods for is. Although the text of the answer is metrically incomplete and it has been suggested that it is corrupt, it seems to mean that the best thing men should pray the gods for is that they allow humans to be always well-disposed toward themselves. Cf. Evelyn-White’s translation: ‘that he (a man) always be at peace with himself’; according to another interpretation, that the gods themselves be well-disposed toward men (West: ‘that they (the gods) be well-disposed to the city evermore’). Homer therefore agrees with the traditional Greek views on religion, according to which gods should be objects of prayers and honours, and
in saying so he appears to be taking distance from Sophistic opinions on the
divine intervention on human affairs. According to Protagoras, humans cannot
know anything about the gods and therefore interaction is impossible (fr. 4 D.-K.: ‘περὶ μὲν θεῶν οὐκ ἔχω εἰδέναι’). Thrasymachus claims that gods do not
care about human affairs, which makes prayers ineffective (fr. 8 D.-K. ‘οἱ θεοὶ
οὐχ ὀφόσι τὰ ἀνθρώπινα’).

<ἀδεί>: the addition by Stephanus allows the hexameter to scan correctly and
does not involve substantial modifications of the manuscript text.

166-7. ἐν δ’ ἐλαχίστῳ ... ἀνδρῶν: the contents of both question and answer
are very similar to a dictum attributed to Periander by Stobaeus (3.3.45):
Περίανδρος ἐρωτηθείς, τί μέγιστον ἐν ἐλαχίστῳ, εἶπε ‘φρένες ἄγαθαι ἐν
σώματι ἀνθρώπου’. Again Homer is connected to traditional Greek morality.
The awareness that the bodies of men are ‘the smallest thing’ evokes the brevity
of human life and the suffering it involves, topics that Homer mentions at
several points, with the consequent exhortation to enjoy life (cf. above, 75-9 and
81-9, and below, 174-5). By contrast to the human body, φρένες ἐσθλαί are
presented as the typically and exclusively human compensation for the
unpleasant mortal condition. In fact all the advice Homer gives in this section
aims ultimately at allowing humans the best possible time on earth. As O’
Sullivan 1992: 87 notes, ἐν δ’ ἐλαχίστῳ may also refer directly to εἰπεῖν, rather
than to φύεται: the question would thus mean ‘what is the best thing you can
say in the shortest time?’. This interpretation discloses a reference to the issue of
the length of speeches, relevant to Gorgias and to his pupil Alcidamas: already
Nietzsche 1873: 540 related this verse to Pl. Grg. 449 as evidence for Alcidamas’
influence on the Certamen; O’ Sullivan goes as far as to see in these verses a hint
at the polemic between Alcidamas and Isocrates on this point, which they both
inherit from Gorgias as a concern. Alcidamas proclaimed the importance of
regulating the length of a speech depending on the audience’s needs and level
of attention, and claimed that this could be achieved only by those who perform

168-9. ἡ δὲ δικαιοσύνη ... πορίζειν: according to Homer righteousness and manliness are to be used to serve the common good. Even though the two virtues mentioned in the questions are relevant to both Homer’s and Hesiod’s works, the answer seems to fit Hesiod better. The role of justice in the government of a city is prominent in Works and Days: in the Iron Age, the fact that men are χειροδίκαι (Op. 189), that is, ‘justice is decided by main force’ (West 1978: 202) results in a lack of mutual help and assistance and to the ruin of cities; conversely, the just cities and their people will blossom (Op. 225-7). The word δικαιοσύνη is never used by Homer and Hesiod: it is first attested in Theognis 1. 147 (144-8: Βούλεο δ’ εύσεβέων ὀλίγοις σὺν χρῆμασιν οίκεῖν / ἡ πλουτεῖν ἀδίκως χρήματα πασάμενος. ἐν δὲ δικαιοσύνης συλλήβδην πᾶς’ ἀρετή ’στι, / πᾶς δὲ τ’ ἀνήρ ἀγαθός, Κύρνε, δίκαιος ἐών); but it seems, from its first appearance, to be strongly linked with a very Hesiodic concept (expressed e.g. in Op. 40-1; on this parallel see also Jellamo 2005: 79).

170-1. τῆς σοφίας ... ἐπεσθαί: the next question is about wisdom, which Homer defines as ‘judging situations correctly and seizing the moment’. In this answer Homer deals with two other very Hesiodic topics: both concepts of σοφία and καιρός are in antiquity closely associated with Hesiod. For Hesiod as the wise poet see Koning 2010: 161-5: σοφός seems to be Hesiod’s epithetus ornans as much as θεῖος is Homer’s, and even though Homer is often said to be wise, this epithet seems to be more closely connected to Hesiod; his σοφία is for example mentioned in both his funeral epigrams (AP 7.54; EG 428), one of which is also transmitted in the Certamen (250-3). As for the καιρός, O’Sullivan 1992: 92 notes that Homer does not use this word in his poems (although he uses the adjective καίριος). Hesiod, by contrast, uses it in an often quoted passage from Works and Days: μέτρα φυλάσσεσθαι· καιρός δ’ ἐπὶ πάσιν ἀριστος (Op. 694: quoted e.g. by Thgn. 401). It is noteworthy that in this section of the contest Homer becomes the poet of σοφία and καιρός. The notion of
καιρός is also important to Alcidamas, and these verses have often been taken as evidence for his influence on the Certamen (Vogt 1959: 215, O' Sullivan loc. cit.). In Alcidamas' On Sophists καιρός is connected to the ability of improvising speeches; importantly, the occurrences of this word in that work show that the concept as expressed by Alcidamas fits the image of Homer built throughout the contest, as well as in this specific section: seizing the right moment is not for everyone but only for gifted people, who are therefore admired as if they were divine (e.g. Soph. 3 and 9). On the contrary, according to Alcidamas, performers of written speeches are not able to seize the moment (e.g. Soph. 10 and 28).

172-3. πιστεύσαι ... ἔπηται: Hesiod’s question deals with trust: when do men deserve to be trusted? Homer replies that it is worth trusting men only when they run the same risks as you. The concept of πίστις does not seem to be Homeric and it is indeed first attested in Hesiod (Op. 372, see below). Moreover, Hesiod’s advice on interactions between people was seen as authoritative in antiquity (Koning 2010: 177-83). The way in which Homer formulates his answer here suggests that he is championing another Hesiodic idea, cf. Op. 370-2: μισθὸς δ’ ἀνδρὶ φίλῳ εἰρημένος ἄρκιος ἔστω· καὶ τε κασιγνήτῳ γελάσας ἐπὶ μάρτυρα θέσθαι· πίστεις δ’ ἅρ’ ὀμίῳ καὶ ἀπιστίαι ὠλεσαν ἄνδρας. Koning 2010: 148 also points out that the Hesiodic passage is one of those that ‘seem to invite treatment by successors’ (e.g. Thgn. 1.831-2) because of what he calls the catch-word factor: it is therefore plausible that the Certamen, in its attempt to show how ‘Hesiodic’ Homer could be, refers to this passage from Works and Days.

174-5. ἕ δ’ εὐδαιμονίη ... πλείστα: Homer is now asked to define happiness for men, and this is another concept that is dealt with in Hesiodic, rather than Homeric, poetry. While in Homeric poetry the word εὐδαιμονίη is attested only once in the Homeric Hymn to Athena (v. 5: Χαίρε θεά, δὸς δ’ ἅμι τύχην εὐδαιμονίην τε) and never in the Iliad or the Odyssey, the definition of the εὐδαιμονίων man closes Hesiod’s Works and Days and sums up Hesiod’s teaching:
The εὐδαίμων man is the one who works without offending the gods, understands the omens of birds and avoids transgression. Op. 826-8: τάων εὐδαίμων τε καὶ ὀλβιος ὃς ταδε πάντα / εἰδὼς ἐργάζεται ἀναίτιος ἀθανάτωσιν, / ὀρνιθας κρίνων καὶ ὑπερβασίας ἀλεεινων. The definition that Homer gives is in line with what Homer had said in the first two exchanges of verses: in spite of the unavoidability of pain and death, inherent in their condition as mortal, men are encouraged to enjoy life as they can. The reaction of the public is, in both cases, positive.

176-9. ῥηθέντων δὲ καὶ τούτων ... εἰπεῖν: king Panoides has been mentioned so far only once at the beginning of the contest (cf. 69), but now makes a new and unexpected appearance in the text. Although the public confirm their preference for Homer, he imposes a new test on the two poets: a performance of what they consider the finest passage from their own poems. It is only now that the competition appears explicitly to assess Homer’s and Hesiod’s poetry. For Panoides’ verdict see 205-10n.

180-204. Hesiod’s finest piece is Works and Days 383-92, the opening of the farmer’s calendar; Homer describes a battle scene by stitching together two passages from Iliad 13 (vv. 126-33 and 339-44). The ultimate effect of this selection is to show that Homer’s poetry allows humans to share the gaze of the gods on the world, thus allowing them to go beyond their mortal nature, while Hesiod’s poetry, with the description of the cycle of nature and agriculture activities, does not offer anything that a man cannot experience in his everyday life. This is achieved by setting up and developing contrasts between the poetry of peace and that of war, of which Works and Days and Iliad were traditionally taken as representative already by the time of Aristophanes (R. 1033-6). On this traditional opposition see Graziosi 2002: 168-84 and Koning 2010: 269-84. The two selected passages describe well the contrast as they respond to each other in a number of details, presented in one context as symbols of peace, and of war in the other (see also Hunter 2009: 264 and Koning 2010: 253). Both passages
start by presenting an image of non-human entities and then zoom in to focus on men: Hesiod mentions the constellation of the Pleiades that regulates the productive cycle of agriculture (180), while Homer mentions the gods Ares and Athena rejoicing in the spectacle of the battle (191-3); the Hesiodic man works in order to ensure a means of life for himself, while the Homeric fighters strive in the ‘battle that destroys the mortals’ (199: μάχη φθισίμβροτος). Iron is sharpened in the Hesiodic passage to reap (184), and interestingly a scholium to this line of *Works and Days* feels the needs to specify that the iron in question is indeed that used for reaping, almost in an attempt to avoid any possible disturbance to the peacefulness of this description. Indeed, metal is also an instrument of death, as the Homeric ταμεσίχροας at 200 shows. The Hesiodic man is emphatically and repeatedly said to be naked, while the Homeric heroes are covered by their armour. Then, the metaphor in the Homeric passage, ‘the fight bristled’ (like a corn field) at 199, responds to the literal reaping in Hesiod. The choice of a passage from *Works and Days* for Hesiod is an obvious one, because of the mention of his programmatic trip to Chalcis and victory at 650-9. (For the suggestion that Hesiod at Chalcis may have performed the *Theogony* see West 1966: 44). More specifically, *Works and Days* 383-92 ‘underlines like no other Hesiod’s image of the peace-loving farmer poet’ (Koning 2010: 252), thus proving an appropriate selection to represent poetry of peace. This may also explain why Hesiod’s performance in the *Certamen* stops right before the reference to the poet’s quarrel with his ‘foolish’ brother Perses, that follows these peaceful lines in their original context in *Works and Days*: for the suggestion, made on the basis of Philostratus’ passage (see Introduction, pp. 31-5), that those lines may have been included in an ‘original’ version of the contest see West 1967: 442 n. 3. The Pleiades in *Works and Days* are also said to regulate the right time of seafaring, as well as agricultural activities (see Op. 615 and 619): the choice of a passage mentioning the Pleiades may work as a cross reference to the *Nautilia* section, where Hesiod’s programmatic mention of the
contest belongs. Ancient sources underlined the ethical value of these verses, which makes them compatible with Panoides’ verdict: according to him it was just (208: δίκαιον) for Hesiod to win as he sang peace and agriculture; according to the scholiast to Works and Days 381-2, these verses encourage agricultural work and the just (δίκαιον) income that comes from it. Homer stitches together two sequences of verses from book 13 of the Iliad, where they are separated by some 200 lines. This particular scene of war, may suit a fifth-century Athenian audience interested in seeing in Homer the poet of communal fighting (Graziosi 2002: 180); the selection as it stands also seems to have been purposefully made to provide the reader with a means of exploring the relationship between the Muses, the poet and audience: Homer turns out to be an inspired intermediary between the Muses and the audience, and therefore shares and allows the audience to share his divine gaze on something that their human nature would not choose to bear in reality, the sight of war and death. Homer’s passage presents a close comparison between divine and human perspectives on war: the gods enjoy the sight of that battle (192-3), but a human internal spectator cannot do so (203-4), because for him war means death. Homer’s poetry however allows mortals to face the spectacle of war in safety (Hunter 2009: 265) – that is, from a divine perspective. The claim that the audience in the Certamen, as external spectators, define these verses as ‘transcending the merely fitting’ (206) may be read in this sense. By putting at the centre of Homeric poetry its ability to allow humans to share a divine perspective on the world, the Certamen gives a perceptive reading of the Homeric epics. The same reaction to the sight of war by gods is found also, for example, at Il. 17.398, and, at Iliad 4.539-44, an internal spectator is said to enjoy the sight of war, but only because Athena takes him by the hand and protects him. Eustathius (506.6-8), commenting on this passage, interestingly remarks that this man watching safely the battle scene can be identified with the public who listens to the poet’s performance. Another detail in this passage hints at the
possibility of seeing beyond what human nature allows seeing: at 200-3 it is said that eyes were dazzled with the glint of bronze from the shining helmets, and the bright shields: a human being, therefore, cannot see the spectacle. The sight of it for a man means becoming blind, and the same goes for Homer too: one of his biographies (Anon. *Vit. Hom.* 1.5) claims that Homer was blinded by the dazzle of the armour after praying that he might behold the hero as he was when he went out to join the battle arrayed in his replacement, but Thetis and the Muses took pity of him and honoured with the gift of poetry. And this is how we have the description of Achilles’ armour in book 19, that allows us too to see it without getting blinded, and this is also how we are allowed to see the battle in book 13. The parallel with the story of Demodocus’ blindness in *Od.* 8.63-4 is obvious: it seems therefore, that the *Certamen* offers a perceptive reading of the epics which is tune with biographical representations of Homer.

181. ἀμήτου is the necessary emendation for the unmetrical form transmitted by Λἀμητοῖο. The form ἀμητοῖο is also present in some Hesiodic manuscripts.

183. αὖθι is the reading of Λ, emended on the basis of the passage in Hesiod. But the manuscript reading seems unproblematic and is transmitted by part of the Hesiodic manuscripts too.

189. ὅτ’ ἄν ὠρια πάντα πέλωντα: these words (the second part of 189) differ substantially from the corresponding section of the verse as we find it in Hesiod’s work (*Op.* 392): εἰ χ’ ὠρια πάντ’ ἐθέλησθα (‘if in good season you want all’). The Hesiodic text continues for a few more lines before it reaches the first possible syntactical stop at the end of verse: εἰ χ’ ὠρια πάντ’ ἐθέλησθα / ἐργά κομίζεσθαι Δημήτερος, ὡς τοι ἔκαστα / ὠρι’ ἀέξηται, μή πως τὰ μέταξε χατίζων / πτώσης ἀλλοτρίους οἰκους καὶ μηδὲν ἀνύσσεις. The variant in the *Certamen* is attested nowhere else. It may be an *ad hoc* re-elaboration of this Hesiodic verse in order to make the passage shorter and therefore suitable for the *Certamen*. Be it as it may, the verse as it is in the *Certamen* sums up the contents of a part of the following lines (εἰ χ’ ὠρια ...
The reading of L ἀσπίς ὑ' ἄφ', which does not work metrically, can be emended to ἀσπίς ἄφ' on the basis of the reading of the Homeric manuscripts.  

The public reacts with θαύμα at Homer’s performance (see also 90-1n.), because the verses ‘transcend the merely fitting’. As suggested above (180-204n.) this is because Homer, unlike Hesiod, appears as an inspired poet who allows men to share the gaze of the gods on the world. Panoides, however, prefers Hesiod’s performance on the basis of its greater ethical value. The Certamen does not express any explicit opinion on this verdict, but many clues suggest a disagreement with it. First of all, the whole episode is ‘constructed in terms that are carefully taken over from the Iliad’s portrayal of consensus and its discontents’: it recalls the opening assembly of the Iliad, an ‘example of unjustice but also as violation of social norms’ where the king, Agamemnon, ‘defies collective will in favour of his own inclination’ (Elmer 2013: 220). Furthermore, Panoides’ judgement seems partial: it takes into account only the last test, and is issued by one single person, even though other judges were said to be present and the public constantly expressed their opinion. Moreover, Panoides judges the poets only on the basis of the contents of their works and not for their poetic skills. The very introduction of the figure of Panoides contributes to cast doubts on the verdict. When an ancient author wants to show agreement with Hesiod’s victory he does not introduce Panoides in his narrative, but rather attributes the verdict to the whole public: see Introduction on Themistius, pp. 38-41. On the other hand, when mentioned, Panoides is never presented as a competent judge. Furthermore, as portrayed in the Certamen, the victory of Hesiod is not the central point of the story. Indeed it is anticipated already in the introduction to the competition, where the focus is rather on the fact that both poets competed admirably and on the way the competition developed until Hesiod eventually won (70-1). Likewise, the final verdict and the celebration of Hesiod’s victory occupy relatively little space, and
\(\phi\alpha\sigma\iota\) at 210 seems to indicate some distance on the part of the author of our text. Consequently, the arguments of those scholars who see Panoides’ judgement as fair seem problematic. Koning 2010: 255 claims that ‘there is no explicit indication that Panedes’ judgement is a bad one: neither the author, nor Homer or the public comments on it. Sophia is in the end defined as knowing what is beneficial to the polis, a type of wisdom with which Hesiod was traditionally associated, and his victory thus remain unchallenged’. This interpretation does not account for Homer’s ability to show what is beneficial to the polis, masterfully expressed by the poet in the exchanges at 149-75. Koning also adds that it is not surprising that the king, whose brother has just been killed in war, should make such a decision; or perhaps the newly appointed king uses the contest to announce a change of politics. The second option seems reasonable, though again it would imply that his judgement is concerned not with poetics, but merely with the contents of poetry: it still appears as partial. As for the first hypothesis, it should not be forgotten that only Plutarch mentions that Amphidamas died in a battle, while the Certamen does not: it seems unwise to integrate so straightforwardly one text with the other, especially as they differ in the presentation of so many aspects of the story. West 1967: 443 claims that ‘there is not a word to suggest that the decision was unjust’, and that ‘the story belongs to a type much favoured by the Greeks, in which a man does the opposite of what is expected, and justifies himself with an original and by no means contemptible analysis of the situation’. West adds that Alcidamas, who according to him was the inventor of the contest story, agreed with the fact that Hesiod, as the poet of peace, deserved to win. But every attempt to interpret the final verdict in the Certamen on the basis of its alleged presentation in Alcidamas is speculation, as it is impossible to know how faithful the author of the Certamen was to his source, and how and to what extent he modified his source’s words. Moreover, some scholars who have attempted to interpret the verdict on the basis of what it may have meant in
Alcidamas reached quite opposite conclusions: Vogt 1959, for example, sees Homer in the *Certamen* as the champion of the improvised speeches, who certainly deserved the victory in the contest. He claims that Alcidamas could not, therefore, agree with Panoides and that the king’s judgement in the *Certamen* is presented as biased. O’ Sullivan 1992: 98, in turn, concludes that Alcidamas did not attach any importance to the mere fact of Hesiod’s victory, but rather to the manner of it.

210-12. τῆς μὲν οὖν νίκης ... ἐπιγράψαντα: the prize for the competition is a tripod, which Hesiod dedicates to the Muses: these details of the story are inspired by *Op*. 657-8. The tripod and the epigram inscribed on it (see 213-14n.) feature in many literary accounts of the contest, but the story also had a material reception: a tripod bearing the epigram of Hesiod’s victory was displayed in antiquity in the place where Hesiod himself (*Op*. 657-8) claimed to have dedicated it, on Mt Helicon, and it was visible in Pausanias’ times (Paus. 9.31.3); see Introduction on Hesiod, esp. pp. 12-14. A tripod was the usual prize at games in Homeric poetry (e.g. *Il*. 11.700, 22.164, 23.259) and in historical times. A famous extant tripod, a prize at a musical contest, is *GDI* 5786 (fifth c. BC, from Dodona).

213-14. Ἡσίοδος ... Ὅμηρον: the epigram is transmitted in several accounts of the contest, but it also had independent circulation in anthologies of epigrams and school books (see apparatus; see also pp. 83-6 on P.Freib. 1.1b). The second verse of this epigram is attested in the scholia to *Works and Days* 657 as a variant for the Hesiodic verse. This may be a genuine variant, rather than a simple interpolation from the text of the epigram, and shows that the interaction and the relationship between the Hesiodic passage on the tradition of the contest are very strong (see Introduction on Hesiod, esp. pp. 12-14).

215-23. τοῦ δὲ ... ἔστιν: after winning the contest Hesiod consults the Delphic oracle, which predicts to him the place of his death. Homer too consulted the oracle and was warned against going to Ios; thus the text is building an
elaborate narrative which connects oracles, contest and deaths of the poets: see 56-62n. The legend of the death of Hesiod following the misinterpretation of an oracle was circulating already in the fifth century BC. The oldest attested witness of it is Thucydides, who however does not report the verses given by the oracle (Th. 3.96.1: αυλισάμενος δὲ τῷ στρατῷ ἐν τοῦ Διός τοῦ Νεμείου τῷ ἱερῷ, ἐν φιλοδοσοῦ λογίας λέγεται ύπὸ τῶν ταύτη ἀποθανεῖν, ὁρηθέν αὐτῶ ἐν Νεμέᾳ τούτῳ παθεῖν). The misunderstanding of an oracle predicting the place of one’s death is a common pattern of many ancient biographies: for a list see Fontenrose 1978: 59-60.

219-23. ὀλβίος ... ἐστίν: the text of this oracle is transmitted only by the Certamen and Tzetzes (Life of Hesiod 166-70 Colonna). Although the story of this oracle was known already in the fifth century BC (Th. 3.96.1, quoted above at 215-23n.), it is not possible to know whether the lines were in circulation in this form already by that time. According to Fontenrose 1978: 371 these verses are a fifth-century production manufactured ad hoc for the legend. The greeting by which the oracle starts is common in oracular epigrams, see e.g. AP 14.77: Ὅλβιος ὦ τοῦ ἀνήρ, ὦς νῦν κατὰ λαίνον οὐδὸν etc. (Fontenrose 1978: 171-2); and the oracle received by Kypselos: Ὅλβιος ὦ τοῦ ἀνήρ ὃς ἐμὸν δόμον ἑσκαταβαίνει etc. (Hdt. 5.92 = Q61 Fontenrose, with commentary); D. Chr. 37.5.5: Ὅλβιος ὦ τοῦ ἀνήρ ὃς ἐμὸν δόμον εἰσαφικάνει. The second verse of the oracle is Homeric: it is transmitted in the very same form at Il. 7.451 (τοῦ δ’ ἦτοι κλέος ἐσται όσον τ’ ἐπικίνδυναται ἡώς) and a few verses later (Il. 7.458) with a slight variation at the beginning (σὸν δ’ ἦτοι κλέος etc.).

221. ὀσὴν: this is the reading of the manuscript L, emended in ὀσὸν on the basis of the Iliadic verse. But the emendation is unnecessary, as the Iliadic manuscripts give support to both readings. The scholia also show that ὀσὴν was the reading preferred by one of the major ancient editors of Homer, Aristarchus.

224-53. ὅ δὲ Ἡσιοδος ... ἐν βασάνῳ σοφίης: the text devotes relatively little
space to the events of Hesiod’s life after the contest and, unlike Homer’s case, there is no mention of the poet’s artistic production or his travels. The text thus gives the impression that Hesiod’s ‘dreary end is vengeance for his unfair victory, as Hesiod’s death occurs after, and as a consequence of, his sensational success’ (Debiasi 2012: 482). The text offers two different accounts of the story of Hesiod’s death, one by Alcidamas and one by Eratosthenes. In both cases the title of the work used as sources is cited with the name of the author, but in the case of Eratosthenes the manuscript gives a problematic reading (see 241n.). The main differences between the two versions of the story concern the location of the murder (Eastern Locris in Alcidamas, 226n.; not specified in Eratosthenes), the identity of Hesiod’s murderers and their destiny (see 226-7n. and 241n.), and whether or not Hesiod was actually guilty of the crime of which he was charged (230-2n.). In general, Eratosthenes’ version appears more positive in its depiction of Hesiod, as the poet is clearly said to be innocent (245-7n.), and more rationalising, because of the exclusion of Zeus’ intervention and of the miraculous rescue of Hesiod’s body by dolphins. Hesiod’s death was told in many other sources and always with different details. This diversity was acknowledged already in antiquity (Paus. 9.31.6). Collection of testimonia: T30-T34 Most 2006; discussions: Friedel 1878-1879, Kivilo 2010: 25-36, Koning 2010: 134-8.

226. εἰς δὲ Οἶνόην τῆς Λοκρίδος: Oinoe is the name of various places (LSJ s.v. Οἶνος). The form Οἶνος seems to be a later form for Οἶνεών testified at Th. 3.95.3. (Cf. also St. Byz. s.v. Οἶνεών). The city where the death of Hesiod was located by most of the ancient sources was in Olozean (Western) Locris and close to Naupactus, although the precise site of it is not identifiable with certainty (Lefkowitz 1981: 3 n. 4; Kivilo 2010: 26 n. 81). The earliest witness of the episode of Hesiod’s death, Thucydides, locates the episode in the Ozolean Locris too: cf. Th. 3.95.3, the passage immediately before the mention of Hesiod’s death: ὡμᾶτο δὲ ἐξ Οἰνεῶν τῆς Λοκρίδος. οἱ δὲ Ὀζόλαι οὕτωι
Λοκροὶ ξύμμαχοι ἦσαν. Pausanias (9.31.6) connects it to Ozolean Locris as well: he says that the murderers fled from Naupactus (in the Ozolean Locris), to Molycria, in the opposite coast, and also claims that this is one of the few details of the episode on which everybody agrees. Plutarch mentions that Hesiod’s corpse was brought to Rhium in Molycreia (Dinner of the Seven Sages 162d and The Cleverness of Animals 984d) and that the murderers were the sons of Ganyctor of Naupactus (The Cleverness of Animals 969d-e). However, the mention of ‘the sea between Euboea and Locris’ shows that Alcidamas locates the episode of Hesiod’s death in the Opuntian (Eastern) Locris rather than in the Ozolean (Western) Locris. Against West 2003: 343 n. 15, who thinks of a mistake by Alcidamas, Nagy 2009: 306 suggests that different locations may respond two different claims about the poet. This detail in particular may originate from the version of the myth promoted by the people of Orchomenos. Moreover, to solve this inconsistency it is necessary to emend two readings of the manuscript that however are not problematic: τῆς Εὐβοίας καὶ τῆς Λοκρίδος (231-2) and Ἀριαδνείας (234).

226-7. παρ’ Ἀμφιφάνει καὶ Γανύκτορι, τοῖς Φηγέω παισίν: according to Alcidamas, Hesiod’s murderers are Amphiphanes and Ganyctor the sons of Phegeus. This is only one of the couples to whom the tradition attributes the crime, and it is found also in Aristotle (fr. 565 Rose) and Tzetzes (Life of Hesiod 171-2 Colonna); for the other couple see 241n. It is difficult to see the reasons of these differences in the names of the killers, but it is certainly striking that Alcidamas chooses the option according to which one of the murderers has the same name as the son of Amphidamas who organised the funeral games where the contest took place (63). In fact, Alcidamas is the oldest testimony to this identity of the murders and he may have even created this particular detail as a sort of reversal of Hesiod’s undeserved victory at the contest. Debiasi 2012: 476 notes that the onomastics of the killers point to Euboea, the site of the controversial contest: this confirms, first of all, that the location of the episode
for Alcidamas was Eastern Locris, and secondly suggests again a connection of the poet’s death with the contest episode. Phegeus, as the father of Amphiphanes and Ganyctor, is mentioned only in the context of Hesiod’s death. 230. †Οἰνωσιν†: the reading of the manuscript is not attested anywhere else. Stephanus of Byzantium (s.v. Οἰνεών) gives for Oinoe the ethnic adjective Οἰνεωνεύς, which however looks incompatible with the manuscript reading. Other attested forms are Οἰνοαιός (St. Byz.) and Οἰναιός (IG 22.99, 1623.5, 1926.130), but it is uncertain whether they refer to our city or not. A locative Οἰνόησι is attested (IG 12.845.5) and the reading of the manuscript looks like a contracted form of it. But there seems to be no definitive solution to this textual problem. P.Ath.Soc.Pap. inv. M2 (l. 5) cannot help here because of its poor condition.

230-2. ὑπονοήσαντε ... κατεπόντισαν: the episode of Hesiod’s death seems ‘sordid’ to many readers (Scodel 1980: 304, O’ Sullivan 1992: 98, Rosen 2004: 303). Koning instead finds in this episode one of the signs of Hesiod’s heroic status, as heroes ‘often suffer from an abnormally great sexual appetite’ (Koning 2010: 135), but the image of the poet that emerges from this account is far from positive, especially when compared to Eratosthenes’ version in which Hesiod’s innocence is pointedly asserted. More details on the identity of the girl seduced by Hesiod and her offspring are given by Tzetzes (Life of Hesiod 154-5 Colonna), who informs us that the son of Hesiod and the girl he raped, called Ctimene, was Stesichorus. Other sources give different details about the girl and the child, but do not connect them explicitly to the episode of the rape (sources listed in Kivilo 2010: 10-11). There is also mention of a son in Hesiod’s own Works and Days, and this may have been connected to this story in antiquity and fostered its development: Op. 270-1: νῦν δὴ ἐγὼ μήτ' αὐτὸς ἐν ἀνθρώποις δίκαιος / εἴην μήτ' ἐμὸς υἱός...

231-2. τῆς Εὐβοίας καὶ τῆς Λοκρίδος: this reading locates the story in Eastern Locris. See also 226n. The emendations proposed for these lines are all meant to
relocate the episode in Western Locris, by substituting the name of Euboea with places in the coast opposite Western Locris, namely Molycria and Achaia (Goettling and Westermann), or substituting both names altogether (Nietzsche). P.Ath.Soc.Pap. inv. M2 offers an indisputable solution to this problem: the word Εὐβοίας visible at l. 9 proves that the story could be located in Eastern Locris and that there is no need for an emendation (Mandilaras 1990: 61).

232-4. τοῦ δὲ νεκροῦ ... υπὸ δελφίνων προσενεχθέντος: the rescue of Hesiod’s corpse by dolphins closely parallels an episode told in myths about the lives of other cult heroes (Nagy 2009: 306) and in fact it is the ‘most strongly heroic trait of Hesiod’s vita’ (Koning 2010: 135). Similar episodes are present in the biographies of many characters who enjoyed heroic status in antiquity: among the singers, Coeranus from Miletus (Ath. 13.606e) and most famously Arion (first attested in Hdt. 1.23). The choice of the dolphins for this role must be due to the particular consideration they enjoyed in antiquity (partly no doubt as a response to the fact that these animals do sometimes rescue other mammals from drowning) and to wide-spread beliefs concerning their pleasure in music. Furthermore, these animals were sacred to different gods: Poseidon, Aphrodite, Apollo and Dionysus (Apollo and Dionysos being especially relevant in the case of singers and poets). See for references BNP s.v. Dolphin.

The intervention of the dolphins may be seen therefore as a sign of divine support: after they miraculously rescue Hesiod’s body, Zeus punishes the murders and throws them into the sea. This episode may also be related to the legend of the second birth and youth of Hesiod (see 247-53n.). It may be a ‘mythical expression of the poet’s death and rebirth’ (Koning 2010: 136; see also Scodel 1980: 317; the most recent and detailed discussion of the legend of the second youth is Kivilo 2010: 28-35, who however does not connect it with the episode of the dolphins). This episode is also told by Plutarch (Dinner of the Seven Sages 162c-f = T32 Most and The Cleverness of Animals 9840d = T33b Most) and Tzetzes (Life of Hesiod 174-5 Colonna). Other animal helpers are involved in
the legend of Hesiod’s death: a crow sent by the Pythia guides the Orchomenians to the poet’s grave (Paus. 9.38.3-4); and Hesiod’s dog helps find the murderers by barking (Plu. *The Cleverness of Animals* 984d, 969e = T33ab Most, Poll. 5.42 = T34 Most).

234. Αριαδνείας: Ρίου ἁγνείας instead of Αριαδνείας, proposed by Nietzsche on the basis of the account of Hesiod’s death by Plutarch (*Dinner of the Seven Sages* 162e), connects again the episode to Western Locris, where Rhion is located. A cult of Ariadne in Locris is testified only in this passage of the *Certamen*, and also for this reason the manuscript reading has been emended so as to get more consistency with other sources of the same episode. But the fact that the murderers try to escape to Crete (238) and are punished during this trip, is no reason to exclude a connection between this story and Ariadne. It has also been suggested that the story of Hesiod’s death is an aetiological myth for this festival, which may have been performed similarly to that in Crete (Nilsson 1906: 383-4, Lefkowitz 1981: 4 n. 10). Colbeau 2005: 243-4 notes that Ariadne is often connected with Dionysus and wine, which evokes the stem of the name Oinoe.

235-40. πάντες ἐπὶ τὸν αἰγιαλὸν ... Αλκιόδαμας ἐν Μουσείῳ: Lefkowitz 1981: 4 sees a connection between this punishment of Hesiod’s murderers by Zeus and a Hesiodic passage: *Op.* 270-3: νῦν δὴ ἐγὼ μητ’ αὐτὸς ἐν ἀνθρώπωι δίκαιος / εἴην μητ’ ἐμὸς νίκος, ἐπεὶ κακὸν ἄνδρα δίκαιον / ἐμμεναι, εἰ μείζων γε δίκην ἀδικώτερος ἅξει / ἀλλὰ τὰ γ’ οὕτω ἐσθίει τελεῖν Δία μητιόεντα. As anticipated by Hesiod, Zeus’ justice prevailed over the murderers. Koning 2010: 135 n. 34 finds this a tenuous interpretation, but it is not possible to exclude that this connection may have actually been made in antiquity, and may have contributed to the diffusion of this anecdote. The divine intervention by Zeus, as well as the episode of the dolphins, is omitted in the more rationalising version by Eratosthenes.

238. εἰς Κρήτην: see 234n.
240. Αλκιδάμας ἐν Μοῦσεῖῳ: the mention of Alcidamas was one of the reasons why Nietzsche first postulated that Alcidamas’ work was used as a source by the author of the *Certamen*. The way he is mentioned also suggests that he was the main source: it seems that he is named only because an alternative version, that by Eratosthenes, was about to be quoted.

241. ἐν Ἐνηπόδῳ: this is a particularly difficult reading. It has been variously emended (see apparatus and below) because it does not make sense, and there is no attested work by Eratosthenes with a title similar to the manuscript reading. One of the earliest and most widely accepted emendations is Goettling’s ἐν Ἑσιόδῳ, based on Hiller’s suggestion that Ἑσιόδος could be a second title of Eratosthenes’ poem Ἀντεφινύς. That poem might have contained the story of Hesiod’s death and his murderers’ punishment. See Erat. fr. 17 Powell. However, there is no evidence that the Ἀντεφινύς had such a second title and, as pointed out by Fraser 1972: 902 n. 200, the title Ἀντεφινύς is hardly sufficient to justify the assumption that that poem dealt with the legend of Hesiod. Another fragment by Eratosthenes (fr. 21 Powell = Choerob. *In Theod.* Gaisf. i, p. 81) mentions Ganyctor, a character who is always linked to this legend and therefore confirms Eratosthenes’ interest in it, but again this fragment does not offer a solution for this textual problem. Erat. fr. 19 Powell (= schol. Nic. *Ther.* 400) gives another interesting but doubtful clue: in this fragment Eratosthenes mentions Erigone’s dog which, like Hesiod’s, played an important role after its owner’s death. This fragment is attributed by the ancient source to the Ἀντεφινύς, but as far as we know that story is told in Eratosthenes’ *Erigone*. From Eratosthenes’ poetic fragments, therefore, an interest in the legend of Hesiod’s death emerges quite clearly, but they do not reveal the title of the work in which he discussed it. On the other hand, there is no trace of an account of the episode of the poetic contest of Homer and Hesiod in Eratosthenes and therefore we cannot know whether or not his account of Hesiod’s death was attached to the contest, as in the *Certamen*. A passage in
Strabo (7.3.6) seems to suggest that, according to Eratosthenes, Hesiod was younger than Homer, and if it is the case then he could hardly have spoken of their contest, which presupposes the two poets being contemporaries: see Pfeiffer 1968: 164, who however does not mention Strabo’s passage, and Koning 2010: 123 n. 67 and 124 n. 71. Eratosthenes’ broad interests in the biographies of the poets is testified by two other fragments that attribute to him two (discordant) claims concerning Homer’s chronology: see 241 F 9a (= Tat. Ad Graec. 31) and 241 F 9b (= Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.4).

Κτίμενον καὶ Ἀντιφόν τοὺς Γανύκτορος: other attestations of these names for Hesiod’s murderers are Plutarch (The Cleverness of Animals 969e), Pausanias (9.31.4) and Suda s.v. Ἡσίοδος. For the other couple see 226-7n. Antiphus is the name of Homeric heroes on both the Trojan (Il. 2.864, 12.191) and the Greek sides (Il. 2.678, 17.68). The name Ctimenus is not attested in archaic literature, while Ctimene (who is also the sister of Amphiphanes and Ganyctor according to Tzetzes, Life of Hesiod 155 Colonna) is Odysseus’ sister (Od. 15.363). These Homeric names again suggest that the Certamen stems from intimate knowledge of the poems.

243-5. τὴν μέντοι παρθένον ... ἐαυτὴν ἀναρτήσαι: this detail about the destiny of the girl contributes to increase the pathos that surrounds the episode of Hesiod’s unjust death in this version. On the girl see also 230-2n.

245-7. φθαρήναι δὲ ... αὐτῶν φησίν: unlike Alcidamas, Eratosthenes is very clear about Hesiod’s innocence. Protestations of the poet’s innocence are found in most of the sources on the poet’s death. Paus. 9.31.6 (T31 Most): τὴν δὲ ἀδελφὴν τῶν νεανίσκων οἱ μὲν άλλου τοῦ φασίν αἰσχύναντος Ἡσίόδον λαβεῖν οὐκ ἀληθῆ τὴν τοῦ ἀδικήματος δόξαν, οἱ δὲ ἐκείνου γενέσθαι τὸ ἔργον. Particularly apologetic seems the version by Plutarch in Dinner of the Seven Sages 162d, which confirms the positive image of Hesiod emerging from the account of the contest in the same work by Plutarch (see Introduction, pp. 18-28). According to Plutarch’s account Hesiod was not even suspected to have
committed the crime against his hosts’ sister but only to have helped Troilus, his friend and actual perpetrator of the crime, to conceal it: ὑποψίαν ἔσχεν ὡς γνοὺς ἀπ’ ἀρχής καὶ συνεπικρύψας τὸ ἀδίκημα, μηδενὸς ὁν αἰτίως. The same version features in the Suda, s.v. Ἡσίοδος: ἐτελεύτησε ἐπιξενωθεὶς παρ’ Ἀντίφω καὶ Κτιμένῳ, οἱ νύκτωρ δόξαντες ἀναιρεῖ φθορέα ἀδελφῆς αὐτῶν, ἀνεῖλον τὸν Ἡσίοδον ἀκοντε.

246. Δημώδους ὅνομα: the only other name given to Hesiod’s friend in the tradition is Troilus (Plu. Dinner of the Seven Sages 162c). The name Demodes given by Eratosthenes does not seem to be attested anywhere else as a personal name. It is found as an adjective and means ‘of the people, popular’ (LSJ). It was used by Nietzsche and Rzach who proposed to add the name Troilus in the text (Τρωίλου, see apparatus): this character would therefore be ‘a certain man of the people, a foreigner travelling with Hesiod, called Troilus’.

247-53. ύστερον δὲ Ὀρχομένωι ... ἐν βασάνῳ σοφίης: the story of Hesiod’s second burial follows in the text the account by Eratosthenes, but it is not impossible that it was told by Alcidamas as well. The compiler may have given two different accounts on Hesiod’s murder and of the destiny of Hesiod’s killers, and included at the end an anecdote told in a similar way by both sources. The story is mentioned in several other sources (Plu. fr. 82 Sandbach and Arist. fr. 524 Rose = Schol. Op. 631, Plu. Dinner of the Seven Sages 162, Paus. 9.38.3-4, Tz. Life of Hesiod 177-85 Colonna). After the Thespians destroyed Ascra, the Ascreans who survived went to Orchomenos. A plague broke out in the city and the Pythia (in Aristoteles’, Pausanias’ and Eratosthenes’ versions) suggested taking Hesiod’s bones to Orchomenus. According to Pausanias, a crow helped the Orchomenians to find Hesiod’s first grave. The story of the transportation of Hesiod’s bones and second burial in Orchomenos has been taken as evidence for a cult of Hesiod in that city (in particular, the beneficial power that the poet’s bones were thought to have, and the fact that according to Pausanias a crow guided the Orchomenians to Hesiod’s first grave). On the cult of Hesiod see

248-9. ἐπέγραψαν ... ἐπὶ τῷ τάφῳ: unlike Homer (see 333), Hesiod did not compose his own tomb inscription.

250-3. Ἀσκή τε μὲν πατρὶς ... ἐν βασάνῳ σοφίς: the whole text of the epigram is transmitted also in AP 7.54, Paus. 9.38.4 and Tz. Life of Hesiod 179-82 Colonna. The Greek Anthology attributes it to Mnasalces, Pausanias to Chersias. For detailed discussion of attribution and chronology of this epigram see De Biasi 2010. Like the other epigrams in the Certamen, this too presents many variant readings compared to other attestations of it. The most remarkable is Ἑλλάδι κύδως ὀψεῖται by Pausanias at 252 (see discussion in De Biasi 2010: 263). Another tomb epigram that presupposes the story of Hesiod’s second burial in Orchomenus is transmitted by Arist. fr. 565 Rose, Suda s.v. τὸ Ἡσιώδειον γῆς, Tz. Life of Hesiod 184-5 Colonna, and is attributed to Pindar: χαίρε δίς ἡβήςας καὶ δίς τάφου ἀντιβολήςας / Ἡσίοδ’, ἀνθρώποις μέτοιχον ἔχων σοφίς. See Scodel 1980.

254-5. ὁ δὲ Ὅμηρος ... περιεχόμενος ἔλεγε τὰ ποιήματα: the text now starts to describe Homer’s artistic production and travels after the contest. For Homer’s activity as a travelling poet, as opposed to Hesiod’s stationary stance, see 56n.

255-60. πρῶτον μὲν ... Ὅμηρου εἶναι: the text attributes to Homer the Thebaid and, with some caution, the Epigoni. Their position in the sequence of the works produced by Homer, after the Margites and before his two major poetic works Iliad and Odyssey, reflects the status of the cyclic epics in antiquity: see e.g. Aristotle’s view that Iliad and Odyssey ‘surpass all other poems in diction and thought’ (Po. 1459b 16: λέξει καὶ διανοίᾳ πάντα ὑπερβέβληκεν). Although they were considered minor works, the insertion of Thebaid and Epigoni here serves to highlight the extent of Homer’s knowledge of the epic past and the range of his artistic production. Both poems belong to the Theban saga, and the
choice of these two works among all those belonging to the Epic Cycle allows
the text to present Homer as an expert of the Theban expedition as well as the
Trojan one, dealt with in Iliad and Odyssey (275-6). It also shows how consistent
Homer’s knowledge was because, as the ancient public may have known,
acquaintance with some of the events of the Theban saga is presupposed in the
Iliad (see Davies 1989b: 22-3). The Thebaid, in comparison with other poems of
the Cycle, enjoyed a good reputation and this too may have encouraged its
inclusion in this selective list of poems by Homer. Pausanias claims that it was
his favourite Homeric poem after the Iliad and the Odyssey (Paus. 9.9.5: ἐγὼ δὲ
tὴν ποίησιν ταύτην μετὰ γε Ἡλιάδα καὶ τὰ ἔπη τὰ ἐς Ὄδυσσεα ἐπαινῶ
μᾶλιστα.). The attribution of the Thebaid to Homer may be very ancient:
according to Pausanias it goes back to Callinus, in the seventh century BC, and
seems to have been usually accepted in antiquity (Paus. 9.9.5: τὰ δὲ ἔπη ταῦτα
Καλλίνος ἀφικόμενος αὐτῶν ἐς μνήμην ἔφησεν Ὄμηρον τὸν ποιήσαντα
eἶναι, Καλλίνῳ δὲ πολλοὶ τε καὶ ἄξιοι λόγου κατὰ ταῦτα ἐγνώσαν. On this
testimony see, however, Bowie 2010: 152). Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 9 too depicts
Homer as the author of a poem concerning the Theban cycle, although the work
that in the Life is called Amphiaraus’ expedition to Thebes may be indicating ‘not
the whole Thebais but a partial narrative covering perhaps Eriphyle’s
machinations and the seer’s instruction of his son’ (West 2003b: 9). It is uncertain
whether Herodotus was referring to the Thebaid in 5.67 when he mentions the
‘Homeric poems in which it is the Argives and Argos which are primarily the
theme of the songs’ (τῶν Ὀμηρείων ἐπέων εἶνεικα, ὅτι Ἀργεῖοι τε καὶ Ἀργος
tὰ πολλὰ πάντα ύμνέαται): see Cingano 1985 and West 2003b: 8. If he does,
this confirms that Herodotus too accepts the attribution of that poem to Homer,
although at 4.32 Herodotus denies the attribution to Homer of the other Theban
poem mentioned here, the Epigoni (see below). In other passages the authorship
of the Thebaid is dealt with more vaguely (e.g. Ath. 465e: ὁ τὴν κυκλικὴν
Θηβαίδα πεποιηκώς; Schol. S. O.C. 1375: ὁ τὴν κυκλικὴν Θηβαίδα ποίησας;

205
Apollod. 1.8.4: ὁ γράψας τὴν Θηβαίδα, but its attribution to Homer is never challenged explicitly, and – importantly – no other author’s name is associated with the *Thebaid* in extant testimonia. By contrast, the *Epigoni* was less widely accepted as Homeric: Herodotus, for example, expresses his doubts at 4.32: ἔστι δὲ καὶ Ὀμήρῳ ἐν Ἐπιγόνοισι, εἰ δὴ τῷ ἐόντι γε Ὀμήρος ταύτα τὰ ἐπεα ἐποίησε, and our text seems to share them: see 260n. The scarcity of fragments and testimonia makes it difficult to understand why Homeric authorship was doubted or denied. Aristophanes in his *Peace* quotes the verse transmitted here as the incipit of this poem (see 87-8n.) and the scholium to that Aristophanic verse attributes the poem to Antimachos of Teos.

256. ἔπη ξ: in the case of the two Cyclic poems and of *Iliad* and *Odyssey* the text gives the number of lines for each work – a detail that would suit a school environment. The manuscript reads ἔπη ξ (60,000 verses) for the *Thebaid* and ἔπη ξ (60 verses) for the *Epigoni*. Both numbers are implausible and the emendation ξ (7,000) proposed by Hermann is unanimously accepted in both cases. Welcker 1835, I: 204 suggests that the number may indicate the quantity of the books of the poems, rather than that of their lines, but considering that the length of *Iliad* and *Odyssey* is expressed in lines (275 and 276), it stands to reason that the text is giving the number of lines in this case too (see also West 1967: 447 who argues that the indication of the number of books would be ‘inappropriate in the context’). The only other known source that might have contained information about the length of the two poems is the Borgian table, a marble fragment that preserves a list of title of epic poems, their authors and lengths, but the length of the *Thebaid* is not visible and the presence of the *Epigoni* is only reconstructed. See McLeod 1985.

257: the *Certamen* is an important source for the first verses of the *Thebaid*, and of the *Epigoni* (259). The incipit of the *Thebaid* is attested nowhere else; for the Aristophanic passage that transmits the same verse that is said here to be the incipit of the *Epigoni*, see 107-8n. The fact that also another source, the scholium
to that Aristophanic passage, claims that the verse is the incipit of the *Epigoni* (although attributing it to another poet), suggests that the information given here is reliable. Another Homeric biography transmitting an incipit of a poem of the Epic Cycle, the *Little Iliad*, is Ps.-Hdt. *Vit. Hom.* 16 and also in this case there is no reason to doubt the reliability of this piece of information (see Introduction on Plutarch, pp. 18-28).

258. Ἐπιγόνους: the manuscript reading ἐπειγομένου does not make sense here, and the emendation proposed by Barnes is necessarily to be accepted both because the *Epigoni* is the sequel of the previously mentioned *Thebaid*, and because the verse that follows is attributed to the same work (although the work itself is attributed to a different author) in Sch. Arist. *Pac.* 1270.

259. See 257n.

260. φασὶ γάρ τινες καὶ ταῦτα Ὅμηρου εἶναι: this claim may be interpreted as referring only to the *Epigoni*, rather than to both epics, and tallies with widespread doubts about Homer’s authorship of the *Epigoni* (see 255-60n.). This may be a way for the text to defend its own scholarly authority, after reporting more imaginative biographical stories about Hesiod and Homer. If this is right, then there is no need to think that these words are ‘evidently interpolated’ and that ‘they cannot have been written by a man who has just stated as a fact that Homer did recite these among his poems’ (West 1967: 447 n. 1).

260-4. ἀκούσαντες ... οὕτως: Homer is now asked to compose the funeral epigram to be engraved on the tomb of Midas, and after that he receives a silver cup and dedicates it to Apollo. Midas is a king of Phrygia who ruled, according to Eusebius, between 738 and 696 BC. For discussion on his funeral monument see Raubitscheck 1969: 13-15, Munn 2006: 70-3. Although this episode, which involves Homer’s synchronisation with a historical figure, could have allowed reflection on Homer’s chronology, there seems to be none in extant sources. The only time Homer and Midas are mentioned together in a discussion concerning chronology, the source (Diogenes Laertius 1.89) strongly denies the possibility
that they could be contemporary, and on this ground also rejects the Homeric authorship of the Midas’ epigram. Synchronisation with Midas was instead proposed for Terpander (by Hellanicus, 4 F 85b; discussion in Kivilo 2010: 159-60). The insertion of this episode here is functional to the development of the narrative. As West 1967: 447-8 remarks, this story parallels the episode of Hesiod’s victory of the tripod at the contest (both include invitation by sons of a dead king, prize, dedication, and inscription). Although Avezzù 1982: XXX, 48 and 87 finds this a weak parallel, all these similarities between the two episodes seem to be more than coincidental. The episode indeed seems to be meant to re-establish Homer’s credentials as a poet after the contest and is used as a means of securing future fame for him: see below 271-4n. West also suggests that the inclusion of this episode into the contest narrative may stem from Alcidamas, as he tended to fit Homer and Hesiod into a similar story-pattern (oracle, death, epitaph). It is impossible to establish with certainty whether Alcidamas included this episode in his narrative or not (cf. Avezzù 1982: 87: ‘se la coppa è un parallelo, seppur inadeguato, del tripode, non per questo si dimostra che l’esigenza di contrappesare la sconfitta col dono sia alcidamantea’), but West’s suggestion seems attractive.

265-70. χαλκῆ ... τέθαπται: the epigram for Midas’ tomb is one of the two so-called Homeric epigrams reported in Certamen (the other one is at 281-5). These are short poems that Homer is said to have composed for specific occasions, usually on the spot. Many of them are transmitted in the Ps.-Herodotean Life of Homer. Markwald 1986 remains the most thorough study of these texts. This epigram is transmitted by several other sources (see apparatus), including the Vita Herodotea, which offers the only other biographical framework for the quotation. As usual in the tradition of the epigrams reported in the Certamen, each of its extant sources presents the text with variant readings, but the case of this epigram is particularly interesting: some of the sources present it in a shorter form and some invert the order of the verses. Variants probably reflect
oral circulation of the epigram (Gutzwiller 2010: 243). Some of these variations are significant: Livingstone and Nisbet 2010: 43 argue that the reason why Plato omits two lines (267-8) is that this is necessary for Socrates to make his point about the structure of this text (see below); similarly, it can be argued that a fuller version of the text, that includes those two lines that strongly emphasise the concept expressed in the line that precedes them, contributes to making the point of the Certamen: the epigram will perpetuate Midas’ fame, but at the same time is a means by which Homer’s fame too becomes everlasting (see 271-4n.). Variants attested only in the Certamen are: ἐπὶ σήματος ἠμαι at 265; πλήθωσι and περικλύζῃ at 267; φαίνῃ at 268; σημανέω at 270. Omissions and reversal of the order of the verses concern mainly lines 267 and 268: Plato, Favorinus, Dio Chrysostomus and the Anthologia Palatina transmit only four verses and omit both lines; Philoponus and the Anthologia Planudea omit only 267. The Vita Herodotea and Diogenes Laertius invert the order of the two verses. Indeed the possibility of reversing the order of the verses was considered in antiquity as a peculiar characteristic of this epigram and Plato mentions it precisely because of its structure. In Phdr. 264b he criticises this epigram on the ground that ‘it makes no difference whether any line of it is put first or last’ (οὐδὲν διαφέρει αὐτοῦ πρῶτον ἢ ὑστατόν τι λέγεσθαι), because the speech lacks organisation and a fixed structure. The Neoplatonist Hermias, commenting on this Platonic passage, claims that these epigrams are called ‘triangular, because it is possible to start from whatever verse one wishes’ (In Phdr. 231 Couvreur: τινὲς τὰ τοιαῦτα ἐπιγράμματα τρίγωνα καλοῦσιν, ἐπειδὴ ὅθεν ἄν ἐθέλης δύνασαι ἄφλασθαι). Philoponus (In APo. 156) calls this structure τὸ σχῆμα κύκλος. Ancient readers therefore were aware of the fact that fluidity was the main peculiarity of this epigram, which makes it futile to try and identify a possible original version of the text (contra e.g. Weber 1917, who suggests that lines 267 and 268 are a later addition to the original text that included only the first and the last three verses; Raubitschek 1968: 14 tried to determine the original order
of the verses by reconstructing their position on the monument). The attribution of the Midas’ epigram to Homer was not unanimously accepted in antiquity. Only Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. and the Anthologia Planudea attribute it to him. Plato is not explicit: he either does not know or rejects Homeric attribution (Beecroft 2010: 71 n. 18). The poet who shared the attribution of this epigram with Homer was Cleobulus of Lindos, one of the Seven Sages. The Anthologia Palatina testifies to this double attribution with the lemma ΟΜΗΡΟΥ οἱ δὲ ΚΛΕΟΒΥΛΟΥ ΤΟΛ ΛΙΝΔΙΟΥ. Diogenes Laertius attributes it to Cleobulus on the basis of a passage from Simonides, where the poet criticises a passage by Cleobulus that compares some natural elements to a stone, and because of the difficulties of making Homer and Midas contemporaries. For modern discussion on the relationship between the quotation from Simonides and the Midas’ epigram see Kegel 1962: 60, De Vries 1969: 212, Ford 2002: 105-9.

271-4. λαβὼν δὲ ... ὀπά οί: after composing this epigram Homer is awarded a silver cup, which he dedicates to Apollo at Delphi in the hope that the god may grant him fame. Homer’s request seems to be fulfilled when, at the end of his career (see 315-21), he composes the Hymn to Apollo, which guarantees eternal fame to the ‘blind bard from Chios’. This episode has thus been inserted in the narrative as part of the overall reversal of the final verdict of the contest in favour of Homer and to reinforce his relationship with Apollo. This particular episode follows naturally after the epigram for Midas, since both episodes are concerned with fame and Midas too is connected to Apollo and Delphi (Hdt. 1.14).

275-6. μετὰ δὲ ταύτα ... ἐπών μεφ: Homer composes his major works, the Iliad and the Odyssey, at a late stage in his career. The text specifies that Homer composes the Odyssey when he has already composed the Iliad (πεποιηκὼς ἡδη τὴν Ἰλιάδα), and thus takes part in the lively ancient debate concerning which of the two poems was composed first (see e.g. Lucian VH 2.20 – discussed in the Introduction, pp. 35-8 – and Seneca, De Brevitate Vitae 13.2, On Sublime 9.12-13).
The claim of the priority of the *Iliad* allows for a correspondence between the order of the composition of the poems and that of the events they narrate: Homer first sings the Theban saga (255-9), then the Trojan war and finishes with Odysseus’ return home. Colbeau 2005: 260 suggests that Homer is said to have composed the *Iliad* before the *Odyssey* because it was considered the most important of the two poems. But the *Certamen* seems to present the two works as equally important and rather sets up a contrast between these two works and the other Homeric epics. The composition of *Iliad* and *Odyssey* is not linked to any specific place, but is rather mentioned in between Homer’s visits to Delphi and Athens: the text may be remaining purposefully vague on the matter, or making the poems gravitate towards Athens where Homer is directed. In the agonistic section, Homer already recited verses from the *Odyssey* (9.6-11 at 84-9) and the *Iliad* (13.126-33 + 13.339-44 at ll. 191-204), but their provenance was not stated. This seeming inconsistency suits narrative needs: each sequence of Homeric verses was an appropriate response to a specific challenge, while the composition of *Iliad* and *Odyssey* fits this particular point of the narrative. West 1967: 447 notes that the mention of the composition of *Iliad* and *Odyssey* is odd and if Alcidamas had included it in his narrative ‘he would surely have done it less awkwardly’. He concludes that this section of our text cannot derive from Alcidamas’ narrative. It is hard to believe that Alcidamas did not mention the composition of Homer’s two major poems in the *Mouseion*, but admittedly it is not possible to know whether he did so in the same point of the narrative as in our *Certamen*, and how much he was concerned with the internal consistency of the narrative framework. The problem, in any case, hardly seems pronounced: Homer may have composed some extemporeous verses which he then included in his major poems. The text gives the length of the two poems in line numbers, as it did for the *Thebaid* and the *Epigoni* (256, 258). In this case too the manuscript readings seem problematic, as is often the case with the transmission of numbers. According to L the *Odyssey* would be 12,500 lines long.
(μβφ) and the Iliad 15,000 (με). Nietzsche emended the readings on the basis of the number of lines in the current versions of the two poems: 12,109 for the Odyssey and 15,693 for the Iliad. The copyist (or his source) may have easily written the symbol for 500 (φ) in the wrong place, attaching it to the Odyssey rather than to the Iliad.

276-85. παραγενόμενον ... Κρονίων: Homer goes from Delphi to Athens. There he is hosted by king Medon and performs an epigram in the council chamber. For the choice of performing an epigram see 277n. The fact that Homer is hosted and honoured by a king works as a reversal of and a compensation for the unfavourable judgement on Homer’s poetry by another king, Panoides. Although Athens is here said to be ruled by a monarch, there are also hints in the text that prefigure the democratic constitution of the city: king Medon (who was himself seen in some of the sources as a figure of transition between monarchy and another form of government, the perpetual archonship – see 277-8n.) is in the βουλευτήριον, a building that in Athens was built at the end of the sixth c. BC to host the meetings of the βουλή (see 278n.); the epigram praises the people sitting in an assembly as a beautiful sight and, especially when compared to other versions, the text appears democratically oriented (see 281-5n.). The epigram seems to foster the image of Homer as a democratic poet, which would fit a fifth- or fourth-century BC source.

277. εἰς Αθήνας: the scarce presence of verses in praise of Athens in the Homeric poems may explain why Homer performs an epigram there – and a piece from the Iliad at Argos (288-301). That Homer in his works praised those two cities to different degrees was acknowledged already in antiquity: at Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 27, Homer composes verses for Athens and adds them to the Iliad ‘κατανοήσας δὲ ὃτι ἐς μὲν Ἀργος πολλαί καὶ μεγάλαι εἶν εὔλογια πεποιημέναι, ἐς δὲ τὰς Αθήνας οὐ’. Late sources testify that Homer was sometimes thought to be Athenian by birth (cf. e.g. Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 2.2; Suda s.v. Όμηρος 2; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.2; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.2), the most important
supporters of this view being Aristarchus and Dionysius Thrax. For Aristarchus, who seems to have based his claim on Homer’s use of the dual, see Sch. ad Il. 13.197 (on which Janko 1992: 71). For studies on the successful Athenian strategy for the appropriation of the Homeric texts, that may have involved a connection between the Peisistratids and the Homeridae to different degrees, see West 1999, Graziosi 2002: 220-7 and Nagy 2010.

277-8. παρὰ Μέδοντι τῷ βασιλεῖ τῶν Ἀθηναίων: ancient sources disagree as to whether Medon was a king or rather the first of the archons elected for life. Aristotle in his Constitution of the Athenians expresses the existing uncertainties about this issue (Arist. Ath. 3, on which see Von Fritz and Kapp 1950: 150-2 and Rhodes 1981: 66 and 100). Hellanicus (4 F 125) does not specify whether the young Medon would become king or archon. According to Pausanias, with Medon’s dynasty the political role of the members of the royal family changed (Paus. 4.5.10). By presenting him as a king, the Certamen reverses the outcome of the contest due to another king’s verdict (see also the episode of the silver cup dedicated by Homer to the Muses, which responds to Hesiod’s victory and dedication of the tripod after the contest: 260-4n.).

278. ἐν δὲ τῷ βουλευτηρίῳ: buildings known as βουλευτήρια are testified to in Greece from the late sixth century BC onwards, and the old βουλευτήριον in Athens dates back to the same period (Rhodes 1972: 18 and 30).

281-5. ἀνδρὸς ... Κρονίων: for Homer reciting an epigram rather than a piece from the Iliad or the Odyssey see 277n. This epigram is transmitted by two other sources, the Vita Herodotea and the Suda. As the Suda transmits it in the section derived from the Vita Herodotea, it gives the text in almost the same form (for the few minor differences see apparatus). The differences from the version of the Certamen are much greater: the epigram is recited in different contexts, and there are substantial differences in the form of the epigram itself. In the Certamen Homer recites it at Athens before king Medon, in order to praise the fire burning in the council chamber. In the Vita Herodotea Homer recites it at
Samos on his way to Athens. In the Ps.-Herodotean version of the episode the verses are said to be pronounced either because a fire was burning in the room, as in the *Certamen*, or in order to encourage the clansmen to light one. The version of the epigram performed here has been seen as fitting the Athenian democratic regime. The version transmitted in the *Vita Herodotea* and in Suda has the verses χρήματα δ’ αὐξεῖ οἶκον· ἀτάρ γεφαροὶ βασιλῆς / ἕμενοι εἰν ἀγορῇ κόσμος τ’ ἀλλοισιν ὀρᾶσθαι (‘property enhances the house, and proud kings / as they sit in the gathering are a fine sight for the others’). For a study of these verses see Markwald 1986: 210-13 and Colbeau 2005: 261-2. The *Certamen* reads λαὸς δ’ εἰν ἀγορῇ καθήμενος εἰσοφάσσθαι (283). West 2003: 347 n. 16 notes that the line in the *Certamen* is a democratic adaptation of the two lines in the version of the Ps.-Herodotus. See more recently Beecroft 2010: 70 n. 16 and 88, who rightly notes that the two versions suited the two different political regimes of the cities where the epigram was recited, the Samian oligarchy and the Athenian democracy. See also Markwald 1986: 214, who suggests that the Athenian version is more recent.

285. ἕματι ... Κρονίων: this is the only occurrence of this verse; it is not included in the *Vita Herodotea*. This verse suits the context in the *Certamen*, where the epigram is explicitly said to be recited when the weather is cold (278-9: ψύχους ὄντος). The *Vita Herodotea* does not emphasise this point.

286-7: ἐκείθεν δὲ παραγενόμενος εἰς Κόρινθον ἔφρασσετε τὰ ποιήματα. τιμηθεὶς δὲ μεγάλῳς: Homer’s visit to Corinth is ‘uneventful’ (West: 447 n. 3). There is no mention of the piece of poetry Homer recites or of the people he meets, but we are told that he is greatly honoured after his performance (287). Thus, despite the lack of details, this visit contributes further to the construction of a Panhellenic Homer, who travels extensively and is honoured across different cities. Nagy 2010: 53 suggests, based on the use of the verb τιμάω here (287), that this anecdote shows that Homer was honoured as a local cult hero in
Corinth and that anecdotes such as these were an aetiology that explained the reality of seasonally recurring Homeric performances at a given festival. There is no corroborating evidence for a cult of Homer or for such festivals in Corinth, but the presence of Corinth among the cities Homer visits indicates that it too may have claimed some connection with the poet. Corinth features in some passages of the Iliad, and this may have facilitated or inspired its mention here: the first mention of Corinth is in the Catalogue of Ships (2.570) where it is favourably defined as prosperous (ἀφιεῖόν τε Κόρινθον). These verses may be suitable for a performance by Homer in Corinth: the verses he performs in Argos are from the Catalogue of Ships too, and in general that section of the Iliad offers suitable material for local performances: see further 289-301n. The second mention of Corinth in the Iliad is at 13.664, where the poet tells the story of the Corinthian Euchenor (defined, like the city itself, as ἀφιεῖος). West 1967: 447 n. 3 connects Homer’s visit to Corinth to the mention of Ἐφύρη in Iliad II. 6.152 and 6.210 (Glaucus’ speech): on the basis of a claim by Aristarchus, according to whom Homer refers to Corinth by the name Ἐφύρη in the character speeches, but by the more recent name Κόρινθος when he speaks in his own voice (Sch. ad Iliad II. 6.152), West concludes that Homer ‘is made to visit Corinth, in this account, simply to make sure that he is acquainted with the place’. But the actual identification of Ephyre with Corinth in this Iliadic passage is still debated: see for discussion Kirk 1990: 177 and Graziosi and Haubold 2010: 119.

286. ἐρραψώδει: for the use of this verb in the Certamen see 56n.

287-8. παραγίνεται εἰς Ἀργος καὶ λέγει ἐκ τῆς Ἰλιάδος τὰ ἔπη τάδε: unlike Athens (277n.), Argos plays a major role in the Iliad, which may have inspired Homer’s visit to this city and his choice to perform a passage from the Iliad. Argos’ predominance in Homeric epics was acknowledged already in antiquity. Herodotus (5.67.1) informs that Clisthenes, the tyrant of Sicyon, banned the performance of Homeric epics from his city because of their excessive praise of Argos, against which Sicyon had just engaged in a war. Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 27
compares the attention devoted in the Homeric poems to Athens and to Argos.

289-301. οἱ δ’ Ἀργος ... πτολέμοιο: this is the passage on Argos from the Catalogue of Ships (ll. 2.559-68), an appropriate choice for Homer to perform in the different places he travels, because each community is represented in the Catalogue and will cherish ‘its’ lines. The efficacy of the verses from the Catalogue is shown in the Vita Herodotea too (27-8), where Homer inserts in the Catalogue verses for Athens before going there. Moreover, sections from the Catalogue may be easily detached from their original context and be recited on their own; they also lend themselves to the omission or insertion of verses. For the suggestion that Homer may have recited a passage from this Catalogue at Corinth too, see 286-7n. As usual, the quotation in the Certamen presents some variant readings compared to the text as we have it in the Iliad (see below for discussion). The Certamen also transmits three verses that are not present in the Iliadic manuscripts (lines 294, 300, 301). Even though we do not know their provenance, they are recognisably constructed by using elements well attested in the hexameter tradition. One of them (301) is also known from another source (AP 14.73.6).

292. νῆσον τ’ Ἀἰγίναν Μάσητά τε κούροι Ἀχαιῶν: the Homeric text (ll. 2.562) reads οἱ τ’ ἔχον Αἰγίναν and S records this reading in the margin of the line. The verse as transmitted in the Certamen is also in Hes. fr. 204.47 M.-W. Strabo (8.6.10) informs us that the two readings coexisted and were used to distinguish between two different places with the same name:: Αἰγίνα δ’ ἔστι μὲν καὶ τόπος τις τῆς Ἑπιδαυρίας, ἐστι δὲ καὶ νῆσος πρὸ τῆς ἤπειρου ταύτης, ἢν ἐν τοῖς ἀρτίως παρατεθέντῳ ἐπεσε βούλεται φράζειν ὁ ποιητής: διὸ καὶ γράφοντο τινες νῆσον τ’ Ἀἰγίναν’ ἀντὶ τοῦ ‘οἱ τ’ ἔχον Αἰγίναν,’ διαστελλόμενοι τὴν ὁμονυμίαν. Aegina mentioned here is the island; hence the variant is not out of place. The manuscript reading Αἰγίναν τε Μάσητά needs to be emended by deleting τε, for metrical reasons.

294. Τυδείδης οὐ πατρὸς ἔχων μένος Οἰνείδαιο: this verse is not transmitted
in the Homeric manuscripts but draws fully on Homeric hexameters. Τυδείδης appears at the beginning of the line at e.g. II. 5.18; οὐ πατρός in the same metrical position at Od. 7.3 and ἕχων μένος at II. 12.96; Οἰνείδαο closes the verse at II. 5.813. As already suggested (Colbeau 2005: 265), this hexameter may have been inserted here to give a piece of information about Diomedes (the fact that he is the son of Tydeus) which is very common in the Iliad, but not present in this specific passage. More generally, the fact that this verse did not make it into the vulgata of the Iliad may be due to the difficult position of Tydeus as a role model for his son Diomedes in the Iliad (on which see Graziosi and Haubold 2010: 38 and 140).

296. Εὐρύπυλος: in the Iliad the character mentioned in this passage (2.565) is Εὐρύαλος, an Argive hero mentioned in two other episodes: his aristeia at 6.20-8, and his competition on the occasion of the funerary games for Patroclus at 23.677-99. Eurypylus is an Iliadic character too (e.g. 2.734-7: he was the leader of forty ships), but his presence here is slightly problematic. Kirk 1985: 234-5 discusses the realm of Eurypylus as presented in the Catalogue of Ships and remarks that its borders are quite vague. He is not explicitly said to be Argive, and another source (Apollod. 3.131) claims he was Thessalian. Moreover, it is in fact Euryalus who is the son of Mecisteus (see 297), while Eurypylus is the son of Euemon (II. 11.575-6). Furthermore, as Kirk notes, Eurypylus appears at several points in the poem and seems to be a well-known figure in the epic tradition: this would justify the confusion between these two names. Wilamowitz consequently emends the name given in the Certamen with that transmitted in the Iliadic manuscripts, but he is alone in doing so.

297. Μηκιστέως: in the Iliadic manuscripts many variant readings are attested for the genitive form of this name, and Μηκιστέως, which is what L transmits, is one of those. It does not seem problematic and it is also the reading that Van Thiel accepts in his edition of the Iliad in this verse. There is no reason to emend it in Μηκιστέος (Rzach, see apparatus). West publishes Μηκιστής in the text.
of the *Iliad* and keeps Μηκιστέως in the text of the *Certamen*. For discussion of the genitive forms listed above, see Kirk 1985: 211 and Janko 1992: 264.

298. ἐκ πάντων: this verse, as transmitted in at *Iliad* 2.567, begins with the word συμπάντων. This word is found in the same metrical position also at II. 1.90. But ἐκ πάντων too is used at the beginning of Homeric hexameters: cf. II. 4.96 and *Od.* 2.433.

300-1. Like 294, these two verses are not present in our version of the *Iliad*. But whatever their origins are, they fit well this encomiastic context for Argos. While 300 is attested nowhere else, 301 is transmitted also in *AP* 14.73.6. In this epigram the Pythia, responding to a Megarian enquiry, claims that the Argives are the best warriors and uses this very same verse to characterise them (vv. 4-6: ἄλλ' ἐτι καὶ τῶν εἰσιν ἀμείνονες, οἳ τὸ μεσημ' / Τύρυνθος ναίουσι καὶ Ἀρκαδίης πολυμήλου, / Ἀργείων λινοθώρηκες, κέντρα πτολέμοιο). ἐν δ' ἄνδρες is at the beginning of the hexameter in the verse ἐν δ' ἄνδρες ναίουσι πολυρρήιηντες πολυβοῦται which occurs at II. 9.153 and 9.295; ἄνδρες is in the same metrical position at II. 10.525 (ὁσσ' ἄνδρες), 21.405 (τὸν ὑ' ἄνδρες), *Od.* 9.126 (οὐδ' ἄνδρες). πολέμου is in the same metrical position at e.g. II. 3.150: γῆραϊ δὴ πολέμου; δαήμονες at *Od.* 8.263. ἐστιχόωντο occurs nine times in the *Iliad*, eight of which at verse end, as here (e.g. II. 2.92). λινοθώρηκες: only the singular form λινοθώρηξ occurs in Homer, at II. 2.529 (Aias the lesser) and 2.830 (Araphius), both times at verse end. At least in the case of Aias, the linen corslet is not characterised positively (see Kirk 1985: 202). κέντρα πτολέμοιο is found only in the occurrences of this verse (*Certamen*, *AP* and quotations from *AP*).

302-8. τῶν δὲ Ἀργείων ... εἰς Χιόν ἀποστέλλειν: these are the highest honours Homer has been awarded so far: an actual cult, while the poet himself is still alive. This happens after a performance of a passage from the *Iliad*, as it is the highest achievement of Homer’s poetic production at this point in the narrative. The honours he receives on this occasion are presented in climactic
order too, and with an effect of accumulation (gifts, statue, and daily, monthly, yearly and quadrennial sacrifices). This episode seems to mark a turning point for Homer, for some elements in the text point to his achievement of lasting fame, granted by the statue and the epigram inscribed on it (compare this to Homer’s epigram for Midas’ funeral monument and its emphasis on the perpetuation of fame: 271-4n.) and to his divine nature (he is offered periodic sacrifices thereafter, and is called θείος in the epigram). Another interesting mention of a cult of Homer at Argos is a passage from Aelian that seems to confirm that the honours the Argives paid to Homer were in fact divine, as the poet is invoked together with Apollo (Ael. VH 9.15). Archaeological and literary evidence shows that Homer was an object of cult, which may have included the offer of sacrifices too, in several other cities: for surveys of available tesimonia see Pinkwart 1965: 169-73, Brink 1972, and Clay 2004: 74-6 and 136-43.

304-5. αὐτὸν μὲν πολυτελέσι δώρεαις ἐτίμησαν: Homer has received and dedicated a silver cup (271-4) and has been honoured by a king (276); by making him receive ‘costly gifts’, which parallel the gifts offered by the organisers of the poetic contest that Homer lost (66-7), the compensation for the outcome of the competition seems complete.

305. εἰκόνα δὲ χαλκὴν ἀναστήσαντες: with this statue, Homer’s fame is given material and lasting support. For another mention of a statue of the poet in his biographies see Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 1.4: that statue is in Colophon and an epigram was inscribed on it too. See West 2003: 411 n. 34 for discussion of that monument. For dedication of statues of poets, and especially those of Homer, see Clay 2004: 89-92. For surveys and discussion of ancient portrayals of Homer see Boehringer 1939, Mansuelli 1963, Richter 1965, and Schefold 1997.

305-8: ἐψηφίσαντο θυσίαν ... ἀποστέλλειν: the number of sacrifices offered to Homer (every day, month, year and four years) seems hyperbolic, but this surely mirrors the fact that the Argives were ύπερβολὴ χαρέντες (302).

307-8. θυσίαν πενταετηρίδα εἰς Χίον ἀποστέλλειν: it is not possible to know
whether Argos (or indeed any other city) ever sent such sacrifices to Chios to honour Homer; Nagy 2010: 81 assumes on the basis of Pl. Ti. 26e that θυσία means not only ‘sacrifice’ but also, metonymically, ‘festival’, and more specifically a Panhellenic festival; he therefore suggests that this passage hints to a quadrennial festival in Chios during which Homeric poetry was performed, and sees it as a prototype of the Great Panathenaia in Athens – but it is also possible, of course, that this passage is itself modelled on the Great Panathenaea. The fact that the Argives send sacrifices to Chios seems to suggest that they saw Chios as the poet’s birthplace: in fact this connection seems to have been made already in the sixth-fifth c. BC by another Argive, Acusilaus, who reports that the descendants of Homer, the Homeridae, are from Chios (2 F 2). Nevertheless, there was also a tradition according to which Homer was born in Argos (Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 2.2; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.1; Anon. Vit. Hom 1.1, which mentions Philocorus as a source, see 328 F 209), but the Certamen does not acknowledge it.

307. <καὶ> ἄλλην θυσίαν: the syntax of this sentence does not flow smoothly in the manuscript text, and the insertion of καὶ (Westermann) is the easiest way to solve this problem; καὶ may well have been in L’s antigraph and fallen because of an haplography (note the repetition of καὶ throughout the sentence).

309-14. θείος Ὄμηρος ... ἀμφέπει ἀθανάτων: the epigram confirms the image of Homer that is emerging from the rest of the text. The formula θείος Ὄμηρος, emphatically placed at the beginning of the epigram, underlines the poet’s divine nature, which is also stressed at the very end of the epigram by τιμᾶς ἀμφέπει ἀθανάτων; Ἑλλάδα [...] πάσαν ἐκόσμησεν and ἔξοχα δ’ Ἀργείους underline Homer’s ability to appeal to a Panhellenic poet, that emerged ever since the contest, and at the same time to each community he visited thereafter. Some features of this epigram are found in other epigrams on Homer too. For θείος Ὄμηρος see 1-2n.; ἐκόσμησεν recalls the epithet κοσμήτωρ given to him in his funerary epigram at 348; for Ἑλλάδα [...] πάσαν
cf. AP 7.7.1 (Ἐνθάδε θείος ᾽Ομήρος, ὡς Ἑλλάδα πάσαν ἂεισε) and Ps.-Plu. Vit. Hom. 1.4 (... σὺ γὰρ κλέος Ἑλλάδι πάση ... θήκας ἐς ἀίδιον).

309-12: these lines are preserved in P.Duk. inv. 665, seventh century AD. See pp. 86-9. Note especially the variants θεοτειχέα in the manuscript and ἐριαυχέα in the papyrus, line 4.

310. καλλιεπεῖ σοφίη: despite losing the contest on the ground that his verses did not have ethical value, Homer confirms here his reputation for wisdom, as well as for verbal art. The manuscript reading καλλιεπίηι σοφίη τε (‘with beautiful language and wisdom’, where καλλιεπίηι is a form for καλλιεπεία) does not allow the pentameter to scan. The correction καλλιεπεῖ σοφίη (‘with wisdom elegant in diction’) was proposed by S in the margin and has been unanimously accepted. P.Duk. inv. 665 l. 2 reads καλλιεπεῖ and Lapini (apud Menci 2012: 46) suggests that this confirms the circulation of the manuscript’s mistaken reading; Menci thinks it more likely to be a iotacism.

313. μεγαλόπτολις: the reading of L μεγαλόπολις needs a correction for metrical reasons and μεγαλόπτολις (S above the line) is a satisfying emendation. But, interestingly, this form is attested nowhere else; furthermore, μεγαλόπολις is never attested for Argos: it is attested for Athens (Pind. Pyht. 7.1) and Troy (Eur. Tr. 1291): see Colbeau 2005: 268.

315-21. ἐνδιατρίψας δὲ τῇ πόλει ... ἐν τῷ τῆς Ἀρτέμιδος ἱερῷ: Homer’s last poetic performance, the Hymn to Apollo in Delos, is the peak of his career. Through this episode Homer achieves what he has been seeking throughout his lifetime: a privileged relationship with the gods, lasting fame, and universal acknowledgement of his poetic skills. The episode is best read together with Homer’s visit to Delphi to dedicate a silver cup to Apollo and subsequent request for future fame (271-4n.), and represents the fulfilment of the poet’s wish. The durability of his fame is also guaranteed by the inscription of the Hymn on a tablet (see 320n.). This episode celebrates Homer as the Panhellenic poet: in the other episodes Homer was always praised and celebrated by each
community he visited, but the celebration remained mostly on a local level. Here, for the first time, Homer performs in a Panhonian context (316n.), and his success on this occasion results in the attribution to him of the title of ‘common citizen’ of all the Ionians (κοινὸς πολίτης, 319-20n.). The process of Panhellenisation of Homer is historically connected to the image of the blind bard from Chios presented in the Hymn to Apollo, as it is the one accepted and promoted by the Athenians and thus became predominant. The Certamen makes this connection too and therefore shows to be influenced by this tradition and to engage with it. Although an explicit claim of Homer’s Chian origin is always avoided in the Certamen, as it would contradict the very opening of the work (esp. 7-8), the text seems to gravitate towards the Chian tradition as Homer assumes the role of the Panhellenic poet: see also 302-8, where the Argives are said to send sacrifices to Chios to honour the poet.

315. διέπλευσεν εἰς Δῆλον: this is the only account of Homer’s visit to Delos in his biographies. The tradition of Homer reciting the Hymn to Apollo in Delos is nevertheless old: (Thuc. 3.104.3, and see Introduction on Hesiod, esp. pp. 14-18). This tradition has certainly influenced the shaping of this episode of the Certamen. On the relationships between the composition of the Hymn to Apollo and the Delian festival, see Förstel 1979: 71-84, Miller 1985: 145 and Clay 1989: 47. An inscription testifies to the existence of a Homereion in Delos (ID 443, Bb 147) but the function and shape of this building are not clear. In his commentary on the mentioned inscription Durrbach 1929: 190 points out that the building may have been devoted to a cult of Homer. See also Bruneau 1970: 455 and Farnoux 2002: 101 for discussion.

316. πανήγυρις: the occasion of the performance is a πανήγυριζεις, a general meeting, of the Ionians. This word never appears to be used to describe a general meeting in archaic and classical times; it was instead used from the Hellenistic age onwards for other festivals (Bruneau 1970: 532). This word, together with the expression κοινὸς πολίτης (see 319n.) may be therefore a
trace of the times of composition of our text. Although the word used to
designate the meeting may be late, the setting of Homer’s proto-performance of
the *Hymn to Apollo* in a Panionian festival in Delos is traditional and goes back
to the fifth century BC (see 315-21n.).

Τὸν κεράτινον βωμὸν: this is the altar of horns, one of the major cult objects in
Delos. For archaeological studies and collection of literary and epigraphic
evidence, see Bruneau 1970 and Bruneau and Fraisse 2002. This altar was the
setting of sacrifices to Apollo and it was said to have been built by the god
himself by fastening together several horns of goats (Call. *Ap.* 60-4; the Delian
altar mentioned in Call. *Del.* 312 too is to be identified with the altar of horns:
see Mineur 1984: 242). Plutarch informs us that the altar was reckoned to be one
of the seven wonders of the ancient world (*The Cleverness of Animals* 983e) and
that Theseus performed a dance called Crane around it (*Thes.* 21). No other
source claims that the altar of horns was the setting of a performance of the
*Hymn to Apollo*, but there is no reason to exclude that the text or its sources
knew that the *Hymn* was actually performed there. In any case, because of its
function, this monument works well as the site of the performance through
which Homer seals his relationship with Apollo: the poet offers his hymn on the
altar as if it was a sacrifice to the god, and Apollo will grant fame in exchange.

317. λέγει ὑμνον εἰς Ἀπόλλωνα: the *Hymn to Apollo* was attributed to Homer
as early as Thucydides (3.104), and perhaps by Aristophanes too (see
Richardson 2010: 98 for discussion of the reference to the *Hymn* as a Homeric
work in Aristophanes’ *Birds* 575). For a list of later authors who attributed the
*Hymn* to Homer see Allen 1936: lxvii-lxxviii). But a scholium to Pindar’s *Nemean*
2 attributes it to Cynaethus, who probably performed the *Hymn* during the
festival organised by Polycrates in Delos in 524-3 BC: on Cynaethus see Förstel
11, Aloni 1989. The Homeric authorship of this text was mostly accepted and
the *Certamen* does not need to mitigate this claim (contrast the case of the
Epigoni, at 260) or to support it with evidence (cf. the case of the Margites, at 15-17).

318. Μνήσομαι οὐδὲ λάθωμαι Ἀπόλλωνος ἐκάτοιο: as in the case of Thebais and Epigoni (255-8), the Certamen quotes the first verse of the work. The quotation is in this case especially appropriate to the context for its emphasis on the theme of memory.

319-20. οἶ μὲν Ἰωνες πολῖτην αὐτὸν κοινὸν ... ἐποίησαντο: Homer is made ‘common citizen of the Ionians’: the text had anticipated this outcome already during the contest, when Homer repeatedly got the approval of ‘all the Greeks’. The title of ‘common citizen’ is not attested in confederations in the archaic, classical and Hellenistic ages; it may derive from Roman imperial institutions (Farnoux 2002: 102, with n. 30 for further bibliography). The author of the Certamen has either inserted this anecdote in a narrative that originally did not contain it, or updated its language.

320. Δήλιοι δὲ γράψαντες τὰ ἐπη εἰς λεύκωμα: writing is used in the text for the inscriptions on funeral monuments, statues, tripods and cups (213-14, 250-3, 265-70, 273-4, 309-14, 337-8) but the Hymn to Apollo is the only literary work to be transcribed in the narrative of the Certamen. This use of writing emphasises its importance as a means to perpetuate fame. While in other biographical narratives the act of transcription is not depicted positively, in the Certamen it legitimates the text and the Homeric authorship of it: see Beecroft 2010: 94. It is remarkable that the only literary work said to be inscribed is by Homer; transcription of Hesiod’s Works and Days, which other sources do mention (Paus. 9.31.4), here does not feature. It is unclear whether this transcription (but also the performance) involved only the so called Delian part of the Hymn or the whole of it (cf. West 2003: 9) and there is no evidence that such transcription and dedication in Delos ever took place. However, as remarked already by Allen 1936: lxxv there is no reason to doubt that the story may have some historical basis. It is relevant that the text uses the word λεύκωμα (a wooden
table covered with gypsum), which was indeed used in the island to release information to the public and to make offerings (Farnoux 2002: 102). Richardson 2010: 13 also suggests that the inscription of the *Hymn* might date from a relatively early period, as the sources used by the *Certamen* may date as far back as the sixth century (as he himself suggested in Richardson 1981). See also Clay 1989: 87-9 and 1997: 501, Förstel 1979: 92-101, Graziosi 2002: 120-1.

320-1. ἀνέθηκαν ἐν τῷ τῆς Ἀρτέμιδος ἱερῷ: Artemis’ temple was older than Apollo’s and this may explain the claim that the λεύκωμα was dedicated to her temple, rather than to Apollo’s; see Janko 1982: 257. Farnoux 2002 remarks that the exchanges of offerings between divinities were frequent at Delos: what is described here may also be one of such cases.

321-3. τῆς δὲ πανηγύρεως λυθείσης ... πρεσβύτης ὄν ἤδη: Homer goes to Ios and is hosted by Creophylus. Other sources too mention Creophylus as Homer’s host, and claim that Homer gave him the poem *Oechaliae Halosis* in exchange (e.g. Strab. 14.1.18). In the *Certamen* no detail is given about Homer’s visit to Creophylus, and Creophylus himself remains rather faceless. But the fact that he is the last person Homer meets, and especially that the poet dies while being his guest (cf. also Procl. Vit. Hom. 5, Tz. H. 13.652-9), leaves open the possibility that the *Certamen* draws on a source where Creophylus was not depicted positively. This source may be Alcidamas: he is the source for the very next lines (Homer’s death, see 323-8n.) and moreover it seems that a meeting between Homer and Creophylus right before Homer’s death would suit Alcidamas’ time: in fifth-century Athens, Creophylus was known as someone who did not take good care of Homer in his lifetime (Pl. R. 600b6-c: οὐδ’ αὖ, ἕφι, τοιούτον οὐδὲν λέγεται. ὃ γὰρ Κρεώφυλος, ὥ Σώκρατες, ἵσως, ὁ τοῦ Ὀμήρου ἐταῖρος, τοῦ ὀνόματος ἀν γελοιότερος ἐτί πρῶς παυδεῖαν φανεῖ, εἰ τὰ λεγόμενα περὶ Ὀμήρου ἀλήθη. λέγεται γὰρ ὡς πολλῆ τις ἀμέλεια περὶ αὐτὸν ἦν ἐπὶ αὐτοῦ ἐκείνου, ὅτε ἔξη). This may also explain why here, unlike in other sources, Creophylus is said to be from Ios, the predestined place of
Homer’s death (in Schol. Pl. R. 600b: Creophylus is from Chios; according to Call. Epigr. 6 from Samos; according to Tz. H. 13.652 from Arcadia). Claims such as Plato’s and Alcidamas’ may be seen as an Athenian response to the tradition according to which Sparta was the first Greek city to receive the Homeric poems precisely through Creophylus or his descendants, the Creophylei (on which see Burkert 1972), which was in conflict with the Pisistratides’ claims (on Creophylus and the Spartan tradition, and its relationship with the Athenian one, see Graziosi 2002: 189-93 and 217-22). Although many sources give the name in the form Κρεώφυλος, the reading of Λ Κρεόφυλον does not need emendation (see apparatus). The form Κρεόφυλος too is testified in ancient sources (see e.g. Plu. Lyc. 4.4); it is transmitted also in some of the manuscripts of Proclus, and this gives some authority to the reading of L.

323. πρεσβύτης ὁν ἡδη: claiming that Homer has become old by this time serves as a justification for his failure to solve the riddle proposed by the fisher boys and confirms that a long time has passed since he lost the contest to Hesiod.

323-38. ἐπὶ δὲ τῆς θαλάσσης ... θείον Ὄμηρον: according to the biographical tradition, Homer dies after failing to solve the riddle of the fisher boys (see 327-8). The peculiarity of the Certamen’s account is that the inability to solve the riddle is not the cause of the poet’s death, but only seems to work as a terminus post quem for the realisation of the oracle. Indeed Homer dies accidentally after realising that the meeting meant that his death was approaching. The death of Homer is presented quite differently from Hesiod’s. Hesiod dies a violent death as a punishment for an alleged crime, while Homer dies accidentally. Unlike Hesiod, Homer is never said to misunderstand the oracle, he only seems to forget it. Homer accepts his destiny and even composes his own epitaph. The source for this part of the text must be Alcidamas. The most compelling evidence is P.Mich. inv. 2754 (see pp. 70-80), in which an account of the death of Homer almost identical to this is followed by Alcidamas’ name. Alcidamas in
turn uses material that predates him. The episode of the riddle of the lice was known already to Heraclitus who seems to refer to it as to a traditional anecdote (fr. 56 D.-K.: ἐξηπάτηνται, φησίν, οἱ ἀνθρώποι πρὸς τὴν γνώσιν τῶν φανερῶν παραπλησίως Ὀμήρῳ, ὁς ἐγένετο τῶν Ἑλλήνων σοφότερος πάντων. ἐκείνον τε γὰρ παιδεὶς φθείρας κατακτεῖντες ἐξηπάτησαν εἰπόντες· ὅσα εἶδομεν καὶ ἐλάβομεν, ταῦτα ἀπολείπομεν, ὅσα δὲ οὐτε εἶδομεν οὔτ’ ἐλάβομεν, ταῦτα φέρομεν). Although Heraclitus does not make an explicit connection between this episode and the poet’s death, it is likely that such a connection was established early. See also Kirk 1950: 160 n. 1, Janko 2011: 529.

323-6. ἐπὶ δὲ τῆς θαλάσσης ... ἡ υ’ ἔχομεν τι; Homer approaches the fisher boys and asks if they have caught anything. This episode is also told in other sources: Procl. Vit. Hom. 5; Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 1.4; Anon. Vita Hom. 2.3; Anon. Vita Hom. 3.5; Tz. H. 13.660; id. Exeg. in Il. 37.22. In Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 36 it is the boys who approach Homer and challenge him. The fact that Homer’s opponents are παῖδες has been seen as a response to the assumed mental inferiority of the young men to their elders in the Homeric poems (Levine 2002: 147-50) and, more generally, the ‘learned man surpassed by the ignorant’ is a traditional feature of several folk-stories (Thompson 1957, 5: 13-14, Levine 2002: 144 n.12). The verse uttered by Homer is transmitted in several sources: see apparatus. Ps.-Plu. reports the question in prose and Tzetzes in H. 13.660 in a different metre. The reason why Homer addresses the boys as ‘men from Arcadia’ seems to remain obscure (see also Kivilo 2010b: 93 n. 65), as it is the presence of the variant ἁλιήτορες for θηρίτορες in some versions of the verse (see apparatus). Generally, it must be relevant that Arcadia is land-locked, and people from there cannot be fishers, but hunters. This was surely felt as problematic already in late antiquity, as Tzetzes in both of his accounts of the episode seems to try and harmonise the tradition by making Ios a place in Arcadia.

327-8. εἰπόντων δὲ ἐκείνων ... φερόμεσθα: the text of the riddle is
transmitted in all the Homeric biographies, with some minor variations (see apparatus). The text of the riddle is also partly visible on the wall of the so-called Casa degli Epigrammi in Pompei, as a caption for a fresco that represents two boys proposing the riddle to Homer: see Gigante 1979: 50-3 and most recently Bergmann 2007: 71-6. As Hess 1960: 34 points out, a death following a riddle is a traditional motif: the most famous example are the stories of Chalcas and Mopsus (in Strab. 14.1.27) and of Oedipus and the Sphinx. The riddle itself is shaped according to a model (contradiction) found in other cultures too: De Vries 1928: 132, Thompson 1957: 427. Scholars have tried to unfold possible hidden meanings of the riddle. A key word is ἐλομεν, which can be translated as ‘grasped’, ‘understood’: Bergmann 2007: 75-6 suggests that the real solution of the riddle is the riddle itself, which brings about the fulfilment of the oracle: what the boys could not grasp is the riddle, which they are carrying with themselves and taking to Homer, whose destiny is thereby accomplished; Kahane 2005: 20-2 suggests that what has not been grasped, the unknown, is death, which is also signified by the very solution of the riddle, the lice (‘phtheires bring about the disintegration of the flesh’) – but for Homer death represents the start of the tradition, his ‘immortality’.

329-32. οὐ νοήσας τὸ λεχθὲν ... ἐν τοῖς ιματίοις φέρειν: without hesitation Homer asks for the solution of the riddle: he does not feel his reputation for wisdom to be in danger, and in fact here Homer seems to be more unconcerned with solving the riddle than in any other version of the episode. The solution is given by the fisher boys also in Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 37; in other cases the solution is given by the text (Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 1.4; Procl. Vit. Hom. 5; Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.5) or is not given at all, which probably means that it was very widely known (Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.6; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.3).

332-3. ἀναμνήσθεις δὲ τοῦ μαντείου ... αὐτοῦ ἐπίγραμμα: unlike Hesiod, Homer never misunderstood the oracle predicting his death. When he received it, at a young age before the contest, he carefully avoided Ios (61-2); when, as an
old man, Homer eventually goes there and realises that the prophecy has been fulfilled, he accepts his destiny and writes his funeral epigram – which is, as Kahane 2005: 5 puts it, ‘a symbolic form of suicide’. The view that the epigram was composed by Homer himself is shared also by Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.5. Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 37 seems to respond to this tradition when the text specifies that the epigram was composed by the Ietans, and not, as some say, by Homer (καὶ τὸ ἐλεγεῖον τὸδε ἐπέγραψαν Ἰηταὶ ὑστερον χρόνῳ πολλῷ ... οὐδὲ Ὁμήρου ἐστίν). Other sources too attribute it to the Ietans (Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 1.4), others report it anonymously (Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.6; Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.3). Hesiod’s epitaph, though uttered in the first person (250-3), was never attributed to the poet himself.

334-5. ἀναχωρῶν δὲ ἐκεῖθεν ... ὡς φασὶ τελευτᾷ: unlike other texts, the Certamen seems to enact strategies to avoid a direct connection between Homer’s inability to solve the riddle and his death, so as not to call into question Homer’s wisdom. According to Ps.-Plut. Vit. Hom. 1.4 Homer dies because, ‘unable to work this out, he became distraught and died’ (ὁπερ οὐ δυνηθεὶς συμβαλεῖν Ὁμηρος διὰ τὴν ἀθυμίαν ἐτελεύτησε); in Anon. Vit. Hom. 1.6 he ‘found himself helpless’ because he was unable to solve the riddle (ἀμηχανία περιπεσόντα, ἐπειδήπερ τῶν παίδων τῶν ἁλιέων οὐχ οίος τε ἐγένετο αἰνίγμα λύσαι); in Anon. Vit. Hom. 2.3 he ‘starved himself to death in chagrin at not solving the problem’ (διὰ λύπην ἀποκαρτερησάντα τελευτήσαι διὰ τὸ μὴ λύσαι τὸ ζήτημα); in Anon. Vit. Hom. 3.5 ‘not understanding the utterance, he died from depression’ (οὐ νοήσας δὲ τὸ λεγόμενον ἀπὸ θλίψεως ἐτελεύτησεν). That detaching Homer’s failure in solving the riddle from his death is a way to save Homer’s reputation is also confirmed by Ps.-Hdt. Vit. Hom. 36: after claiming that Homer died of illness, this text adds ‘not from his failure to interpret the boys’ saying, as some suppose, but from his indisposition’ (ἐκ δὲ τῆς ἀσθενείας ταύτης συνέβη τὸν Ὁμήρου τελευτήσαι ἐν Ἰῳ, οὐ παρὰ τὸ μὴ γνώναι τὸ παρὰ τῶν παίδων ὄψιν, ὡς οἴονται τινες,
ἀλλὰ τῇ μαλακίῃ). An account similar to that of the *Certamen* is told by Procl. Vit. *Hom.* 5 and Tz. *H.* 13.664-5; but both Proclus and Tzetzes mix it with the more widespread tradition according to which the poet dies because he cannot solve the riddle (Proclus: οὕτω δ’ ἐκείνον ἀθυμήσαντα σύννοιν ἀπιέναι, τοῦ χρησμοῦ ἐννοιαν λαμβάνοντα, καὶ οὔτως ἠλισθόντα περιπταίσαι λίθῳ, καὶ τριταῖον τελευτήσαι. Tzetzes: ὑπέστρεψε λυπούμενος ὡς μὴ νοήσας τούτο. / πηλοῦ δ’ ὄντος ἠλίσθησε καὶ κεκροκύνως εἰς πέτραν / κλάται πλευράν τὴν δεξιὰν καὶ τελευτά τριταῖος).

335. καὶ ἐτάφη ἐν Ἰώ: while Homer’s birthplace was a disputed matter, the place of his death and burial is universally identified in Ios. Along with Homer’s biographies, the tradition of Homer’s tomb on Ios is testified also by Pausanias (10.24.2) and Strabo (10.5.1). The alleged site of Homer’s tomb is a tourist attraction even today.

336-8. ἔστι δὲ τὸ ἐπίγραμμα τόδε ... θείου Ὡμηρον: the text of Homer’s funeral epigram is transmitted by virtually all the biographies of Homer and also in anthologies of epigrams with minimal textual variations (see apparatus). Two gravestones with Homer’s epitaph have been found in Ios: *IG* 12.5.1.1 and 14; they may have been displayed in front of Homer’s tomb. A similar text has also been found in funeral inscriptions for other people: *IG* 12.5.1.678 and *IG* 14.763 l. 2. There were other funeral epigrams for Homer: see *AP* 7.1-7. In the *Certamen* the fact that it is situated at the end of the narration of Homer’s death creates a structural parallel with the episode of Hesiod’s death, closed by the epitaph of the poet (250-3). The overall effect is a final emphasis on Homer’s divinity.
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