

## CHAPTER 7

# The Life of the *Iliad*

The completion of a text is the beginning of a life that is sustained through the ages as long as there are readers to construe the meaning of the words. Readers respond to the text in different ways, and from the traces of their response one may reconstruct the life of the text. Responses take many forms. Direct comment constitutes a body of scholarship and criticism, which in the case of important texts develops a coherence and authority of its own, guiding or even prescribing appropriate questions and responses. But commentary is neither the only nor the most important form of response. Imitation, adaptation, translation and such negative responses as evasion or neglect bear equally on the life of a text and form a tradition of implicit commentary. Moreover, explicit and implicit responses interact through the ages. Vergil's reading of Homer, to give the most celebrated example, draws on a rich tradition of explicit commentary, and the *Aeneid* in turn, although not a commentary, has done more than any other text to shape the responses of readers to Homer.

No Western text boasts a life as long as the *Iliad* and few can match its energy and glory. To tell the life-story of the *Iliad* is far beyond the scope of this modest epilogue, which can only sketch in the broadest terms the stages of its life as it appears in the succession and interaction of different forms of reader response.

The most fundamental form of response is the repetition of the text; its scholarly version is the effort to establish, and guarantee the accurate transmission of, an authentic text. It is a chastening experience to pursue the text of our *Iliad* through the ages and raise the question whether we read what Homer wrote. The transmission of the Homeric text from its creation to the first printed edition (Florence, 1488) is a complicated story, but we can say with some confidence that the text we read is fundamentally identical with the text established by three generations of Alexandrian scholars in the third and second centuries BC: Zenodotus, Aristophanes of Byzantium, and Aristarchus. The work of these scholars, which can be reconstructed from indirect sources, consisted in the main part of deleting lines that had clearly crept into the text later or of 'obelising' or 'athetising', i.e. marking with special symbols, lines and passages that seemed suspect to them for one reason or another. The many post-Alexandrian papyrus texts of Homeric passages show very little fluctuation in the number of lines. Pre-Alexandrian papyrus passages, on the other

hand, differ considerably in length and may contain more or fewer lines than are found in our editions. It is apparent from the evidence that the Alexandrian scholars did much to stabilise the Homeric texts, but it is an unresolved question on what authority they established the canonical number and sequence of lines. Did they have access to a privileged tradition? Or did they use their judgement to construct from a variety of sources a text that later generations accepted as authoritative? Do we have Homer's *Iliad* or that of Aristarchus? It is difficult to give confident answers to these questions because we know very little about the nature of Homeric editions in classical Greece and even less about the state of the text in earlier periods. Several ancient sources refer to what modern scholars call the Pisistratean recension. There is good evidence that during the reign of the Pisistratids in Athens in the sixth century BC official performances of the *Iliad* were instituted as part of the Panathenaean festival. Some scholars have taken a passage in Cicero (*De Oratore*, 3.13.137) as lending support to the view that at these festivals the body of Homeric songs were for the first time gathered and arranged in a fixed order. Such scepticism has not found much support, and it seems more likely that the evidence for a Pisistratean recension merely points to some official concern for the stability and order of the text performed from year to year. Some scholars like to think that the editorial work of Aristarchus rests on an official Athenian edition that goes back to the time of Pisistratus. But, despite some corroborative evidence, such a thesis owes as much to faith as to reason. And, even if we can link the *Iliad* of Aristarchus firmly to that of Pisistratus, how do we know that the *Iliad* of Pisistratus was that of Homer? We may take some comfort from the fact that the *Iliad* is a massive and sturdy poem that can suffer a large number of minor changes without losing its shape. We may also use the very coherence of the poem as an argument for the stability of its transmission, but we should always be aware of the many stages of transmission that stand between what we read and what Homer composed.

The milestones in the history of Homeric scholarship are closely allied to the history of textual transmission. Once again, the accuracy of information drops off sharply as we move beyond Alexandrian criticism into classical times. The oldest form of criticism is allegorical and can be traced back to Theagenes of Rhegium in the sixth century BC. Allegory is a procedure for dealing with objectionable features of a text by claiming that they 'say something else' (the literal meaning of 'all-egoria'). Allegorical exegesis arose out of the need to deal with the scandals of Homeric theology. It flourished among Stoic thinkers and later merged with similar Judaeo-Christian procedures to become the favoured method for 'saving' the ancient gods in a Christian world. The most famous and most productive allegorical interpretation of an Iliadic passage transforms the golden chain by which Zeus threatens to hang the other gods into the 'Great Chain of Being'.

Plato in his *Ion* is our main source for the professional interpretation of Homer in classical times. *Ion* is a rhapsode, a man who makes a living reciting and explaining Homer and by virtue of his knowledge of the poems thinks of himself as a walking encyclopaedia. But while Plato exposes the pretensions of such knowledge he does not give us enough evidence to say very much about patterns of interpretation and explanation common in his day.

We are on firmer ground with the Alexandrians. They had no encyclopaedic ambitions and they wanted no truck with allegory. They were professional scholars in our sense, interested in employing philological techniques to establish and elucidate the text. 'Explaining Homer out of Homer' was Aristarchus' anti-allegorical slogan. Much of the work of the Alexandrians has come down to us via a devious route and survives in the marginal notes of Byzantine manuscripts, the 'scholia'. It is in the nature of such 'notes and queries' that they do not easily convey a comprehensive view of the poem. But scholars who, like Jasper Griffin, have made a point of systematically consulting the scholia have found in them a treasure of acute and sensitive observation that reveals much about the ancient understanding of the *Iliad*. In addition to the scholia, parts of ancient Homeric scholarship survive in the discursive commentary of the twelfth-century Byzantine scholar Eustathius, Bishop of Thessalonika, which for centuries to come remained a basic reference tool for Homeric scholars.

Although Homer was a much edited author during the Renaissance, there are no significant advances in textual and philological scholarship between Alexandrian times and the early eighteenth century, when Richard Bentley discovered the 'digamma', the *w*-sound that had disappeared from Greek by Homer's day, but had left its traces behind in certain features of Homeric prosody. This discovery led the way to a systematic and exhaustive analysis of Homeric language: a modern scholar can say with justice that there are many features of Homer's poetry that he understands more fully than any ancient reader, including perhaps Homer himself. Another milestone in the philological criticism of Homer is the publication in 1788 by the French scholar Villoison of the Venetus A manuscript, which dates from the tenth century and is the best manuscript of the *Iliad*. The manuscript also includes a set of scholia that provide more valuable and extensive evidence for Alexandrian scholarship than had been previously available. Modern textual scholarship of the *Iliad*, which culminated in the edition by T. W. Allen (1920), dates from the publication of that manuscript. The late eighteenth century also saw the beginning of the analytical criticism of Homer, which had precursors in the work of d'Aubignac and in casual remarks by Vico and Richard Bentley, but may be said to begin properly with the publication of Friedrich Wolf's *Prolegomena* in 1795 (above, p. 8).

Travellers and gentlemen scholars of the eighteenth century had begun

to cultivate the pleasant pastime of taking ancient authors – above all, Homer – out of the world of thickly annotated folio volumes and placing them in their real and original habitat of Greece. ‘We proposed to read the Iliad and Odyssey in the countries, where Achilles . . . fought and where Homer sung,’ Robert Wood wrote in his *Essay on the Original Genius and Writings of Homer*, the most influential book to popularise this new approach (Jenkyns, 8). A century later, Heinrich Schliemann thought that he had discovered Homer’s Troy. The systematic excavations of Troy, Knossos and Mycenae that have continued since the late nineteenth century have given us a much fuller understanding of the material base of Homeric culture. But the dream of explaining Homer out of the ruins has not come true: the more we have learnt about the world of early Greece, the more sceptical we have become about assuming a simple relationship between the world of the poetry and any historical reality (above, p. 2).

Textual scholarship and its related disciplines distrust interpretation and are made possible by the belief in the fiction that restoration is possible and will ultimately make interpretation redundant. The text of the *Iliad* we read today is the valid product of that noble delusion. But the life of the *Iliad* is not limited by the history of that text and its explanations; it is, to use a fashionable phrase, a story of misreadings, most lively and influential where it is least hampered by an ethos of faithful explication.

The first major stage in the life of the *Iliad* is the *Odyssey*. Possibly the work of the same poet, though more probably the work of a younger contemporary or disciple, the *Odyssey* is conceived as a complementary sequel to the *Iliad*. Its protagonist has a name with the same metrical properties (*Achil(l)eus* = *Odys(s)heus*) and, like Achilles, Odysseus, by turning down Kalypso’s offer of immortality, chooses death and identity over nameless pleasure. But within the framework of the heroic choice Odysseus opposes Achilles at all points: Achilles volunteered for the war despite his mother’s attempt to conceal him; Odysseus is drafted despite his efforts to evade conscription. With ferocious single-mindedness, Achilles responds to an insult to his name and reputation: the syntax of the poem’s opening lines shows him as both defined, engulfed and consumed by one passion: *mēnin . . . Pelēiadeō Achilēos oulomenēn*. Odysseus is not named in the opening line of his poem: he is a man ‘of many turns’, open to the manifold of experience, capable of hiding his name or of substituting the similar *outis*, ‘nobody’. Achilles dies young, Odysseus suffers long and survives. When we last see Achilles he remembers a father to whom he will not return. Odysseus is reunited with Penelope: the bed he made as a young man outlasts the ships of the Achaeans.

The *Odyssey* completes the story of the *Iliad*. Through the return of Odysseus, it tells of the return of the other Achaeans as well. Demodokos’ story of the Wooden Horse (*Odyssey*, 8.486) shows the narrator’s effort to create seamless narrative continuity from the beginning of the *Iliad* to the

end of the *Odyssey*. Whether or not the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are the work of the same poet, their systematic complementarity created 'Homer' as an oeuvre that established the forms and modes of Western literature, and in particular the recurring polarisation of human experience into a tragic and a comic vision. Because of the *Odyssey* it becomes an impossible enterprise to tell the life of the *Iliad* apart from that of 'Homer', a term that refers sometimes to a man, sometimes to a body of works, and frequently to whatever the speaker understands by the principle of poetry.

If we look in Greek literature for those traces that lead us specifically to the *Iliad*, we encounter tragedy. The plot of the *Iliad*, with its concatenation of the fates of Hektor, Patroklos and Achilles, provided the great exemplar that allowed the Attic playwrights to refine the art of plot construction and to achieve in their best plays a degree of concentration that led Aristotle to rank tragedy above epic. We know that Aeschylus wrote a trilogy about Achilles, but the corpus of extant plays accurately reflects the fact that the great dramatists acknowledged the primacy of the *Iliad* by keeping their distance from it. Of the thirty-odd plays that have survived from antiquity, only one, the *Rhesus*, deals with an event directly narrated in the *Iliad*. (This play, although attributed to Euripides, probably originates in the fourth century BC, and it is telling that its subject, the Doloneia, is a peripheral part of the *Iliad*.) The fall of Troy and the aftermath of the war, on the other hand, were favoured because the *Iliad* gave to these subjects a special weight and interest without preempting their treatment. Aeschylus' most majestic work, the *Oresteia*, is a sequel of sorts to the *Iliad*. It sharpens the paradox of defeat in victory and challenges the theology of the *Iliad* by showing the power of the chthonic forces that the Olympian vision had banished from its ken. Sophocles' *Aias*, his earliest surviving play, similarly uses a post-Iliadic event to deepen the dilemma of the warrior code. Because the arms of Achilles were awarded to Odysseus rather than to him, Aias is seized by an implacable hatred for Agamemnon, a *mēnis oulomenē* that leads to slaughter and self-destruction without a compensating heroic achievement. The scene between Aias, his war-bride Tekmessa and their son Eurysakes is a transposition of the Hektor-Andromache scene of Book 6 of the *Iliad* into a harsher key - the only instance in Attic tragedy of a direct imitative challenge to the *Iliad*. The *Philoctetes*, Sophocles' other play about the Trojan War, is a bitter vision of a post-Iliadic and post-heroic world in which the good have died and the likes of Thersites prosper. A similar vision informs Euripides' plays about the aftermath of the Trojan War.

Tragedy is one great trace of the life of the *Iliad* in Greek culture; the other is Plato. The *Republic* is the *locus classicus* for the war of poetry and philosophy. Plato of course attacks all poets rather than Homer or the *Iliad*, and Homer is singled out simply because he enjoys pride of place. None the less, the scandal in Plato's eyes is not this or that aberration from

moral standards but the fundamentally ambiguous relationship of poetry to morality. Despite its risqué story of Ares and Aphrodite the *Odyssey* shows few traces of that ambiguity. The *Iliad*, on the other hand, is deeply imbued with it; or, to put it differently, at their most serious moments Plato and the author of the *Iliad* live in different worlds. For this reason there is some justice in seeing Plato's attack on poetry as fundamentally a response to the *Iliad*.

✧ With the *Odyssey*, the *Iliad* becomes part of Homer; with Vergil it becomes part of the 'Epic Tradition'. The stance of the *Aeneid vis-à-vis* the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* established an exemplary relationship of admiration and rivalry: the history of its repetition in different times and places is the history of the epic tradition. The *Aeneid* has been far more important than any other text in identifying the criteria and questions that have dominated Homeric criticism through the ages. If the *Odyssey* creates 'Homer' by joining itself to the *Iliad*, the *Aeneid*, by distancing itself from Homer, creates the 'Homeric', the elusive category whose definition always turns out to be some version of the difference between Homer and Vergil.

Vergil's poetic ambition was to create a work that would do for Rome what the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* had done for Greece. The first point to note about Vergil's achievement is that he wrote in Latin rather than in Greek. The *Aeneid* appropriates and emancipates itself from a foreign paradigm, thereby establishing for its Greek precursor a climate of remote primacy. Second, Vergil conceived the *Aeneid* as an equivalent that self-consciously and explicitly proclaims its dependence on its models at every step. Vergil's attitude is filial in the extreme: Aeneas carrying Anchises away from the burning Troy may stand as an image for the poet as well. This self-proclaimed dependence turns the *Iliad* into a poem without origins or, rather, a poem created *ex nihilo* by the original genius of Homer.

The *Aeneid* comprehends, supersedes and reverses the events of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. To the destruction of a city and the subsequent wanderings of the conquerors it opposes the wanderings of a refugee whose descendants will in time found Rome. The burning Troy, dimly envisaged at the end of the *Iliad*, is fully described, but it functions as a beginning. And the Homeric bias for the Achaeans is replaced by the Roman poet's bias for the Trojans who are his ancestors, for it is from Aeneas that Caesar and Augustus, the greatest Roman rulers, trace their descent.

This reversal is only the most visible form of a critique of Homer that despite its tone of filial deference leaves no aspect of the model untouched. The critique is easiest to see on the moral level, where Vergil is the heir to centuries of philosophy. Plato had complained in the *Republic* about the moral deficiencies of Achilles, calling him greedy, brutal, uncontrolled, and generally lacking in the virtues that result from a proper education and find their embodiment in the Philosopher King (*Republic*, 390e). Aristotle in the *Nicomachean Ethics* projected the ideal of the magnanimous man.

Such embodiment of virtues in images of human perfection appealed to the Romans. It appears, for instance, in Cicero's attempts to capture the excellences of rhetoric through an image of the perfect orator. It is not surprising, therefore, that the protagonist of the *Aeneid*, unlike his predecessor in the *Iliad*, is an Epic Hero embodying the virtues of the soldier Achilles and the statesman Agamemnon without any of their shortcomings. In addition to the specifically heroic virtues of courage and wisdom, Aeneas also embodies the remaining cardinal virtues: piety and, despite his entanglement with Dido, temperance.

The list of Vergilian corrections of moral lapses in the *Iliad* is a long one. Aeneas does not withdraw from battle in anger; rather, his absence is the inevitable consequence of his attempt to secure allies. Far from mutilating the body of his opponent, he is even reluctant to kill him. And so it continues in a thorough revision of Iliadic scenes in which motives and actions that appear blameworthy to Vergil are either transformed or attributed to bad characters.

Since moral, social and aesthetic criteria are inextricably intertwined in the ancient world, the Vergilian critique of Homer extends to matters of social and stylistic decorum. The *Aeneid* reflects the greater social stratification of the Roman world, and our familiarity with its sense of protocol inevitably moulds our reading of Homer. Odysseus shoots a deer on Circe's island, makes a crude sling from branches, and lugs the animal on his back to his sole remaining ship (*Odyssey*, 10.157). Aeneas even in distress remains the admiral of a fleet. On his arrival in Libya, he climbs a hill and sees a herd of deer led by three stags. He takes the bow and arrow carried for him by his faithful Achates (more servant than companion) and shoots first the 'leaders', then the 'common crowd', until he has killed one animal for each ship. As to how these were transported back to the ships, it is beneath the epic poet's dignity to attend to such detail: certainly Aeneas did not carry them himself (*Aeneid*, 1.184). He carried his father and the house gods out of the burning Troy, and he will later put on 'the shield and destiny of his descendants' (2.707, 8.731). But an epic hero does not lug dead animals on his back.

Social stratification goes hand in hand with a hierarchy of styles. In theories of style since the Hellenistic period epic and tragedy are the prime literary examples of the high style. Vergil made such theories canonical through the example of his poetic career, which he understood as a self-conscious progress from the humble beginnings of pastoral to the exalted form of the epic. We may have tired of the soaring epic ambition with its quest for an 'answerable style', and we may find greater delight in the rugged practicality of Odysseus and in the vivid concreteness with which it is described. But what we like to think of as an immediate response to the quintessentially Homeric world and style has its origin, directly or indirectly, in the Vergilian response to Homer.

In talking about the critical recension of Homer that is implicit in the *Aeneid* and makes Vergil the greatest of all Homeric critics, we must not neglect the sense of doubt and inadequacy that besets the Vergilian enterprise at every step and has left its traces both in the text and in some telling anecdotes. Vergil said that 'borrowing a line from Homer was like stealing the club of Hercules', forbade the publication of the *Aeneid* and wanted to burn it on his deathbed. His personal shyness gave him the nickname *Parthenias*, 'the Maiden'. Since Vergil's day, an acute sense of the 'anxiety of influence' has been *de rigueur* for the epic poet – a fact well known to Dante. The figure of the epic poet approaching his great task with an equal sense of inferiority and superiority bears on the *Iliad* precisely because its author alone of all poets is seen as exempt from this contradiction.

Despite the misgivings of its author, the *Aeneid* was an immediate triumph. It became the national epic of Rome, and it marked the maturity of Latin as the language of a distinct literary culture that came to dominate the West and turned Greek into a foreign language not even known by the educated elite. As the *Aeneid* triumphed, the *Iliad* went into hibernation. Poems about Troy, however, remained popular. One of these was the *Ilias Latina*, a poem of a thousand hexameters that summarises the events of the *Iliad*. It belongs in the first century AD, but the Middle Ages falsely saw in it the work of Pindar. More influential was the *Historia de excidio Troiae*, which is a fifth-century version of an earlier Greek poem that attributes itself to the Phrygian Dares, a counsellor of Hektor. This history by an 'eyewitness' with a Trojan bias was very popular in the Middle Ages and, together with another 'eyewitness report' by the Cretan Dictys, a companion of Idomeneus, it provided the main source for the vast literature of Troy that flourished in the Middle Ages. In the twelfth century Benoit de Sainte-Maure combined and expanded these accounts; a century later Guido delle Colonne paraphrased Benoit in a Latin 'history', which, translated into French (1464), and back from French into English, became the first book printed in England, Caxton's *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*. An episode from this cycle was elaborated by Boccaccio, and in its English adaptation became the greatest of all medieval works about Troy: Chaucer's *Troilus and Criseyde*. The point to be made about this poem and about the tradition from which it derives is that they have nothing to do with the *Iliad* but completely supersede it. Chaucer's narrator early disclaims any intention to relate the story of the war and tells his readers that they may find 'the Troian gestes, as they felle, in Omer, or in Dares, or in Dite' (1.146). In the envoi 'Omer' is listed once more, together with Vergil, Ovid, Lucan and Statius, as one of the poets whose footsteps the author's 'littel' book is to kiss (5.1792). But here, as in the fourth canto of the *Inferno*, Homer is a mere shade. And so he remained for an early Humanist writer like Petrarch, who acquired a Greek manuscript of Homer but was unable to read it.



The revival of the *Iliad* in the West is part of the revival of Greek studies that began in the fifteenth century for many reasons, including the influx of Byzantine scholars into Italy as a consequence of the fall of Constantinople. The sixteenth century, in particular, was an age in which a knowledge of Greek, while precious, spread beyond an exclusive group of scholars. An interest in Greek literature is characteristic of the learned poets of sixteenth-century France, especially of Ronsard. But one should not imagine that the revived *Iliad* superseded the medieval Troy literature. It would be more correct to think of the Renaissance *Iliad* as another, though highly prestigious, item in that literature, which retained its hold on the European imagination, perhaps even strengthened it when new national monarchies, as in France and England, legitimated their origins by myths of descent from Troy. Take the 1583 edition of Homer by the French poet Jean de Sponde (Spondanus), the work of a man then in his mid-twenties. It is not a work of great scholarly merit, but interesting for that very reason since it reflects accurately the knowledge and interests of a highly educated literary man in the late sixteenth century. The work includes not only the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* in Greek with facing Latin prose translations but also the *Ilias Latina* and Dares. In other words, it is as much an encyclopaedia of Troy poems as it is an edition of Homer.

If the reading of Homer was in part shaped by the literature of Troy, it was much more powerfully affected by Renaissance theories of the epic. Most Homeric criticism between 1500 and 1700, if it is not a repetition and elaboration of Byzantine scholia, is found in commentaries of Aristotle's *Poetics* or Horace's *Ars Poetica* and in the innumerable vernacular poetic treatises based on them. This criticism operates at considerable distance from the Homeric texts and deals in generalities that stay within the bounds of the Vergilian recension. It often takes the form of adjudicating competing claims or answering specific charges such as 'Is Plato right in attacking poets?', 'Is Aristotle right in preferring tragedy to epic?', 'Is Vergil greater than Homer?' The most influential of these discussions are shaped by an exalted notion of the moral power of poetry, by a belief in the supremacy of epic poetry, and by a celebration of the Epic Hero as the pinnacle of human perfection. It did not escape Renaissance readers that in the context of such assumptions the *Iliad* is a problematical text. In particular, it was difficult to see Achilles as an Epic Hero: Tasso's Rinaldo and other 'improved' Achilles figures of Renaissance epics bear clear witness to these difficulties (Steadman). The greater compliance of the *Aeneid* with the ideals of epic perfection led Julius Caesar Scaliger in his *Poetics* to proclaim its superiority over Homer - a judgement that repeats Vergil without his characteristic diffidence.

The Renaissance response to the *Iliad* finds a unique and representative expression in Chapman's translation and in Shakespeare's *Troilus and Cressida*. Readers during the 1590s took a special interest in the literature of Troy. A reprint of Caxton appeared in 1596; Chaucer's works, including

*Seaven Bookes*: the council of the desperate Achaeans (Book 2), the duel of Hektor and Aias (Book 7), and the Embassy (Book 9). G. K. Hunter has argued that the revulsion at the brutality of war, which pervades *Troilus and Cressida* so deeply, owes something to Shakespeare's response to Homer, that he was blind to the nobility of Homer's moral vision, and that, like Goethe later, he saw in the *Iliad* a proof that life was hell. On such a view, Shakespeare found in the *Iliad* corroboration for a realistic perspective from which to subvert the medieval and romantic tradition of Troy. But the realism of *Troilus and Cressida* and that of the *Iliad* are of a very different order. *Troilus and Cressida* is an unchecked outburst of the deflationary and corrosive perspective that Shakespeare in his tragedies always keeps under control. The play focuses on the *Iliad* as its target because Chapman had recently reaffirmed its status as the paradigm of heroic poetry not only in his translation but also in the effusive prefatory matter.

The fact that in Shakespeare's play the *Iliad* provides a target of attack rather than the source of a despairing vision emerges clearly from the prominent role given to Thersites. In the *Iliad* he had been introduced for the express purpose of being kicked out: with the expulsion of this loudmouth and coward, the Achaeans reassert their commitment to the warrior code. Expelled from the *Iliad*, Thersites found a niche in handbooks of rhetoric, where he survived through the ages: a medieval schoolboy might run across Thersites as the type of railing detractor without ever hearing of the *Iliad* (Kimbrough, 38). Shakespeare's version of this Thersites re-enters the world of the *Iliad*; indeed, he becomes the filter through which its characters and events are seen in *Troilus and Cressida*. The privileged position given to him reflects an implicit understanding on Shakespeare's part of what is not found in the *Iliad*. The return of Thersites, which has a parallel in the celebration of Thersites as the arch-survivor in Sophocles' *Philoctetes*, allows us to draw a suggestive analogue between one of Shakespeare's most problematic plays and a number of plays of the fifth century BC in which a mood of disillusionment and weary cynicism likewise defines itself against the heroic world of the *Iliad*. Some of these plays - e.g. Euripides' *Orestes* - raise questions of classification that are similar to the curious status of *Troilus and Cressida* as a problem play. To treat such works as episodes in the life of the *Iliad* is helpful in clarifying their mode and purpose. There remains, however, the question whether we should call a work like *Troilus and Cressida* a critique of the *Iliad* or whether we should see it as a subversion or rejection of the values implicit in the Vergilian recension of Homer.

A very different critique of the *Iliad*, and one that clearly does by-pass the *Aeneid*, appears in *Paradise Lost* (Mueller). By the standards of his age, and indeed by modern professional standards, Milton had an exceptionally thorough knowledge of Greek, and Homer was one of three authors - Ovid

and Isaiah were the others – that his daughters read most frequently to their blind father in the original. The opening lines of the epic closely follow the *Iliad*:

Of Man's first Disobedience and the fruit  
Of that forbidden Tree whose mortal taste  
Brought Death into the world and all our woe . . .

'Man's first Disobedience' echoes *mēnin Peleïadeo Achilēos* in its syntactic structure, and both openings explore the polarity of a central event and its disastrous consequences. The Iliadic echoes point to larger structural resemblances. Milton copies the distinctive structural feature of the *Iliad*, its way of telling a larger story by means of a central incident. The wrath of Achilles and the fall of man are episodes in much larger cycles of events, the Trojan War and the Celestial Cycle, which begins with Creation and ends with the Last Judgement. This relationship of plot to story led Milton to think of the triangle of Adam, Eve and Satan in terms of Achilles, Patroklos and Hektor-Apollo (perhaps prompted by the not uncommon identification of Apollo with Satan via *Apollyon*, 'destroyer', a Greek word for the devil). In elaborating the story of the Fall, Milton had available to him a rich narrative tradition. While he used it freely, he departed from it in the scene that accounts for Eve's meeting Satan by herself. His Eve asks Adam's permission to work by herself, and when she returns to him Adam recognises her fall as the consequence of his failure to protect her. In other words, Milton uses the Patrokleia both to motivate Eve's separation and to articulate a moment of tragic recognition in which Adam, like Achilles, sees his own doom in that of his dead beloved. One of Milton's most powerful Homeric allusions further emphasises the moment of tragic recognition. When Hektor dies, Andromache is at home working a piece of embroidery. As she hears the shouts of woe, she rushes to the towers and faints at the sight of the dead Hektor. Her headgear, a precious wedding present, falls to the ground. When she recovers, she expresses her loss in words. This sequence is closely followed by Milton in leading up to Adam's sight of the fallen Eve. He had been weaving a wreath of flowers in anticipation of her return, but when he sees her he is horror-struck and

From his slack hand the garland wreathed for Eve  
Down dropped, and all the faded roses shed. (9.892-3)

In the ensuing speech he expresses the meaning of the gesture and calls Eve 'defaced, deflowered, and to death devote' (9.901).

Milton's fusion of the two great Iliadic recognitions of tragic loss rests on

an apprehension of the dramatic structure of his model that has its only parallel among the Attic playwrights. But Milton rejects the premisses on which that structure rests and offers a powerful critique of tragic consciousness. Knowledge brings disaster in the *Iliad* (and in Greek tragedy), but it also provides the ground for identity and self-assertion. Milton takes over the structure of tragic recognition but rejects its metaphysical implications. Whereas the blind Achilles had been transformed into the seeing Achilles by the death of Patroklos, Adam falls into blindness. His tragic consciousness of Eve's doom is false, and the situation of tragic recognition becomes the scene in which man wilfully isolates himself from divine grace. Tragic necessity in *Paradise Lost* is an illusion, and the poem's true recognition occurs beyond the fall when Adam and Eve discover their dependence on one another and divine grace. Through his use of the *Iliad*, and by placing and transcending the situation of tragic recognition, Milton discovered the conditions of Christian tragedy, and his work is the most sustained reflection on the relationship of Christian tragedy to its ancient sources.

Milton's use and understanding of the *Iliad* rest very much on his own reading and have no parallel in his day. With Alexander Pope, on the other hand, we come to an author whose response to Homer subsumes that of an entire age, in England and beyond. Between 1715 and 1720, Pope published his translation of the *Iliad* in six volumes, each containing four books of the original. Bentley, the greatest classical scholar of his age, was contemptuous: 'it is a pretty poem, Mr. Pope, but you must not call it Homer'. The polite world for whom it was intended thought otherwise. Pope's Homer was widely read and quickly established itself as one of the few translations to become originals in their own right. Pope's *Iliad* is arguably the finest English poem in heroic couplets, and outside the Greek world more readers got to know Homer through Pope than had ever read him in any version.

Pope's interest in Homer dates back to his childhood when he read the *Iliad* in Ogilby's version, published in a richly illustrated folio version. A mediocre work, it more than justified its existence by the spark it lit in the 8-year-old boy. The more immediate cause of Pope's *Iliad* was the precarious state of the author's fortunes. Pope conceived of his translation as a commercial venture that would bring him financial security, and in this regard, as in many others, the translation was a resounding success that permitted the poet to buy the small estate at Twickenham, where he spent the rest of his life.

Like Chapman, Pope endows Homer with a heroic patina. If Homer does not live up to the 'Majesty of Epic Poetry where everything ought to be great and magnificent' (7.lii), Pope will improve his original, sometimes apologetically. Thus, when Athene gives Menelaos the bloodthirsty courage of a fly Pope in his note acknowledges the just precision of the

original, but in the translation changes the animal into a 'vengeful hornet' because 'our present Idea of the Fly is indeed very low as taken from the littleness and insignificancy of this Creature' (*Iliad*, 17.570; 17.642 in the translation). But Pope will have nothing to do with Chapman's abstruseness. On the contrary, he is an ardent apostle of Homeric simplicity and among the most important critics to unfold what is implicit in the Vergilian recension: that Homer is characterised by a lack of art. The modern roots of that view are found in the battle of the ancients and moderns, the favourite parlour game of the literary elite in late-seventeenth-century France, where Homer took his knocks as the standard-bearer of antiquity but also had begun to be worshipped as the only poet to whom it was given to exist in pristine and prelapsarian grandeur. Dryden gives an early and important expression of this view when in his *Essay of Dramatic Poesy* he lines up Homer and Vergil with Shakespeare and Jonson: 'Shakespeare was the Homer, or father of our dramatic poets; Jonson was the Virgil, the pattern of elaborate writing; I admire him but I love Shakespeare.' Pope contrasts Homer and Vergil in terms of invention and judgement. The 'fire' of invention is visible in Vergil, 'but discern'd as through a Glass reflected from *Homer*, more shining than fierce, but everywhere equal and constant'. Pope elaborates this conceit by first lining up Milton and Shakespeare with Vergil and Homer and then making Homer transcend even Shakespeare, a double comparison that was echoed by Matthew Arnold and was indeed something of a commonplace in Victorian criticism (Jenkyns, 192): 'In *Milton* it glows like a Furnace kept up to an uncommon ardor by the Force of Art; in *Shakespeare*, it strikes before we are aware, like an accidental fire from Heaven: But in *Homer*, and in him only, it burns everywhere clearly, and everywhere irresistibly' (7.4-5). Homer's only rival is Scripture and, in a phrase that looks forward to Winckelmann's phil-Hellenic slogan of 'noble simplicity and silent grandeur', Pope speaks of the 'pure and noble simplicity of Scripture and Homer'.

This Homeric simplicity, however, is a very eighteenth-century plainness that values abstraction. An age can be defined by the purple passages it finds in the classics: the most frequently translated and anthologised Iliadic passage in Pope's day was Sarpedon's speech to Glaukos. Pope translated it at the age of 19 and later used it as the model for Clarissa's speech in *The Rape of the Lock*. Taken from its context, the speech becomes a creed, an example of Pope's habit, as Maynard Mack puts it, of 'teasing the unique fictions of his original toward something more generic and therefore more easily recognizable' (Pope, 7.lviii).

Grand and general, Pope's *Iliad* also has a high-gloss finish and a tendency towards the epigrammatic, two qualities that derive from the medium of the heroic couplet. The end of Sarpedon's speech shows these qualities in their most brilliant and attractive light:

The Life which others pay, let us bestow,  
 And give to Fame what we to Nature owe;  
 Brave tho' we fall, and honour'd if we live,  
 Or let us glory gain, or Glory give!

Pope's Homer was the most successful of many attempts, especially in England and France, to make Homer available to a polite and not necessarily very learned audience. For this audience the epic was no longer a living vernacular genre but existed in differently displaced forms: *Paradise Lost* was a classic, *The Rape of the Lock* a parody, the *Iliad* a translation. The audience of Pope's *Iliad* was to find its authentic literary form in the novel. Fénelon in his *Télémaque*, a kind of *Bildungsroman* based on the opening books of the *Odyssey*, had anticipated this development. Fielding confirmed it by calling *Joseph Andrews* a 'comic epic poem in prose' and by using a technique of allusion that recalls the epic tradition, and in particular Homer, only to distance itself from it. The establishment of the novel as the dominant form of narrative coincides roughly with the development of modern Homeric scholarship and criticism, and it is surely a cardinal fact about the life of the *Iliad* since the eighteenth century that its readers have defined its genre in opposition to prose fiction. For Hegel, the novel is the appropriate expression of a prosaic and bourgeois world. Like the epic, it mirrors the totality of the world, but with a crucial loss of poetic substance. Fictional protagonists like Julien Sorel or Dorothea Brooke may have the brilliance and energy of Achilles, but they live in a world where circumstances rule out the achievement of heroic glory, even at the cost of life.

The dominance of the novel has led to a changing perception of the relationship of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. The latter has often been seen as a proto-novel, a perspective that ultimately accounts for *Ulysses*. The *Iliad* by contrast has been increasingly aligned with the stark world that readers discovered in other forms of 'heroic poetry', and especially in Germanic mythology. This vision of the heroic differs significantly from the Renaissance vision and replaces a timeless image of human perfection with an image of splendid and atavistic brutality.

The changing fortunes of Homer as a school author also bear on the understanding of the *Iliad* as a heroic poem. Ronsard in the preface to his *Franciade* had offered an early and suggestive formulation of the difference between Homer and Vergil by proclaiming that he had chosen as his model the 'naïve facilité' rather than the 'curieuse diligence' of Vergil. Ronsard's 'naïf' means 'innate', 'natural', and has no tinge of 'naïve' in Schiller's sense. None the less, the phrase draws our attention to the continuity between Renaissance distinctions of nature and art and eighteenth-century theories of the naïve. In the nineteenth century, Homer, the great paragon

of naïve poetry, the original genius from the childhood of man, becomes an author for boys, specifically public schoolboys at Winchester or Rugby. Richard Jenkyns' fine chapter on the Homeric Ideal in *The Victorians and Ancient Greece* is appropriately divided into sections on 'Homer' and 'Athletics'.

Opposition to the bourgeois novel and the boys' school as the temple for the cult of the heroic are critical facts for an understanding of the life of the *Iliad* in the nineteenth century. The understanding of Homer fostered in such a context may be seen as restating in a different form the Vergilian category of the Homeric. In the *Aeneid* Turnus understands himself as Achilles, but for Vergil Turnus represents violence and the flamboyance of heroic gesture without lasting achievement. Aeneas, the cautious and farsighted leader, on the other hand, lacks glamour. And, while Vergil's art is in the highest degree poetic, his protagonist is peculiarly prosaic. Vergilian art and the world of prose, in fact, are at bottom the same and provide a very similar background for the identification and admiration of the Homeric.

The Vergilian prism has been no less dominant in the twentieth-century criticism of Homer. If there is a distinguishing feature of twentieth-century criticism, it lies perhaps in the innocent arrogance with which it has claimed a superior understanding on the basis of radically new insights into the nature of Homer's art or his vision of man. The oral critics in particular have been guilty of a failure to see that their ideological prejudices have a very long history indeed (above, p. 8). A somewhat similar charge can be laid against 'Homeric anthropologists' like Hermann Fränkel, Bruno Snell, E. R. Dodds, and more recently A. W. H. Adkins. In the works of these scholars, however illuminating it has been on many aspects of the Homeric poems, a Hegelian vision of the unfolding of the human spirit has combined with the scholar's territorial instinct to dwell on the distinctness of his subject and sharply mark off its boundaries. The *homo Homericus* 'reconstructed' by their labours is little more than a more scholarly version of the Homeric naïve. Whether Parry and Snell are 'closer' to the *Iliad* than Chapman or Pope is by no means an idle question. I do not mean to suggest that to study the life of the *Iliad* is to sort through the junkheap of discarded interpretations: on the contrary, the life has a shape and direction that must guide our own understanding. But criticism is not a progressive art.

If we think of the life of the *Iliad* as revealing to us an identity that can guide our own understanding, we are confronted with a peculiar problem. The most distinctive feature of Homeric criticism has been the recurring attempt to endow the category of the Homeric with a supremacy that elevates it beyond the limits of an individual style and puts it beyond description. For the Greeks, Homer was The Poet. For Ronsard and the Vergilian tradition Homer's 'naïve facilité' identifies the Homeric with the

natural. The naïve Homer is the modern version of the self-defeating enterprise of combining description with absolute praise. Homer is not the only artist to have suffered this fate: we recognise it in the criticism of Shakespeare and Mozart. But in Homer the dilemma is more central. Is it chronological priority or a peculiar greatness that has created the persistent temptation to dissolve the Homeric as the contours of a specific identity and to equate it with some version of the absolute? To that Homeric Question we may never find an answer.



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