

THE CAMBRIDGE COMPANION TO VIRGIL

EDITED BY CHARLES MARTINDALE

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ILLUSTRATIONS

FRONTISPIECE

Simone Martini, Frontispiece to Petrarch's Virgil manuscript, 1340. Biblioteca Ambrosiana (Codex A.49.inf), Milan. Photo by courtesy of the Veneranda Biblioteca Ambrosiana. (This photograph is the property of the Biblioteca Ambrosiana. All rights reserved. No reproductions allowed.)

The picture is an allegory showing Virgil seated beneath a tree composing one of his books. The figure drawing aside the muslin curtain is the fourth-century grammarian Servius, whose commentary on Virgil was an influential source for later writers and readers: he symbolically 'reveals' Virgil to posterity. The other figures personify Virgil's books: Aeneas stands beside Servius, while below them a farmer pruning a vine represents the Georgics and a shepherd symbolises the Eclogues. The two Latin inscriptions make the meaning of the image clear: 'Italy, benevolent country, nourishes famous poets. Thus this one [Virgil] enables you to achieve Grecian genius', and 'This is Servius, who recovers the mysteries of eloquent Virgil so they are revealed to leaders, shepherds and farmers.' The miniature was painted for Petrarch when he recovered his prized manuscript copy of Virgil's work in 1340 after losing it twelve years earlier.

PLATES

(Between pages 110 and 111)

- 1a Mosaic from Hadrumetum in Africa, Virgil seated between the Muses of History and Tragedy. Bardo Museum, Tunis.
- 1b Roman relief, Aeneas sacrificing: fragment of the frieze from the Ara Pacis, 13-9 BC. Ara Pacis Museum, Rome. Photo: Mansell Collection.
- 2a Dido and Aeneas. Mosaic pavement from Low Ham Villa, Somerset, fourth century. Somerset County Museum, Taunton. Photo: Somerset County Council Museums Service.
- 2b Portrait of Virgil. Miniature from the Roman Virgil, early fifth century. Vatican Library, Rome (Cod. Vat. Lat. 3867, fol. 3v). Photo: Biblioteca Vaticana.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

- Jido and Aeneas sheltering from the storm. Miniature from the Roman Virgil, early fifth century. Vatican Library, Rome (Cod. Vat. Lat. 3867, fol. 108r). Photo: Biblioteca Vaticana.
- 3b Laocoön. Miniature from the Vatican Virgil, early fifth century. Vatican Library, Rome (Cod. Vat. Lat. 3225, fol. 18v). Photo: Biblioteca Vaticana.
- The storm with Aeneas shipwrecked off the coast of North Africa. Miniature from Eclogues, Georgics, Aeneid, 1458-9 (illuminated by Guglielmo Giraldi), fol. 60r. Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris (MS Latin 7939A). Photo: Bibliothèque Nationale de France.
- 4b Aeneid Book 2 Title-page: The Trojan Horse and Aeneas, Anchises and Ascanius. Eclogues, Georgics, Aeneid, c. 1490 (attributed to Bartolomeus Sanvito). The British Library, London (Kings MS.24, fol. 73v). Photo: British Library.
- Apollonio di Giovanni, Georgics Book I, c. 1460, from Codex Riccardiana. Biblioteca Riccardiana, Florence (MS 492, fol. 18r). Photo: Donatus Pineider, by courtesy of the Biblioteca Riccardiana.
- Apollonio di Giovanni, Scenes from Virgil's Aeneid. Cassone panels, c. 1460. Yale University Art Gallery, New Haven (University purchase from James Jackson Jarves). Photo: Yale University Art Gallery.
- Sandro Botticelli, illustration to Dante's *Inferno*, Canto xvIII, 1490-7. From an illuminated manuscript of Dante's *Divine Comedy*. Berlin, Staatliche Museen Preussischer Kulturbesitz. Photo: J. P. Anders.
- 8 Gianlorenzo Bernini, Aeneas, Anchises and Ascanius fleeing Troy, 1619. Galleria Borghese, Rome. Photo: Alinari / Art Resource, New York.
- 9 Salvator Rosa, The Dream of Aeneas, c. 1660-5. Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York (Rogers Fund, 1965). Photo: Metropolitan Museum of Art.
- Nicolas Poussin, Landscape with Hercules and Cacus, c. 1660. Pushkin Museum of Fine Arts, Moscow. Photo: Pushkin Museum.
- Claude Lorrain, *The Arrival of Aeneas at Pallanteum*, 1675. The National Trust, Anglesey Abbey (Lord Fairhaven Collection). Photo: NTPL/John Bethell.
- Claude Lorrain, detail from Landscape with a Goatherd and Goats, c. 1636.
 National Gallery, London. Photo reproduced by courtesy of the Trustees of The National Gallery, London.
- 12b Samuel Palmer, Ecloque 8: Opening the Fold, 1880. Etching from The Ecloques of Virgil: An English Version, 1883. Photo: The Fitzwilliam Museum, University of Cambridge.
- 13a Stourhead, Wiltshire. The Lake and Pantheon (originally Temple of Hercules). Watercolour by Francis Nicholson, 1813. British Museum, London. Photo reproduced by courtesy of the Trustees of the British Museum.
- 13b The Leasowes, Shropshire. Virgil's Grove. Engraving after Thomas Smith, 1748.
- Giambattista Tiepolo, The Apotheosis of Aeneas, 1763-4. Study for the painted ceiling of the Guard Room, in the Royal Palace, Madrid. Fogg Art Museum, Cambridge, MA. Photo courtesy of the Fogg Art Museum, Harvard University Art Museums, Allston Burr Bequest Fund.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

- 14b Sir Joshua Reynolds, The Death of Dido, 1781. The Royal Collection © 1997 Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II.
- 15a Pietro da Cortona, detail from Virgil reading to the Emperor Augustus, 1642. Fresco from the Sala di Apollo, Palazzo Pitti, Florence. Photo: Soprintendenza per i Beni Artistici e Storici, Firenze e Pistoia.
- 15b Jean Auguste Dominique Ingres, Virgil reading the Aeneid to the Emperor Augustus, 1812. Musée des Augustins, Toulouse. Photo courtesy of the Musée des Augustins.
- 16a Nicolas Poussin, Virgil, engraved by Claude Mellan, 1641. The British Library, London. Photo courtesy of The British Library.
- 16b Jusepe Ribera, The Poet (Virgil), etching, 1621-5. Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. Photo: Metropolitan Museum of Art.

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PREFACE

cui fidus Achates it comes et paribus curis vestigia figit.

The Concise Oxford English Dictionary defines a fidus Achates as 'devoted follower, henchman'; and one of the aims of this Companion is to be as helpful as possible to its readers. It is devised for anyone, whether a classicist or not, who is seeking guidance and orientation for a fuller understanding of Virgil. We have assumed that most of those who consult this volume will have read parts of Virgil's poetry if only in translation - for those with Latin the best introduction is to read some of the texts with a good commentary, of which there are many. We certainly cannot attempt to replicate the work of the commentators here; rather we offer a series of essays on topics which can constitute useful entry-points for the devoted student of Virgil. And though we aim to help and to provide what is sometimes called 'basic information', we do not seek to simplify or to offer any sort of bland orthodoxy. We assume that our readers (even if not expert on the subject) are seeking intelligent and sophisticated comment, and we hope that the book will prove exciting as well as useful, and will point to the shape of Virgilian scholarship and criticism to come.

This book is very much a collaborative endeavour; and I am grateful to all the contributors for responding so positively to the various demands made upon them. Genevieve Liveley took time off from her PhD to assist me most efficiently in the editorial work; she is also responsible for the 'List of works cited' and for the 'Dateline'. I would particularly like to thank Pauline Hire of Cambridge University Press who gave patient help and advice throughout to a sometimes recalcitrant editor. Finally I would like to express my general pleasure in the task; all those who have helped to produce this book, whatever their differences of view about particulars, would surely be happy to be described as devoted followers of the poet whom Dante hailed with the words tu se' lo mio maestro e'l mio autore.

Charles Martindale Bristol, October 1996

CONTENTS

	List of illustrations	page x
	List of contributors	xiii
	Preface	xvii
I	Introduction: 'The classic of all Europe' CHARLES MARTINDALE	I
	Part 1: Translation and reception	19
2	Virgil in English translation COLIN BURROW	21
3	Modern receptions and their interpretative implications DUNCAN F. KENNEDY	38
4	Aspects of Virgil's reception in antiquity R. J. TARRANT	56
5	The Virgil commentary of Servius DON FOWLER	73
6	Virgils, from Dante to Milton COLIN BURROW	79
7	Virgil in art M. J. H. LIVERSIDGE	91
	Part 2: Genre and poetic career	105
8	Green politics: the <i>Eclogues</i> CHARLES MARTINDALE	107

CONTENTS

9	Virgilian didaxis: value and meaning in the Georgics WILLIAM BATSTONE	125
10	Virgilian epic DUNCAN F. KENNEDY	145
11	Closure: the Book of Virgil ELENA THEODORAKOPOULOS	155
	Part 3: Contexts of production	167
12	Poetry and power: Virgil's poetry in contemporary context R. J. TARRANT	169
13	Rome and its traditions JAMES E. G. ZETZEL	188
14	Virgil and the cosmos: religious and philosophical ideas SUSANNA MORTON BRAUND	204
15	The Virgilian intertext JOSEPH FARRELL	222
	Part 4: Contents and forms	239
16	Virgil's style JAMES J. O'HARA	241
17	Virgilian narrative	
	(a) Story-telling DON FOWLER	259
	(b) Ecphrasis ALESSANDRO BARCHIESI	271
18	Approaching characterisation in Virgil ANDREW LAIRD	282
19	Sons and lovers: sexuality and gender in Virgil's poetry ELLEN OLIENSIS	294

CONTENTS

20	Virgil and tragedy	312
	PHILIP HARDIE	
21	Envoi: the death of Virgil	327
	FIONA COX	
	Dateline compiled by Genevieve Liveley	337
	List of works cited	340
	Index	359

I

CHARLES MARTINDALE

Introduction: 'The classic of all Europe'

The Irish poet Seamus Heaney's Seeing Things was first published in 1991, to immediate acclaim. The collection is framed by translations of two passages of canonical poetry. Virgil's account of Aeneas' consultation of the Sibyl and the instructions he receives from her about finding the golden bough, often read as a symbol of wisdom and initiation, prior to his descent into the Underworld, and Dante's meeting in Inferno 3 with Charon the ferryman of Hell, itself inspired by another episode in Aeneid 6. The first original poem in the book, 'The journey back', describes an encounter with a more immediate poetic predecessor, Philip Larkin, whose shade quotes from Dante and describes himself as 'A nine-to-five man who had seen poetry'; the piece resonates with earlier poetic meetings, T. S. Eliot's with the 'familiar compound ghost' in part two of 'Little Gidding' and one of Eliot's intertexts here - Dante's with the shade of Virgil at the outset of the Divine Comedy. In his new pursuit of the visionary Heaney was also coming home to some of the most influential traditions of Western poetry. Five years later Heaney is a Nobel Laureate, and Seeing Things is already in Britain an A-level set text. Successful canonisation can be achieved with surprising rapidity - the Aeneid itself, greeted (according to some with a degree of irony) by the elegist Propertius in advance of its publication as 'something greater than the *Iliad*', almost instantly became a school text, and part of the furniture of the minds of educated Romans. And for Heaney, and therefore potentially for some of his readers, even at this late hour when Latin is no longer the object of widespread study, there is seemingly still power in the canonical name. We could say, following the argument of Colin Burrow's essay on translation in this volume, that Heaney, coming from what some might see as the 'margins' of Europe, seems to be laying claim to a share of the dominant cultural authority of the 'centre'.

There has recently been vigorous and often acrimonious debate about the status and significance of the canon, regarded at one extreme as a conspiracy of the ruling elite and at the other as a collection of masterpieces that

CHARLES MARTINDALE

transcend history and constitute, in Matthew Arnold's terms, 'the best that is known and thought in the world'. In this connection Heaney's success, which hardly suggests a world in headlong flight from the canonical (whatever the fears and hopes of contestants, conservative or radical, in the contemporary culture wars over the future of the curriculum) can be used to make two observations. First, it illustrates how writers frequently themselves take the lead in canon-making. In Inferno 4 Dante, a great lover of lists of the famous dead, recounts how in Limbo he mingles with the bella scuola, the excellent school, of five great classical poets, 'masters of exalted song', Homer (whom in fact he had never read), Virgil hailed as 'l'altissimo poeta', Horace, Ovid, Lucan, and by implication claims equality with them: 'They made me one of their company so that I was sixth among those great intellects' (101-2). Authors elect their own precursors, by allusion, quotation, imitation, translation, homage, at once creating a canon and making a claim for their own inclusion in it. So Virgil himself in the Georgics gathers into a single work features of the various strands of non-narrative epos (Hesiodic, technical, philosophical), thereby in effect making his own work the climax of a Graeco-Roman 'didactic' tradition. Secondly, the case of Heaney reminds us that canonical flourishing is always and necessarily sustained by and within institutions which enable dissemination (which include in this case publishing houses, the media, schools and universities), with the consequence that such flourishing is never simply a matter of intrinsic aesthetic merit (whatever quite that is taken to mean) but is necessarily also implicated in a range of socio-economic and (in the broad sense) political factors; we cannot wholly separate great books from the wider culture in which they have been, and are, embedded. The great medievalist E. R. Curtius begins his discussion of the canon thus: 'The formation of a canon serves to safeguard a tradition ... the literary tradition of the school, the juristic tradition of the state, and the religious tradition of the Church: these are the three medieval world powers, studium, imperium, sacerdotium.'2 A canon established which texts were to be accorded authority and also ensured an authorised interpretation of them. Quintilian, who, in Book 10 of his Institutio oratoria, listed the 'best' authors both Greek and Latin in all the major genres for the practical benefit of the rising orator (with Virgil providing 'the most auspicious opening', auspicatissimum exordium, for the Latin writers), uses the phrase ordo a grammaticis datus, 'the corpus of accepted writers given by the scholars of literature' (10.1.54); significantly ordo is the word for a social grouping within a hierarchy (thus the senatorial 'order'), just as 'classic' was first used by Aulus Gellius to

¹ Arnold (1964) 33. ² Curtius (1953) ch. 14 'Classicism', 256.

Introduction: 'The classic of all Europe'

denote 'a first-class and tax-paying author, not a proletarian'. The connections between the literary and the social and the political are thus inscribed within the very vocabulary of canon-making.

It is highly appropriate that Virgil should be the first classical poet to obtain an entire volume in the Cambridge Companions series, since, if we look at the whole of the last 2,000 years, it is hard not to agree with T. S. Eliot's description of him as 'the classic of all Europe'. This is not to say that he is the greatest European poet (many would argue for the rival claims of, say, Homer or Ovid or Dante or Shakespeare), rather that he occupied the central place in the literary canon for the whole of Europe for longer than any other writer (Shakespeare today holds a similar position but mainly within the Anglophone world). As a result Virgil's significance extends far beyond his influence (massive as it is) on other writers and artists, itself something that can only be gestured towards in this book. For example as the poet of empire - given the importance, for worse or better, of the European imperial project - he speaks, at least on the most influential readings of his works, for many of the values and attitudes that have shaped the West. When Charlemagne was crowned Holy Roman Emperor in 800, the translatio imperii, the transfer of the Roman empire to the Franks, was accompanied by an analogous translatio studii, the scholarly appropriation of the Roman past, with Virgil at its core; the two acts of succession are indeed profoundly implicated in each other. Similarly Camoens turned to Virgil for the Lusiads, his poem justifying Portuguese global expansion. In that sense poems like the Aeneid have effects beyond the literary, can even, in Mandelstam's memorable words, 'get people killed'. Analogously a piece of landscaping like Henry Hoare's garden at Stourhead (discussed here by Michael Liversidge) is not Virgilian merely in the sense that it alludes to events and persons in the Aeneid; rather this whole way of seeing and shaping the 'natural' world is profoundly informed by a particular response to Virgil's texts. The traces of Virgil are everywhere in European culture whether recognised or not; and in that sense Virgil should be of interest both to traditionalists who espouse the timeless value of great poetry and to radicals alert to the ideological work performed by 'literature' within history. Not without reason the Austrian Catholic writer Theodore Haecker, socialist and staunch anti-fascist, called his popular and influential book on the poet first published in 1931 Virgil, Vater des Abendlandes, Virgil, Father of the West.

Eliot - like Curtius - saw the link between Dante and Virgil as central to European civilisation, a link which thus became, in Frank Kermode's

³ Curtius (1953) 249. ⁴ Eliot (1957) 70 ('What is a Classic?').

CHARLES MARTINDALE

words, 'a sort of key to his historical imagination',5 with Roman culture as a prefigurement, a figura, of Christian culture. This view of Virgil as anima naturaliter Christiana and a bridge between pagan and Christian Europe has of course a venerable ancestry; the Fourth Eclogue was early read as a prophecy of the Incarnation, while Aeneas became 'the prototype of a Christian hero'.6 Eliot did not suppose, any more than Dante himself, that Virgil was in any way conscious of these things. Virgil's works can be read under the aspect of time, but also under the aspect of the timeless; neither reading excludes the other, and neither reading is adequate without the other. One can argue that what Eliot does here overtly is what any interpreter of past texts does - and must do. The Christianising interpretation of Virgil is thus not less historical than any other, it is simply differently historical; all historical narratives, it can be claimed, depend on teleological structures, however occluded, as a very condition of their possibility, and all historical narratives involve a simultaneous double reading of the past, backwards and forwards at the same time. If the Eliotic narrative seems different from other, 'secular' narratives, that is only because the ideological entailments of that teleology and that double reading are made explicit and because, in this explicit form, they are no longer acceptable to the majority of Eliot's readers. Frank Kermode argues that there are two ways of interpreting the revered texts of the past, the one philological and historiographical, the other accommodatory, accommodation being effected by various forms of allegory (even if not recognised as such).⁷ However the distinction may all too easily be dissolved, since even the most austere philological scholarship can be represented as involving accommodation (for example, in the translation of terms), while even the most unconcealed allegorisation usually contains, at some level, an appeal to inherent or originary meaning.

In this respect there is an important connection between Virgil's status as a classic and his imperial vision (visible even as early as the Eclogues): as Kermode observes (quoting from the final section of Eliot's 'Burnt Norton'), 'The classic, like the Empire, must be thought of as "timeless . . . except in the aspect of time".'8 Both classic and empire exist within history, but also transcend history, evincing both permanence and change and enabling us to grasp, or at least to experience in practice, the relationship between them. This shuttle between the aspect of time and the aspect of the timeless is operative at some level within any act of interpretation, and constitutes, we might say, an organising principle of the Aeneid itself.

⁵ Cited Reeves (1989) 1. ⁶ Eliot (1957) 128. ⁷ Kermode (1983) 40. ⁸ Kermode (1983) 60.