

THE PICTORIAL TRADITIONS OF THE BATTLE SCENES
ON THE MONUMENT OF THE JULII AT ST. REMY

by

SANDRIA EWERS WOODRUFF

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1977

Approved by:

Richard K. ...
Adviser

Emeline Richardson

Reader

A. Kenneth Sims

Reader

SANDRIA EWERS WOODRUFF. The Pictorial Traditions of the Battle Scenes on the Monument of the Julii at St. Rémy (Under the direction of GERHARD KOEPEL.)

Four large relief panels decorate the socle of the mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy, a structure which can be dated on architectural and epigraphical grounds to the period between 30 and 25 B.C. The battle scenes in these reliefs are of particular interest because they bridge the gap between monumental Hellenistic battle pictures and early Imperial battle reliefs.

Although all the panels reflect a pictorial heritage, two distinct traditions are obvious. The cavalry and infantry battles of the north and west panels belong to a class of monumental tableaux that were especially popular in Hellenistic and Pergamene courts. The boar hunt and death scene of the south and east panels, however, belong to a cyclic tradition of mythological representation that may have reached Gaul from South Italy. Each of those two panels encompasses two episodes from a single legend in a narrative sequence; the particular episodes were juxtaposed because of their appropriateness in a funerary context. However, because of the heroic nature of the battle scenes many of the same pictorial traditions characterize both the generic and the mythological panels.

Most of the evidence within the battle scenes of the north, west, and east panels confirms a Hellenistic date for the painted compositions that inspired them. There

is no definite evidence of contemporaneity in the armor nor are there any grounds for assigning a biographical interpretation to any of these panels. The north and west panels are generic battle scenes, but the east panel is a specific representation of the death of Troilus at the hands of Achilles. There are numerous Etruscan and South Italian comparanda to justify this interpretation and to confirm a South Italian context for pictorial mythological cycles.

Even though the St. Rémy panels are relief sculpture, they adhere closely to the "grand pictorial" traditions established by their painted predecessors as is clear from a comparison with the Alexander mosaic. Early Imperial battle reliefs, however, undergo numerous modifications of these traditions, modifications necessitated by both architectural and ideological considerations. Nevertheless, the grand pictorial tradition can still be traced through the reign of Trajan in a series of reliefs that includes the fragmentary Mantua and Palestrina reliefs, the reliefs from the north and south sides of the attic of the arch at Orange, drawings of a fragmentary relief from the now destroyed arch of Claudius, and the great Trajanic frieze, where the grand pictorial style reaches its culmination.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The abbreviations used in this dissertation are taken from the standard list of abbreviations given in the AJA, 74 (1970), 3-8. Several important monographs and articles are referred to by shortened titles after the first complete reference to the work. In addition, the following abbreviations are also used:

BMC Republic

Grueber, Herbert Appold. Coins of the Roman Republic in the British Museum. 3 volumes. The Trustees of the British Museum (Oxford: The University Press, 1970 reprint of 1910 edition).

Brunn-Körte

Brunn, Enrico and Körte, G. I rilievi delle urne etrusche. 3 volumes (Roma and Berlin: 1870, 1890, 1896, and 1916).

Castagnoli,
BullComm, 1942

Castagnoli, F. "Due Archi Trionfali della Via Flaminia presso Piazza Sciarra." BullComm, LXX (1942), 57-82.

Espérandieu

Espérandieu, Emile. Recueil général des bas-reliefs de la Gaule romaine. 10 volumes. Collection de documents inédits sur l'histoire de France (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1907):

GRBS

Greek, Roman, and Byzantine Studies

JOAIBeibl

Jahreshefte des Oesterreichischen archäologischen Instituts, Beiblatt

Lehmann-Hartleben

Lehmann-Hartleben, Karl. Die Trajanssäule. Ein römisches Kunstwerk zu Beginn der Spätantike (Berlin und Leipzig: Verlag von Walter de Gruyter & Co., 1926).

Lübke-Pernice

Lübke-Pernice. Die Kunst der Römer. Edited by Berta Sarne (Wien: Paul Neff Verlag, 1958).

Mélanges d'archéologie et d'histoire de l'Ecole française de Rome -- Antiquité

Mélanges d'archéologie et d'histoire de l'Ecole française de Rome -- Antiquité

INTRODUCTION

The four relief panels on the monument of the Julii at St. Rémy are particularly noteworthy for their pictorial effects and for their excellent state of preservation. Therefore, scholars over the years have been intrigued and have proposed various theories about the date, subjects, and inspiration of the compositions.

These panels are also worthy of study because they combine old and new traditions of composition. Both linear and pictorial perspective may be used within the same panel. For example, the north panel at first glance seems to resemble the traditional Greek frieze with the figures arranged along a single groundline against a neutral background. In fact, the horsemen in the panel move in oblique lines. There is the implication of considerable depth in the composition. In addition, almost all the figures are seen in three-quarter or rear views; only motif N7 is seen in a classic profile pose. Also, the artist may use stacked or tiered compositions to convey the feeling of depth. In the west panel, for instance, there are several ranks of figures, with each receding rank placed slightly higher than the row in front of it. This arrangement creates a certain depth for that panel.

Finally, in the south and east panels two distinct episodes are included in each composition. We must consider whether this duality could be an attempt at narration on the part of the artist and if there is any precedent for such narration.

In this study we will concentrate on the three battle representations. After developing a clear understanding of the pictorial and compositional qualities of these scenes, we will relate their traditions to Imperial battle reliefs that date from the Augustan period through Trajanic times. These early Imperial reliefs will not be described in as minute detail as the St. Rémy panels but will be examined with the intention of further establishing the transitional role of those provincial reliefs in interpreting pictorial artistic traditions.

Therefore, in our study of the St. Rémy panels we will be concerned primarily with an examination of the compositions and techniques of the panels as they relate to pictorial precedents, such as the Alexander mosaic. We will not be concerned, for the most part, with questions of interpretation or identification of a particular scene or character. However, because of the pronounced iconography of the east panel, we will offer a specific interpretation of its scenes. We will examine the armament, figural prototypes, and compositions of the panels in an effort to determine a terminus post quem for the originals from which these panels were adapted. After thoroughly

establishing the characteristics of the St. Rémy traditions, we will look at several early Imperial reliefs, including the fragmentary Mantua and Palestrina friezes, the attic reliefs from the arch at Orange, the drawings of a fragment from the arch of Claudius; the battle scenes on the column of Trajan, and finally the great Trajanic frieze on the Arch of Constantine. How do they differ from and resemble the St. Rémy panels? What techniques do they retain? What innovations do they make? By answering these questions we will have a fuller picture of the significance of the panel-reliefs at St. Rémy.

Although the St. Rémy reliefs have been the subject of a recent dissertation (Columbia University, 1973) by Fred Kleiner, further study of the panels is necessary. Kleiner is concerned primarily with the degree to which the St. Rémy artist was dependent upon Greek models. He fully establishes the architectural and cultural background of the panels and does much tracing of specific motifs in Greek painting. However, he does not explore the Etruscan or South Italian connections for the compositions nor does he relate the St. Rémy traditions to early Imperial reliefs. There are also several areas, such as the iconography of the east panel and the identification of the pilum, in which his interpretation differs from the interpretations offered in this study. Therefore, this work both re-examines some of Kleiner's study and offers new material on the importance of the St. Rémy panels.

CHAPTER I

TOPOGRAPHY, ARCHITECTURE, AND DATE

A thorough study of the history and topography of the ancient site and of the architectural details of the mausoleum of the Julii has been presented by Henri Rolland in his monograph and by Fred Kleiner in his dissertation.¹ Therefore, only a summary of pertinent information will be offered here. Originally, the mausoleum stood on the western pomerium of the town of Glanum, which was located between the Rhone and the Durance rivers. The present town of St. Rémy is mediaeval.² Both the mausoleum and the arch adjacent to it (Illus. 1) stood along a road that was part of a major trade route from Italy to Narbonne and Spain. The general area around the site has a venerable history; excavations have uncovered a Celtic sanctuary that was linked to the Greek colony of Massilia (Marseilles) as early as the sixth century B.C.³ This contact with Greek culture is evident in the earliest phase of the development of Glanum as well; a hellenized settlement existed in the third and second centuries B.C. Archaeological evidence for this period indicates that Massiliote families settled in Glanum during this era. An extensive

urbanization program produced a large number of Greek-style buildings, including a bouleuterion and Delian-type houses. Greek artisans and tradesmen flourished. However, despite all this Greek influence there is in all the sculptural remains from these centuries no evidence for a Greek tradition of relief or statuary.⁴

The hellenized settlement was superseded by a romanized town. Roman legions entered the area around 125 B.C. and were always present thereafter. They brought few immediate cultural changes to the region, except the repression of the local Celtic deities. When Julius Caesar sacked the area in 49 B.C., the romanized phase ended and a "Gallo-Roman" period began.⁵ During this period, Latin inscriptions and Roman coins began to appear in quantity for the first time.⁶ Lively building activity also ensued; between 40 B.C. and 20 B.C., additions to Glanum included a bath complex, a basilica, a forum, a triumphal fountain decorated with statues of captives and reliefs of Greek arms, and the temples of Valetudo and of the Matres Glanicae.⁷

After Augustus consolidated his rule in Italy in 27 B.C., Narbonnaise Gaul enjoyed a new artistic climate inspired by the arrival of Italian artisans and Imperial commissions. Private and civic building projects also increased. According to Kleiner, it was during this period that privately commissioned sculpture first appeared; it had previously been unheard of to use family portraits in

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funerary reliefs, but such practice now became common.⁸

Glanum prospered throughout this final phase, which lasted until the destruction of the town in the third century A.D.⁹

Thanks to their isolated location near the foot of a mountain, both the mausoleum and the arch were spared destruction. These monuments stand on a small, circular plateau, with the mausoleum situated approximately 12.5 meters south of the arch.¹⁰ Until Rolland's study, scholars generally assumed both edifices were built as a public monument in honor of Caesar's conquest of Gaul. A date of 40 B.C. was suggested for the arch with a slightly later date for the mausoleum.¹¹ However, Rolland has noted that the mausoleum and the arch were not built in a parallel alignment or along the sides of a square as they would have been if they had been erected as complements in the same public memorial. Two different types of stone were used, and the compositions and technical execution of the two sculptural decorations are very different. There are no decorative figures common to the two monuments.¹² General consensus now dates the arch to the early years of Augustus' reign, perhaps ca. 20 B.C. during Agrippa's building program in the province.¹³ A slightly earlier date is likely for the mausoleum, for reasons that will be discussed later.¹⁴ Although the arch is a civic monument, it is probable that the mausoleum was built as a private memorial for a provincial who had perhaps distinguished himself in Caesar's campaigns, was rewarded with citizen-

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ship, and who then adopted the surname "Julius" in honor of his benefactor.¹⁵

A summary look at the physical aspects of the structure will produce some evidence for its date. The mausoleum consists of a lower cubic base decorated with four large relief panels, a median quadrifrons, and an upper tholos that shelters two statues under a conical roof (Illus. 1). A local variety of limestone was used as the building material. The corners of the lower cube are oriented with the cardinal points of the compass; the main, or northeast, face of the structure is almost parallel to the road that passes under the arch. Because of the decreasing width of each of the three stages, the mausoleum presents a slightly pyramidal profile; the base is 4.09 meters wide, the quadrifrons 3.505 meters, and the tholos (or rotunda) 2.92 meters. The total height of the structure is 17.15 meters.¹⁶

This basic architectural type appeared before St. Rémy, and debate has raged over its origins. Rolland mentions the prehistoric tumulus which may have been monumentalized in Syria; from Syria it spread to Asia Minor, Greece, and Italy, and from Carthage and Phoenicia to North Africa.¹⁷ Several very close parallels exist in Italy, including the Mausoleum of the Istacidii at Pompeii, a structure near Nettuno (now badly damaged), two tombs near Terni (now destroyed), the mausoleum at Fiumicello, and a tomb from the Via Annia near Altino. These

monuments date mostly from the late Republican and early Augustan periods.¹⁸ Similar structures are also found among the rock-cut tombs at Petra,¹⁹ and in at least one Pompeian wall-painting. This painting (Fig. 1), which comes from the crypta of the building of Eumachia, shows a building with a high, undecorated socle set on a stepped base. The socle is crowned by an open rotunda that is covered by a sloping pyramidal roof. This two-storied structure is built within an enclosure and in conjunction with a double-walled portico that is garlanded and closed by a gate. The entire complex may have been a funerary monument.²⁰ Whatever its specific origins may be, the monument at St. Rémy in turn probably served as the prototype for similar structures in Belgium and Germany that date to the second and third centuries A.D.²¹

Since the architectural and sculptural aspects of the base will be examined in the next chapter,²² only the quadrifrons and the rotunda will be described here. The quadrifrons was an excellent choice to accomplish a successful transition from the solid massiveness of the cubic base to the airiness of the open tholos. It follows a square plan whose sides average 4.32 meters in width. The average height of this stage is 6.045 meters.²³ At each of the exterior corners of the quadrifrons is an engaged column that is approximately 4.105 meters high and is engaged for one-quarter of its circumference. The lower portion of each column is carved from the same block as

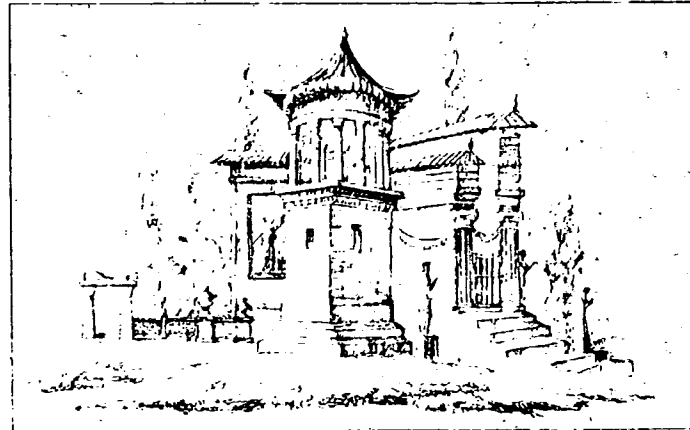


Fig. 1. Pompeian wall-painting. Crypta of the Building of Eumachia.

(Barré, Herculaneum et Pompéi, Vol. III, ser. 5, Pl. 30.)

its base, which is composed of two toruses. According to Rolland, such elements are characteristic of both Hellenistic buildings in Glanum and Republican buildings in Italy.²⁴ Each column is crowned by a "classical" Corinthian capital, which Rolland places at the end of a definite and obvious development from the capitals of the Agrippan temple of Valetudo to the Republican examples from the nearby indigenous sanctuary and a funerary monument that once stood near the mausoleum.²⁵ However, G. Charles-Picard has argued most convincingly that the closest parallels for the capitals of the mausoleum are to be found on the temple of Apollo Palatinus, dated ca. 28 B.C., and on the arch at Rimini, dated ca. 27 B.C. His study of other architectural details confirms this earlier date for the quadrifrons. He would consequently date the temple of Valetudo to 39 B.C.²⁶ His evidence has been substantiated by Kleiner, who notes that the capitals are distinguished by a "Zwickelblüte" that appeared first in Roman wall-paintings of the first century B.C. Additional Italian examples from the period between 40 B.C. and the end of the century include the Basilica Aemilia, the forum of Caesar, and the temple of Saturn; the arches at Susa and Aosta; a funerary monument from Maccaretolo; and capitals in Aquileia and Ravenna.²⁷ Another good comparison comes from the temple of Divus Julius, which was vowed in 42 B.C. and dedicated in 29 B.C.²⁸ All these capitals are carved in the 'Second Triumvirate style', which is char-

acterized by brittle carving of the leaves and a bold interplay of light and shadow.²⁹ This style was popular in the northern provinces by 30 B.C. The capitals at St. Rémy fit into the pattern of development of the type between 30 and 20 B.C.³⁰

Between the engaged columns are four pylons that serve as the walls of this stage. An arched bay, which is framed by two smooth pilasters and a decorated archivolt, opens in each facade. The archivolts are covered with acanthus leaves, stems, and flowers that are executed in very low relief. Because this relief is very linear, it is a probable indication of local workmanship. On the keystones of the arches, heads of Medusa between two outstretched wings are represented in very high relief.³¹ The entablature of the quadrifrons consists of a smooth architrave, a decorated frieze, and a cornice. Tritons and sea creatures adorn the frieze. On the northwest, southeast, and southwest facades, two winged tritons holding oars or clubs support a disk in the center of the panel. Two winged sea monsters in heraldic positions complete the scene. Although the poses of the tritons vary, it seems that in each case they are conceived of as the genii which will conduct the souls of the dead to the underworld.³² A different concept is apparent on the northeast facade. Here the center of the scene is held by a wingless triton who brandishes a rudder over his head as he turns to the right. He is battling the elements. The corners of the

panel are filled by two more tritons who repeat the gesture as they turn to the outside. Two winged sea monsters flank the central triton. Rolland notes that these sea monsters are similar, but not identical, to creatures on a denarius of Sextus Pompey that was minted in 43 B.C.³³ The dedicatory inscription, which will be discussed later,³⁴ is inscribed in the northeast architrave.

Ten monolithic Corinthian columns that are set on a circular socle define the circumference of the tholos. G. Charles-Picard considers these capitals "fully Augustan" and thinks they could possibly date as late as the middle of the first century A.D.³⁵ However, Kleiner describes them as "the classic Italo-Hellenistic variant of [the] Corinthian capital."³⁶ He cites numerous comparable examples, including the capitals of the basilica at Pompeii, the sanctuary of Fortuna at Palestrina, and the round temple at Tivoli, as well as capitals from various Pompeian houses and from Naples, Rome, Selinus, and Udine.³⁷ These comparisons as well as the existence of earlier, similar architectural examples from Italy refute the theory of Charles-Picard that the tholos is a later addition. The intercolumniations of the tholos vary from 0.41 to 0.51 meter. Both the flutes and the bead-and-reel decoration of the astragals are fully worked for only three-quarters of the circumference of the columns. The remaining quarter-round is left roughly worked. At the upper end of the shafts, the flutes do not extend to the end of the

column. Instead, they terminate in a concave meniscus, thus leaving a wide band or "Halsmantel" between the flutes and the upper end of the shaft. This device was especially popular in Republican Italy and in the area around St. Rémy during the last third of the first century B.C. It may have been introduced by the influx of Italian artisans after 49 B.C.³⁸ Because of damage by lightning, numerous repairs have been made on the rotunda. As a result, much of the original decoration and some of the original dimensions have been lost.³⁹

Similar damage and restoration have also greatly altered the appearance of the two limestone statues that stand under the rotunda. The statues are of equal size, and the original heads have been missing since before 1574. New heads were added in 1777 and extensive repairs in concrete were made after lightning struck the palla-clad figures in 1906 and again in 1914. It is obvious, however, that the originals were quite poorly worked; the backs were left unfinished.⁴⁰

Fortunately, the dedicatory inscription on the northeast architrave of the quadrifrons has fared well and is excellently preserved. It would have been visible to travellers going into Glanum along the road that passed under the arch. The characters are 0.13 meter high and were perhaps originally filled with red paint. A tran-

scription reads:

SEX · L · M · IVLIEI · C · F · PARENTIBVS · SVEIS

In 1761, the Abbé Barthélemy deciphered the abbreviations to produce the following reading: Sex(tus) L(ucius) M(arcus) Iuliei C(aii) f(ili) parentibus sueis. This interpretation is now universally accepted. Therefore, we know that the monument was erected by Sextus, Lucius, and Marcus Julius, sons of Gaius, in honor of their ancestors. Rolland has pointed out that "parents" is not an appropriate translation since the two statues in the rotunda are both men. He also concludes that the shape of the letters is indicative of an Augustan date and notes that the abbreviations are typical of Republican conventions. The use of the diphthong "-ei" also fits into this period, but it is a convention that persists until quite late in Narbonnaise Gaul and so cannot be used as a firm indication of an early date.⁴¹

Only one major question remains: what was the original purpose of the mausoleum? There is no provision for the deposit of a body, so a funerary function seems to be excluded.⁴² Could the monument have been a trophy? It is decorated with battle scenes and the architecture does contain triumphal elements, such as the quadrifrons. Charles-Picard recognized that such elements were merely imitated and that the monument was not intended as a trophy.⁴³ Rolland perhaps comes closest to its function when he describes the mausoleum as a cenotaph. In both

structure and decoration it is reminiscent of both funerary and honorific monuments; Rolland thinks that it may have been inspired by trophies that originated in Rome and that were related in structure to funeral pyres.⁴⁴ He goes on to argue that the monument was built specifically as a cenotaph for Augustus' grandsons, Gaius and Lucius Caesar. Therefore, he suggests a date of 4 A.D. for its construction.⁴⁵

This theory is untenable because both epigraphical and architectural considerations indicate an earlier date. The monument must have been built after 49 B.C., since Caesar completely sacked the area in that year.⁴⁶ Close parallels for the capitals of the columns of the quadrifrons are available on a number of monuments that date ca. 28-27 B.C.⁴⁷ The abbreviations that are used and the shape of the letters in the inscription are characteristic of the late Republic or of the early Augustan period.⁴⁸ An examination of the armament in the relief panels, which will be made in a later chapter,⁴⁹ shows primarily Greek and Hellenistic types of armor and weapons. This usage also suggests an early date, since later monuments show a greater appreciation of contemporary, realistic detail. Therefore, it seems probable that the mausoleum of the Julii was built for a provincial family between 30 and 25 B.C. and was intended as a cenotaph in honor of certain illustrious ancestors.

NOTES

¹Henri Rolland, Le Mausolée de Glanum, XXI^e Supplément à «Gallia» (Paris: Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, 1969), pp. 9-44; Fred Scott Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph: A Study of the Great Relief Panels (Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1973); pp. 54-66.

²Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 10.

³Ibid., p. 9; Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 18-19.

⁴Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 23-26.

⁵Ibid., pp. 28-29.

⁶Ibid., p. 29.

⁷Ibid., pp. 32-33; see also Henri Rolland, Fouilles de Glanum 1947-1956, XI^e Supplément à «Gallia» (Paris: Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, 1958), pp. 124, 19 note 1; where the temple of Valetudo is dated ca. 20 B.C.; Ranuccio Bianchi-Bandinelli, Rome, La Fin de l'art antique. L'art de l'empire romain de Septime Sévère à Théodose I^{er}, trans. by Jean-Charles and Evelyne Picard (Paris: Editions Gallimard, 1970), p. 142; François Chamoux, "Les Antiques de Saint-Rémy de Provence," Phoibos, VI-VII (1951-1953), p. 97.

⁸Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 35-37, 39-43.

⁹Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 9.

¹⁰Ibid.; see also Chamoux, "Les Antiques," p. 102.

¹¹Chamoux, "Les Antiques," p. 104.

¹²Rolland, Le Mausolée, pp. 16-17.

¹³Giovanni Becatti, The Art of Ancient Greece and Rome. From the Rise of Greece to the Fall of Rome, trans. by John Ross (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., [n.d.]), p. 314; Heinz Kähler, "Die Porta Aurea in Ravenna," RömMitt, 50 (1935), p. 212; Emile Espérandieu,

Recueil général des bas-reliefs de la Gaule romaine, Vol. I (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1907), p. 91, no. 114.

¹⁴See below, pp. 7, 9, 11-12.

¹⁵Henri Rolland, Glanum. Saint Rémy de Provence (Les Editions du Temps, 1960), p. 109; E. Hübner, "Die Bildwerke des Grabmals der Julier in Saint-Rémy," JdI, 3 (1888), p. 24.

¹⁶Rolland, Le Mausolée, pp. 19-20.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 71.

¹⁸Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 54-58.

¹⁹Gilbert Charles-Picard, Roman Painting, The Pallas Library of Art, IV (Greenwich, Connecticut: New York Graphic Society, 1968), p. 50, note to Pl. XXXI.

²⁰M. L. Barré, Herculaneum et Pompéi. Recueil général des peintures, bronzes, mosaïques, etc., Vol. III, ser. 5 (Paris: Librairie de Firmin Didot Frères, MDCCCXL), Pl. 30, from Regio VII, Insula ix, Building 1.

²¹Fernand Benoît, Art et dieux de la Gaule (Paris: B. Arthaud, 1969).

²²See below, pp. 17ff.

²³Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 29.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Ibid.

²⁶Gilbert Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines de l'art romano-provençal. Seconde partie: Sculpture." Gallia, XXII (1964), pp. 118, 119, 121.

²⁷Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 60-62.

²⁸Maria Floriani Squarciapino, "Il Fregio del Tempio del Divo Giulio," RendLinc, Ser. 8, 12 (1957), p. 283.

²⁹Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 68.

³⁰Ibid., p. 64.

³¹Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 30.

- ³²Ibid., p. 35.
- ³³Ibid., pp. 34-36.
- ³⁴See below, pp. 10-11.
- ³⁵Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 122.
- ³⁶Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 59.
- ³⁷Ibid., p. 60.
- ³⁸Ibid., pp. 65-66, where he includes as examples near St. Rémy: the temple at Vernègues, limestone columns in the theater at Arles, the arch at Carpentras, the destroyed "Arc Admirable" at Arles, and the temple of Valetudo and the sanctuary of the Imperial cult at Glanum.
- ³⁹Rolland, Le Mausolée, pp. 39, 41.
- ⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 41, 42, 44.
- ⁴¹Ibid., pp. 36, 67-69.
- ⁴²Ibid., p. 76.
- ⁴³Gilbert Charles-Picard, Les trophées romaines. Contribution à l'histoire de la Religion et de l'Art triomphal de Rome, BEFAR, Fasc. 187 (Paris: E. de Boccard, Editeur, 1957), pp. 155, 197; Klaus Fittschen, "Ein Feldherrnsarkophag im Thermenmuseum," RömMitt, 76 (1969), p. 14.
- ⁴⁴Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 78; Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 53, also note 21, points out that contemporary mausolea from Lyons provided for the deposit of ash urns in some nearby enclosure rather than within the major monument. The mausoleum of the Julii may fit into this category.
- ⁴⁵Marcel Pobe and Jean Roubier, The Art of Roman Gaul, a Thousand Years of Celtic Art and Culture (University of Toronto Press, 1961), p. 49.
- ⁴⁶Benoit, Art et dieux, p. 85.
- ⁴⁷Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 119.

⁴⁸ Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 68; Emanuel Löwy, "Die Anfänge des Triumphbogens," JKS, N.F. 2 (1928), p. 12.

⁴⁹ See below, Chapter III.

CHAPTER II

THE RELIEFS

Reliefs decorate the four sides of the socle of the mausoleum of the Julii. Single subject compositions are found on both the north and west sides, and compositions consisting of two distinct episodes are set on both the east and south sides.¹ The north panel depicts a cavalry battle, and the west panel shows an infantry battle. In the more complex east panel are two scenes: a tranquil gathering beside a river and a violent attack by a hero on foot against a horseman. Similarly, the south panel shows a tumultuous boar hunt and a quieter scene of the deposition of a corpse. This last relief will only be considered summarily since it does not involve a battle scene. It should also be remembered that the north side faced the road in ancient times and that the dedicatory inscription appears on this side of the quadrifrons.

The Architectural Context: Frames, Measurements, etc.

The socle itself rests on a slightly irregular, square sub-basement that is composed of several courses of undecorated stone (Illus. 1). Low steps at the base of the structure and an inclined pavement that surrounds the base

are modern restorations. Each lateral face of the socle is 4.90 meters long and 3.035 meters high.² At each corner of the cube is a pilaster, topped by a capital; these pilasters thus define the sides of each lateral face. Frames of this type were often used in various media, including mosaics,³ votive reliefs,⁴ and paintings. The evidence of two Etruscan urns⁵ and a lost terracotta brazier that was once in Munich⁶ suggests that a Pergamene painting of a galatomachy framed with pilasters and garlands once existed. Similar garlands, perhaps indicating a Pergamene influence, are suspended between the pilasters of each of the St. Rémy panels.⁷

The heavy, continuous garlands of laurel are supported by three winged genii and are decorated with four masks, one in each loop of the garland; this scheme is repeated across the top of each panel. Genii or putti supporting garlands also occur on Pergamene terracottas, reliefs, and mosaics of the second century B.C. For example, putti with heavy garlands decorated an altar of Eumenes II (ca. 160 B.C.)⁸ and an anta capital from the exedra of Diodoros (ca. 126 B.C.).⁹ The motif also appears in a mosaic from the northwest room of Palace V¹⁰ and on several examples of reliefware.¹¹ Garlands and masks, but without putti, were combined in the decoration of the skene of the theater at Pergamon.¹² It was not long before Italy adopted the combination of garlands and putti. This motif decorates an early first century B.C. tomb from the Via

Appia Antica¹³ and an altar from Pian di Bezzo at Sarsina.¹⁴ Under Augustus the combination flourished and spread widely throughout the provinces.

The surfaces occupied by the reliefs are framed along the top by the garlands and along the bottom by a cyma reversa molding set between two fillets. These moldings project approximately 0.275 meter beyond the main plane of the reliefs (Fig. 2).¹⁵ Each relief surface, because of the frames, is somewhat smaller than the dimensions of the socle itself. The north panel is 2.19 meters high and 3.79 meters long; the west panel is 2.17 meters high and 3.82 meters long; and the east panel is 2.20 meters high and 3.79 meters long.¹⁶

In each case the depth of the carving of the panel increases toward the bottom. Because the contour lines and figurā details are perfectly aligned, even across joins in the blocks, the carving must have been done after the panels were in position on the monument.¹⁷ The artist may have painted or lightly incised the outlines of a cartoon onto the surface of the stone before the chiselling began. Excess stone was then removed, leaving the various figures. Finally, the reliefs would have been painted, producing megalographic results.¹⁸

In analyzing each panel, it will be useful to follow Rolland's designations for the figures.¹⁹ These designations are shown in the schematic diagrams of the panels (Figs. 3, 5-7). Except for the south panel, each



Fig. 2. Horizontal and vertical section of the south panel relief. Mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy.

(Rolland, Le Mausolée, Fig. 17.)

panel will be studied in detail with a careful description of the characters, the action, and the subject matter. After this background has been established, we can then speculate about possible sources of inspiration for the compositions and attempt to trace the figural prototypes of certain individual motifs in order to reach some terminus post quem for the pictorial predecessors of the St. Rémy compositions. Then we will analyze the pictorial techniques of the panels, including the groove that outlines the contours of the figures. Finally, we will look at several early Imperial reliefs to see how the St. Rémy traditions survive or are modified during that period.

The South Panel -- A Boar Hunt (Illus. 2 and Fig. 3)

The most complete studies of the south relief have been made by François Chamoux²⁰ and Fred Kleiner,²¹ both of whom rightfully conclude that pictorial sources offered the inspiration for the composition. Good evidence for this pictorial heritage includes the obliquely foreshortened horses and the landscape element in the background. The overall action consists of two episodes that each occupy approximately one half of the panel. To the left of center, a group of men (Fig. 3: S5-7) support or mourn a wounded or dying male (S8). To the right of center, a number of figures are pursuing a boar.

The composition

In the deposition scene, the figures S5-8 occupy

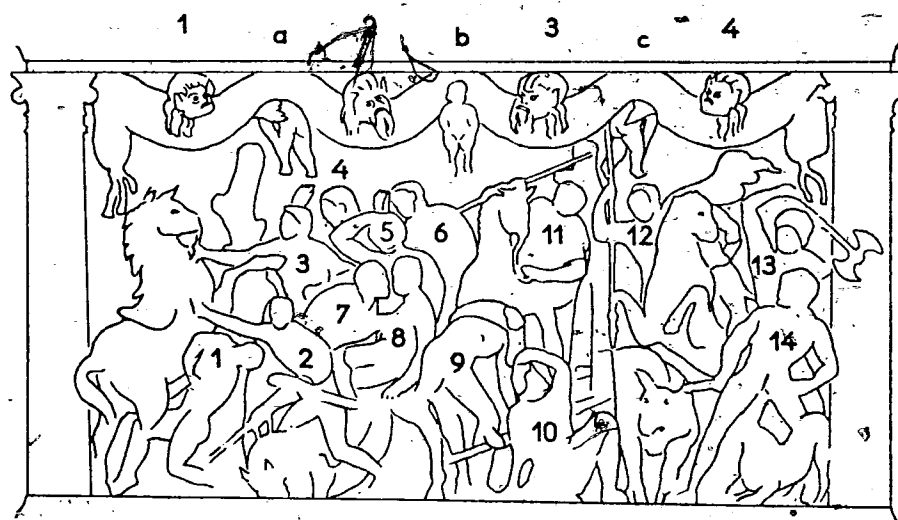


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of south panel.
Mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy.

(Rolland, Le Mausolée, Fig. 21.)

the middle plane and the background. The foreground is dominated by a horse that is falling with his rider S2. The horse's head is on the ground, his forelegs are crumpled beneath him, and he is seen in an oblique frontal view. To the far left, a man S1 is being overcome by a rearing horse, which another man S3 is attempting to subdue. The horseman S2 is trying to help S3 calm the animal, but S4 is merely watching the activity. The horse is shown in a three-quarter rear view, and his tail is incised into the enframing pilaster. A tree trunk is visible between the horse and S3. S1 and the horse's rear hooves are set in the foreground; the horse is rearing into the background. S3 and S4 share the middle plane and the background with the S5-8 group.

The contest with the boar also involves a large number of figures. Four men on foot (S9-10, 13-14), two horsemen (S11-12), and a dog (in the lower right corner of the panel) are attacking the boar as it emerges to the right from behind a tree trunk. The boar's body is seen in a three-quarter view with the head turned to the left as it curves around the tree trunk. Only the forequarters of the animal are visible. The two horsemen S11 and S12 flank the tree in complementary poses and attack the boar with spears. Their horses are rearing from the background into the foreground, their bodies are twisted into three-quarter views from the hindquarters, and their heads are shown in profile to the right. These poses are similar

to the poses of the horses in the north panel. Beside the right pilaster is a hunter S13 with a double ax that is incised into the pilaster. Below him in the foreground is a nude hunter S14, who is seen from the rear. The hound crouches at his feet. Also in the foreground and to the left of the boar and the tree are a hunter S10 who has fallen to his haunches and a companion S9 who is coming to his aid. S10, like S14, is seen from the rear, and he is similar to W15, who is seen from the rear in a crouching position in the right corner of that relief.

The south panel is unique among the reliefs at St. Rémy in the strongly diverse movement of the figures within the action and in the depiction of landscape elements. In the left half of the panel, the main action moves parallel to the relief ground. Even the horses conform to this plane, although their poses do suggest the existence of greater depth. In the right half, however, the major action moves in a plane perpendicular to the relief ground. The boar and the two horsemen S11 and S12 emerge dramatically from the background, and the hunters S9 and S13 also move from the middle plane or the background toward the boar. We have a similar arrangement in the east panel (Illus. 7), but because the tempo of the episodes is so different the effect is not so pronounced.

Also in the east panel locale is suggested, but by the presence of a river god E1 rather than by any indication of a specific natural landscape. The tree trunks of

the south panel, however, provide a nice statement of outdoor setting. Some landscape "props" might have been painted in the other panels. There is a possibility, for example, that there was a painted groundline in the west panel (especially under the feet of W2).²² However, we can only speculate about these elements because the sculptured tree trunks of the south panel are the only remaining landscape details.

The numerous figures in the south panel are arranged in a tiered composition, much like the compositions of the west and east panels (Illus. 6 and 7).²³ At least four rows of figures fill the scene. The rearing, riderless horse, S1, S2 and his horse, S10, the boar, S14, and the dog stand in the foreground; S7, S8, and S9 occupy the near middleground; S3, S5, and S13 fill the far middleground; and finally, S4, S6, S11, and S12 are in the background. No attempt has been made to show the varying groundlines. The figures are tightly massed around each other and are often involved in impossible actions (such as the supporting of S8; the attempt of S2 to subdue the rearing horse).²⁴

The interpretation

Tiered compositions were popular in vasepainting from the time of the Niobid Painter, and they were a favorite in Etruscan art as well. This type of composition is found on an Etruscan mirror that shows a boar hunt (Fig. 4).²⁵ The mirror recalls the St. Rémy composition in several ways. A large number of human figures, clus-

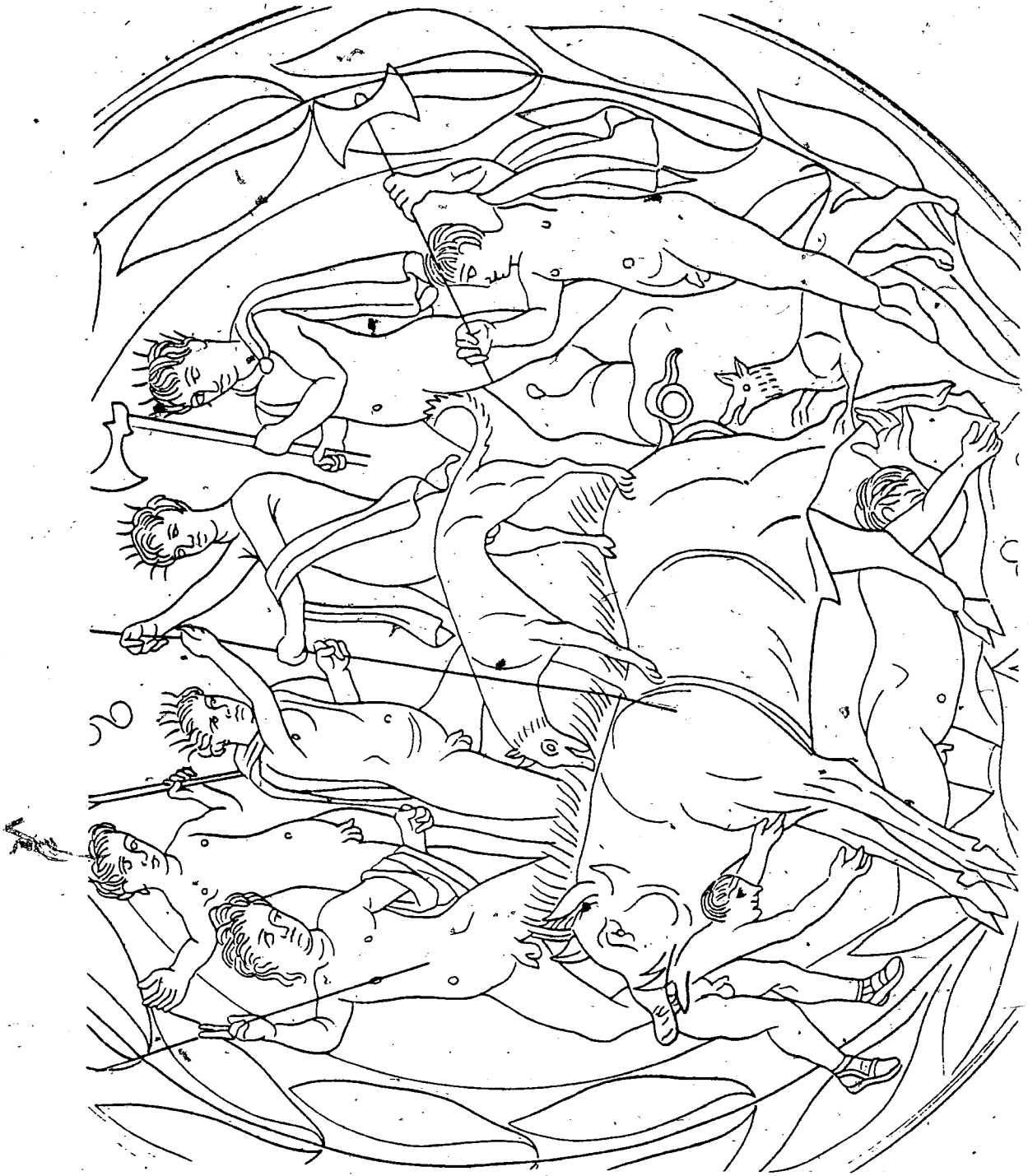


Fig. 4. Boar hunt from the Bartholdy mirror. Etruscan.
Berlin, Staatliches Museen.

(Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Bd. II, Taf. clxxiii.)

tered around and behind a large boar that is seen in profile in the foreground, fill the field of the mirror. The figure with the double ax at the right is reminiscent of S13; he is moving in from the middleground and his upraised ax overlaps the border that encircles the mirror, just as S13's ax overlaps the pilaster. A notable painted example is an Apulian krater (ca. 330 B.C.) that is now in Trieste (Illus. 3).²⁶ This boar is very much like the St. Rémy animal because he is emerging from behind a rocky promontory, and his body is seen in a three-quarter view; his head is turned in profile to the left. Kleiner has shown that this vase is one of the earliest examples of a boar in this position rather than in profile.²⁷

Obviously, boar hunts, whether the famous Calydonian hunt or a more generalized version, were popular in South Italy from the fourth century on. It seems likely that some common pictorial source inspired many of these representations and that the St. Rémy artist may have been familiar with this source or an adaptation of it. The St. Rémy panel most probably is not based on a single painting, however. Various scholars have identified the left scene as the death of Meleager²⁸ or the death of the Niobids.²⁹ Kleiner presents a survey of the evidence that confirms the adaptation of motifs from these two sources. He concludes that the St. Rémy master freely excerpted from both these mythological cycles and possibly others as well to create a new composition.³⁰ He also thinks that these

motifs were chosen by the artist in order to depict "some event of contemporary biographical significance."³¹ I prefer to think that this panel and the east panel reflect a pictorial, mythological cycle popular at the time. The artist had access to sketches or notebooks of these cycles, perhaps compiled in South Italy.³²

Since no figure in this panel (or in any of the other panels) suggests a representation in portraiture and since most attempts to find specifically contemporary elements are dubious at best,³³ I cannot accept a biographical interpretation for the south composition. The artist chose a scene typical for a funerary monument. Mythological hunt scenes were commonly used in a funerary context to celebrate the virtus of the deceased.³⁴ In this particular panel, motifs from a number of myths were combined, resulting in some confusion and strange confluences, especially to the eye of the modern critic. However, there is no reason to suppose that the subject of the panel was not totally intelligible to the artist's contemporaries. It seems to me that the patron of this monument requested a mythological hunt scene which the artist created by adapting episodes from pictorial mythological cycles. I would, therefore, agree with Peter von Blanckenhagen that this panel (and the east panel as well) is a "conflation of two [or more] Hellenistic paintings"³⁵ and that for that reason it is characterized by "a multiplicity of dramatic happenings and dispersal of emotional interest."³⁶ We shall see in

our consideration of the battle scenes in the St. Rémy panels that such multiplicity was also thought to be essential to monumental paintings of the fourth century B.C., according to Nicias, a painter of the period.³⁷

The North Panel -- A Cavalry Battle (Illus. 5 and Fig. 5)

The composition

The battle is seen at its height. Neither side is giving way, but two men have already fallen. N2, N3, and N5 (see Fig. 5) constitute a side; they are opposing N1, N4, and N7, but it is impossible to tell to which side the fallen N6 belongs. The lower right corner of the panel has been damaged and repaired with a smooth block of stone. Even though the feet of two of the genii, the tassels on the ends of the garland, and the garland itself touch, overlap, or are obscured by various weapons, they form no integral part of the scene. No landscape elements are depicted; the surface against which the actors are deployed is a neutral area. The joins of the individual blocks are clearly visible.

Just as there is no indication of landscape, there is no indication of a varying groundline. All the horses and the fallen warriors use the baseline of the panel as the groundline. The artist has maintained a basic iscephaly of the figures, although there are subtle, yet effective, exceptions. As he rears and twists to allow N2's use of his shield, the horse pulls his head back and

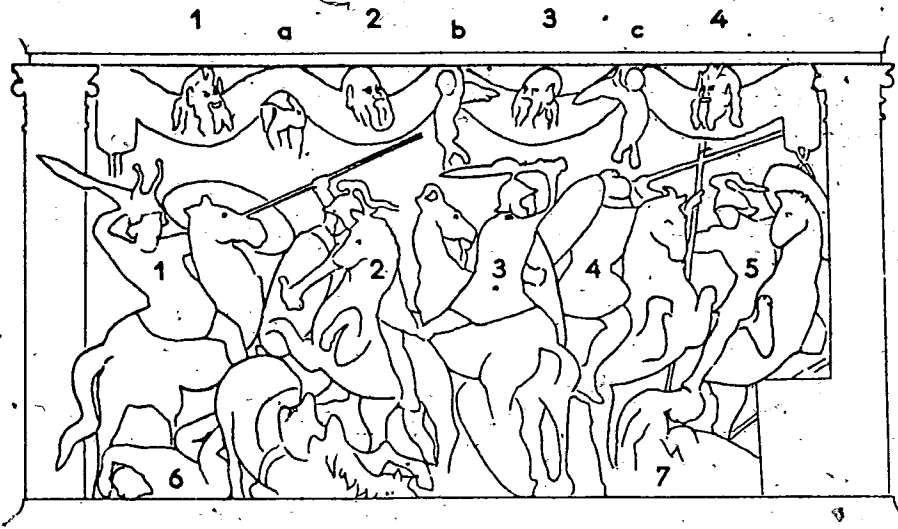


Fig. 5. Schematic diagram of north panel.
Mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy.

(Rolland, Le Mausolée, Fig. 18.)

down; this action results in his head's being slightly lower than the line maintained by the heads of the other horses. Likewise, the heads of N3 and N4 are slightly higher than the line of the heads of the other mounted warriors. This small detail is really quite important from an artistic perspective; since these two warriors are seen from the rear as their horses plunge in planes diagonal to the relief ground, they would, in fact, seem to be deeper in the background than the warriors who fight in profile or frontally in a plane parallel to the relief ground.

The impression of confusion in the midst of battle is conveyed by various devices, which also give the relief a definite pictorial quality. The combatants are crowded into the panel, their spears and swords are set at conflicting angles and sometimes overlap, the bodies of men and horses overlap, and the horses strain and twist as they fight. In order to attempt to create greater depth to the field, the artist employed foreshortening, especially with the horses N6, N3, N4, and N5. This attempt was subtly reinforced by the positioning of the heads of N3 and N4 and of the horse N2. Originally, when the partially rounded legs of all the horses were in place, they would have cast considerable shadows along the lower part of the panel. More overlappings would have also been created to heighten the sense of depth and confusion. The effect would have been especially dramatic toward the center of

the panel, where the legs of the horses N3 and N4 are now almost entirely missing.

The characters

Three duels are taking place. To the left, N1 opposes N2 over the body of N6 and his fallen horse. In the center of the scene, N3 is in combat with N4. Finally, to the right, N5 on horseback deals a death blow to the unhorsed N7. Each of these groups will be considered in detail.

N1, N2, N6

N1 wears a hemispherical, antennaed helmet with a neckguard. His face is damaged, but the features can still be discerned; he faces right with his head in profile but turned slightly toward the viewer. The cuirass is smooth and could be made of metal or leather; it has a bordered neckline and ends in a skirt composed of two tiers of lappets. There may or may not be short sleeves showing over the upper arm. A baldric passes across his breast to a belt with an upper and lower border and a buckle that is too damaged to show its shape clearly; a scabbard presumably hangs from this belt at N1's left side. His bare right leg is seen, but the calf and foot are hidden behind the horse N6.

N1's torso is turned from the waist toward the viewer and is, therefore, seen frontally; he sits firmly astride his rearing mount. On his left arm, which is extended behind his horse's head, is a round, convex shield

that is seen from the inner side. The horse's head is silhouetted against the shield. N1's right arm, bent at the elbow, is raised, and in his hand is a large sword that is somewhat damaged around the hilt. The blade is long and broad and ends in a sharp point. Almost half the blade overlaps the enframing pilaster and is defined on it by incision; the blade covers the ends of the tassels on the garland.

N1's horse's rear legs were firmly planted along the baseline of the panel. The lower portions are now missing, but they were probably worked almost wholly in the round.³⁸ The left leg would have been set beside the head of N6 with the right one set behind his body. The front legs, which supposedly would be pawing the air in attack against N2, are not shown.

To create the impression that the horse is standing in the foreground and is rearing into the background, the artist has relied upon foreshortening. The animal's movement is intensified by the torsion of his body around his hindquarters and by the twisting of his head to avoid the lance of N2. In addition, the neck is bowed and the short natural mane lies limp. His tail, like the sword of his rider, overlaps the pilaster bordering the left side of the panel and is incised into it. The tack includes a bridle with reins, a breaststrap, and a saddlecloth with a continuous border.

N2 wears a helmet that is very different from the

that is seen from the inner side. The horse's head is silhouetted against the shield. N1's right arm, bent at the elbow, is raised, and in his hand is a large sword that is somewhat damaged around the hilt. The blade is long and broad and ends in a sharp point. Almost half the blade overlaps the enframing pilaster and is defined on it by incision; the blade covers the ends of the tassels on the garland.

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N2 wears a helmet that is very different from the

one worn by N1. It has wide cheekpieces, a neckguard, a flowing double crest, and ornamentation above the visor, ear, and neckguard. The face is seen in profile to the left. Because N2 is leaning to his right and forward into the attack, his torso is hidden behind his horse's head and neck. Nevertheless, a scabbard, suspended at his left side from a belt, is visible. A short skirt of lappets lies across the thigh of his bare left leg; the lower calf and foot have been broken away. The bare right foot is visible under the horse's belly.

Only the wrist and hand of the right arm are visible, but the arm is poised beside N2's head and is directing a spear against N1. The shaft of the spear, which is incised into the relief ground, passes under the garland and across the face of N1's horse; the point is damaged. The left arm is held in a most unnatural position. It is extended beside the horse's neck and behind his head. The elbow is turned toward the viewer, and the hand, its back toward the surface of the convex shield, grasps a grip in the middle of its inner side. Because the shield has been considerably damaged, its exact shape is unclear. This twisting of N2's arm to support his shield without hitting his horse's head is a virtuoso display of artistic technique.

N2's horse counterbalances N1's horse. His hind legs are set in the background, and he rears into the foreground. The right hind hoof is hidden behind N6's fallen

horse; the left hoof, which is now missing, was set beside the fallen horse and was probably worked at least partially in the round. Between the hind legs, the tail is visible, deeply incised into the relief ground. The artist has again relied upon foreshortening and torsion to convey the violent movement of the animal; the neck, perhaps with a cropped mane, is strongly bowed and pulled back and toward his rider's left. His front legs lash out against N1's mount; the lower portions of the legs are missing, but they too were probably worked in the round, as was the muzzle, which is also missing. A saddlecloth flaps around N2's left leg; the horse also wears a breaststrap and a bridle with reins.

The poses of N6 and his mount are the most complicated in this panel and, indeed, on the entire monument. N6 has fallen to the left. He has landed on the ground on his right side with his arms bent above his head. His torso, which is too damaged to allow any detailed comment on his dress (he may wear a cuirass and baldric), is seen frontally; his body is twisted at the waist so that his legs, which are bent double and are entangled with the horse, are turned at a three-quarter angle. The right leg is seen completely in profile, while the left leg has started to fall toward the ground. His head with the mouth open is thrown so far back that he seems to be looking toward the left pilaster. He wears a helmet that may be similar to the one worn by N4, but it is badly damaged.

The horse is falling in a sharply foreshortened pose. He is rolling down on his right shoulder with his neck already lying on the ground. His head is also on the ground, but only the top of the head is visible. The right front leg is bowed back under the body and cannot be seen; the left leg is bent at an awkward angle and the hoof flails the ground. His hindquarters are still standing, but have started to collapse. It is obvious that, in a matter of seconds, the horse will be stretched out on his right side along the base of the panel. Because the horse's back is in full view of the spectator, the details of his saddle are clear. The seat of the saddle is stippled, a saddlecloth is under the saddle; a girth runs around the horse's belly, and a tailpiece runs down the center of the rump. All the gear has shifted to the horse's left side as he falls. The tangled reins are also visible.

N3, N4

N3 is behind N2 and occupies the center of the panel. His helmet is identical to the one worn by N2, with the exception of the ornamentation. Its crest drapes over and behind the sword. The face is seen in profile to the right. He is seen from the back as he sits astride his horse and turns from the waist to the right to strike at N4. N3 wears a smooth cuirass that ends in two rows of lappets; short sleeves may be visible over his upper arm. A baldric passes over his right shoulder to a belt with an upper and a lower edging. A scabbard rests on his bare

left thigh; the left calf disappears behind N2's horse. His right arm, which is partially concealed by N4's shield, is raised, brandishing a sword against N4. The blade of the sword is long and broad and accentuated by a midrib; the pommel is visible and the point is sharp. Incision defines the blade against the background. N3 is holding a badly damaged shield in his left hand; its edge extends from N3's shoulder to the tail of his horse. A loose round shield is visible between the horse's legs.

His horse had its hind legs, which are now almost entirely missing from the haunches down, planted in the foreground. The legs were probably worked in the round as was the tail which is partially missing. This horse, like all the horses in this panel, is rearing; he is foreshortened so that he seems to be moving into the background and turning to the right toward his opponent. His neck is strongly turned toward the right, the mane is thick and natural, and the head is in profile to the right. The horse wears a bridle with long reins (one rein falls across the lappets of the rider's skirt) and a saddlecloth with a border along the outer edge.

N4 also wears a smooth cuirass that ends in two rows of lappets. A baldric passes over his right shoulder to a belt that has a narrow border around the top and bottom. He wears a round helmet with a broad visor and neck-guard and no crest. The feet of one of the genii encroach upon the helmet. His face is obscured by an oval or

round shield that is held high on his left shoulder. A spear is held aloft in the right hand; only the shaft, incised into the background, is visible as it passes behind N4's head, behind N5's spear, and under the ends of the garland. N4, like N3, is seen from the rear. He turns at the waist to face N3, who is behind him. Despite this half-revolution, his body from the waist down remains in profile. His bare right leg and foot are clearly shown.

The horse stands in the background and rears toward the right into the foreground. Both hind legs are visible, but the front legs, which would have been partially in the round and above the head of N7, have been broken off below the knees. There is little torsion in this animal's body, unlike the mounts of N1-3 and N5. The mane is crimped and the muzzle has been broken. A plain saddlecloth and bridle and stippled reins and a stippled breastpiece make up the tack.

N5, N7

N5 wears a ~~plain~~ cuirass with large epaulets at the shoulders. A baldric passes over the right shoulder to a belt with edging that is cinched by a circular buckle. The outfit is completed by a flapping skirt of two rows of lappets and by a helmet that is identical to the one worn by N3. His face is seen in a three-quarter view, and the gaze is directed down at N7.

The spectator sees N5's body frontally. He sits

astride his horse with his bare right leg, its foot disappearing behind N7's head, clearly visible; the remains of his left leg on the far side of the horse are discernible beneath the horse's belly. From the waist his body is inclined forward and to the left. The left arm is hidden behind the horse's head, but it supports a round, convex shield that is seen from the inner side as it silhouettes the horse's head. The right arm is bent upward at a right angle and is directing a spear downward into the neck of N7. Much of the shaft of the spear is hidden behind the garland and behind N4's horse. That part of the shaft that passes across the background is defined by incision.

The horse stands in the background and rears forward and into the left foreground. His body is foreshortened and curved to produce a serpentine effect. The front legs, which are missing and were partially worked in the round, paw the air above the damaged corner of the panel. It is possible that the left leg overlapped, or at least overshadowed, the enclosing pilaster. Also missing is the animal's muzzle; his head is turned toward the left where the horse of N4 encroaches upon him. This set of bridle, reins, and breaststrap is undecorated.

N7 is badly damaged, but he seems to wear the usual plain cuirass with lappets. He is seated on the ground with at least one leg extended toward the right; the other leg may be bent over the extended leg. His body and leg are seen in profile; the back is bowed, and the head is bent

toward the ground. The face is seen in profile. It is impossible to tell if he was helmeted. His shield is on the ground behind and beside him, but it is largely covered by his body. The spear N7 carried goes off at an oblique angle under the belly of N5's horse and beneath its front legs. Its shaft is incised into the relief ground.

The interpretation

It is now appropriate to take a brief look at the various suggestions that have been offered for the sources of the composition of the north panel. Before careful comparative studies of the armament were made, the general assumption was that the panel showed a Caesarian battle between Gauls and Romans. Hübner in 1888 even attempted to identify the Julii (father and son) among the combatants.³⁹ It is now generally agreed that the details of the armament will allow no such particular identification of nationalities, much less individuals.⁴⁰ However, one of the more controversial theories of recent years is loosely based on the assumption of specific nationalities.

G. Charles-Picard argues that the sculptor of St. Rémy, whom he calls "Glanicus",⁴¹ adopted his composition directly from a victory monument of Servilius Pulex Geminus, a hero of the Second Punic War. This monument is supposedly reflected on a denarius struck in 120 or 94 B.C. by a descendant of this Servilius.⁴² The coin shows a mounted warrior clad in a helmet and cloak and armed with a lance and round shield attacking from the right; the horse is

stretched out in a flying lunge. This figure is identified as Servilius. Both Servilius and his horse are seen entirely in profile. To the left, his opponent is astride a horse that is falling to the left in a foreshortened pose. The warrior, clad in armor and helmet and brandishing a sword, is seen from the back as he strikes at Servilius; his head is seen in profile. He carries a very large, possibly oval shield that is only half-shown on the coin; a central rib and eight large bosses decorate the face of the shield. Charles-Picard fancifully equates this composition with the central figures N3 and N4 of the north panel.

It is impossible to accept this theory since the two scenes are really very different, with the exception of the pose of N3. Charles-Picard would attribute to artistic taste the reversal of roles that occurs at St. Rémy, assuming it were derived from the monument shown on the coin. The warrior on the left of the coin (N3 on the panel) has been removed from a position of imminent defeat and made the attacker. His opponent's pose has been entirely altered; there is no similarity between the Servilius of the coin and N4 of the panel, other than the fact that each carries a lance and a round shield of some sort. The helmets of the figures on the coin have been reversed with N3 and N4. No embossed shield appears in the relief panel. It seems much more likely that the inspiration came from sources that were mutual to the two artists. Several possibilities for such a source have been suggested.

Charbonneaux has commented that a figure analogous to N3 and to the figure on the coin was part of the sculptural group at Delphi that showed the combat between Philopoemen and the king of Sparta.⁴³ Garger advocated Etruscan urns as a likely source for the motif.⁴⁴ Recent opinion, however, has tended to support the acceptance of a pictorial source, probably of the late fourth century B.C. or of the Pergamene school. Some of the most convincing evidence for such Hellenistic pictorial prototypes has been offered by F. Chamoux, who has concentrated primarily on the south panel.⁴⁵ He argues that the crowded field, the vivid animation, and the grand concept of the north composition are sure indications that the panel "reproduit...un motif hellénique du IV^e siècle."⁴⁶ He offers for comparison the Alexander mosaic from the House of the Faun, which we will consider in a later chapter,⁴⁷ and concludes that because of such inspiration the sculptures at St. Rémy are "grands tableaux de pierre," whose conception is "plastique" but "essentiellement picturale."⁴⁸

A similar argument has been made by Andreae, who concludes that the prototype for the cavalry battle should be placed "in hochhellenistische Zeit."⁴⁹ In his study of "der zurückgewandt kämpfende Reiter,"⁵⁰ he maintains that the simplest rendition of the motif appears toward the end of the fifth century B.C. in the friezes of the temple of Athena Nike; it is found later in the friezes of the Nereid Monument and of the Heroon at Gjölbashi. Here the rider

attacked a footsoldier. Even earlier, in Classical vase-paintings, similar foreshortenings and pulling back of the horse's head appear.⁵¹ Further similarities occur in the treatment of perspective in the Kertsch hydrias of the late fourth century.⁵² Although Andreae is correct in comparing the reliefs from the mausoleum with the Alexander mosaic, especially with regard to the use of diagonal movement to convey the impression of a deep relief field,⁵³ he is mistaken when he states that a diagonal and contrapostal arrangement of horses in foreshortened poses does not occur in relief sculpture before the panels at St. Rémy.⁵⁴ There is at least one horse from the frieze of the monument of Aemilius Paullus at Delphi that is amazingly similar to the horses in the north panel.⁵⁵

Kleiner is convinced that the cavalry battle is "a near-copy of a single painting."⁵⁶ He likens the foreshortenings to representations in various media of the late fourth and early third centuries B.C. Using the additional evidence of literary testimonia on the popularity of equestrian combats as subjects, he concludes that the pictorial prototype for the north panel very likely dates to this period.⁵⁷ He theorizes that the actual painting or at least a copy of it was in Italy after 46 B.C. and that cartoons or sketches of it reached Gaul shortly thereafter.⁵⁸ Local elements (such as the horned helmet) were then integrated into the design to formulate a connection with the deeds of the deceased.⁵⁹

While I agree that Kleiner is correct in saying that the composition should be considered "generic" rather than specific and that it is "not the invention of an Augustan sculptor,"⁶⁰ I think that we cannot assume a single Greek painting as the direct prototype of the composition. Even though many of the motifs may ultimately have originated in a single painting, they would have been used numerous times in battle paintings since their creation. Furthermore, G. Charles-Picard is probably correct when he suggests a certain degree of interdependence between the commemorative group created by Lysippos for Alexander the Great and the historical paintings by Philoxenos of Eretria and others.⁶¹ Such an interdependence would certainly have affected the St. Rémy prototypes as well. The master of St. Rémy surely drew upon pictorial ideas of the late fourth and the third centuries, but those ideas had filtered through Pergamene and Etruscan intermediaries before reaching him. Some motifs definitely originated in painting, but others may well have been adapted from sculptural groups such as the one created by Lysippos for Alexander. The horsemen N1-5 show a pictorial heritage, but the fallen N7 could easily be an addition from a sculptural group. Therefore, I think it better not to identify a single Greek painting as the direct prototype of the composition, but rather to assume an interdependence between several pictorial and perhaps sculptural sources.

The West Panel -- An Infantry Battle (Illus. 6 and Fig. 6)
The composition

Unlike the north panel, no duels figure in the composition of the west panel's infantry battle. Again the battle is heated; no one is in retreat. The main part of the contest rages around the body of W10 (see Fig. 6). Another warrior W3 has also fallen, but he seems to be only wounded. It would appear that W2, W8, W9, and W13 (and probably W3, W4, W10, W11, W14, and W15) belong to one side; they are fighting W1 and W5 and probably W6, W7, and W12.⁶² W2, W9, and W13 wear helmets identical to ones worn by N2, N3, and N5. W8, W14, and W15 wear a different helmet.

No sculptural landscape elements are depicted, but there is clear evidence that at least some details of terrain were indicated by another means, presumably painting. Most of the figures (i.e., W1, 3-5, 10, 11, 15) stand on a groundline defined by the baseline of the panel. However, the feet of W2 and W8 now appear to be "standing" on thin air. Obviously, in its original state, rocks or hilly terrain would have appeared under foot. This fact further enhances the pictorial quality of the panel and is good evidence for a close relationship with painted precedents.

Furthermore, there is a definite attempt to indicate depth in this panel. There are four gradations or ranks of figures. In the foreground are the figures who are grounded on the baseline of the panel. There are two groups in the near middle ground: W6 and 9 and W13 and 14

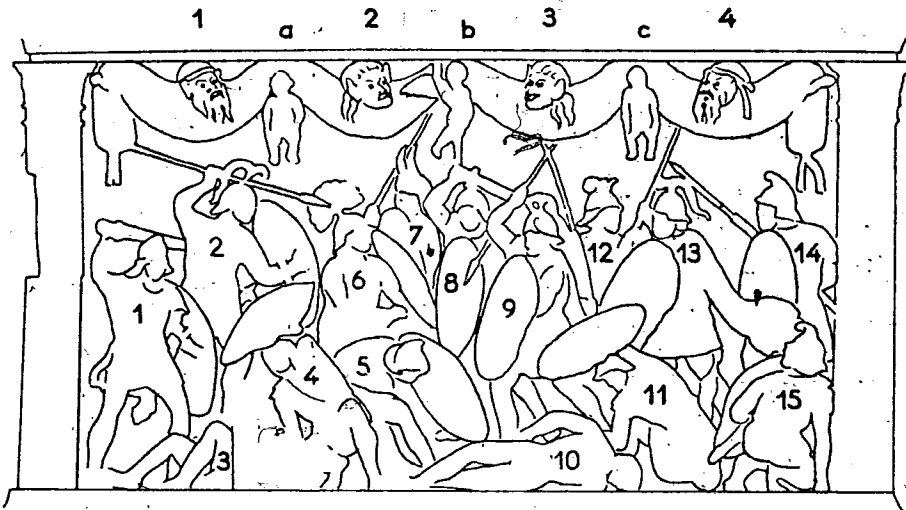


Fig. 6. Schematic diagram of west panel.
Mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy.

(Rolland, Le Mausolée, Fig. 19.)

(each pair is isocephalic). In the far middle ground are W2 and W8. W7 and W12 hold the background; although W7's head is slightly higher, the two men are probably equally deep into the background. The relief ground in this panel is again conceived as a neutral surface against which the figures are massed. Once again a groove is used to define volumes in a virtually flat plane and to accentuate forms to allow for a greater chiaroscuro effect. Its use can create the illusion of depth where little actually exists (e.g., where the horns of W7's helmet overlap his spear). The folds of the garments are more deeply channelled than in the north panel, but the shadowed effects are not achieved by drilled grooves.

This panel is even more crowded with figures than is the north panel. The action is not geometrically perfect, although certain balances do exist. All quarters of the panel are crowded and tumultuous. However, the right lower corner is quite cramped while the left lower corner has empty space between the leg of W1 and the enframing pilaster; W1 also bends his arm sharply to stay within the panel, in contrast to E1 and N1 (Figs. 7 and 5) who overlap their pilasters. No part of this composition overlaps the frame. Also, there is no obvious geometric center to the action, unless one draws an imaginary line down from the genius that supports the center of the garland. Finally, a certain balance is created by the two crouching warriors W4 and W11 defending their fallen comrades, but

it is not a contrapostal arrangement as in the north composition. Differences in the poses of both the wounded and their defenders create a somewhat lop-sided balance as the action surges across the panel.

The characters

Several groups suggest themselves within the composition. In the left corner of the panel, W1 moves to the right to attack W3 who has fallen to the ground; W4 holds his shield over W3's head and attempts to raise him to his feet. The main part of the action is concentrated in and to the right of the center of the panel; W11 defends the corpse of W10 while an enemy W5 crouches at its feet and W9 and W13 rush in from the right background to offer assistance to W11. In the background behind the right portion of this group, W12 turns to the right to see the approach of W14; W15, who crouches in the lower right corner, also observes the approach of W14. It may be that W12, who does not seem at all agitated, is calling to his comrades W14 and W15 for additional assistance. The final grouping holds the central background, but it is difficult to determine the sides to which all the figures belong. W2 is moving from the left brandishing his spear. W6 is facing W8, who is attacking from the right. Farther in the background, W7 seems to be moving against W2 in order to aid W6.

W1, W3, W4

W1 wears a type of muscle cuirass. The armor is molded to fit the contours of the body, the abdomen is

protected, and the armor rests high on the hips, with cut-outs to allow free movement of the legs. A loose skirt without lappets flaps around and between his bare legs. Short sleeves cover the upper arms. A baldric crosses the chest from the right shoulder and attaches to a scabbard on the warrior's left side, where it is visible under his left arm; there is no belt around the waist. His face is badly damaged, but was probably seen in a three-quarter turn to the right. The helmet, although damaged, seems to match the helmet worn by W5. W1 is launching a vigorous attack against W3 and W4. He is striding forward and to the right on his left leg; his legs are wide apart and are seen frontally. The lower torso is also frontal, but the upper torso is slightly turned at the waist to allow the best stroke downward at W3 and W4. A long sword is raised in the right hand above and behind the warrior's head; a convex, round or oval shield, visible from the inner side, is carried along the body on the left arm.

Much less can be said about W3 because of his badly damaged condition. His bare legs, stretched out toward the left corner of the panel, are still clearly visible, so it is possible to deduce his pose. The right leg is extended at a 120-degree angle, and the left leg is sharply bent in front of the right leg at a 45-degree angle. Apparently the warrior is attempting to push himself toward the right. Part of a skirt of lappets is visible across the left thigh. The head and torso would presumably have been

under W4's shield.

W4 is much better preserved, although his facial features, right arm, left foot, and right leg have been largely obliterated. He is kneeling on his right knee with his right leg seen in profile and is attempting to lift W3 with his right hand while he protects himself and his comrade with his shield, which is held aloft on his left arm. The shield is round and convex and is adorned with a round, central boss from which rays radiate outward to a smooth band that marks the edge. His body is inclined to the left to afford better protection to his comrade and to allow better leverage; the body is frontal, and the face is in profile to the left. The extended left arm and muscles along the left side of the rib cage present a smooth line. W4's left leg is seen frontally and at a slightly oblique angle. The foot, which is now missing, was probably worked partially in the round and was thus projecting to some extent over the base of the panel. To the viewer, the foot would seem foreshortened. The smooth cuirass is similar to examples from the north panel. A baldric goes across the chest and right shoulder. Narrow lappets are barely visible beneath a belt around the waist.

W10, W11, W5, W9, W13

W10 has also suffered considerable damage, but much about him is clear. He is stretched out on his left side along the baseline of the panel. His body and legs are seen frontally. The right leg is flexed at the knee and

crosses over the left leg which is extended along the groundline. It seems definite that W10 is dead, since he lies completely limp and makes no attempt to raise his body from the ground. His right arm is held slightly away from the body by W11, who is attempting a rescue. The corpse appears completely nude, although a helmet might have existed before the head was damaged. The head, according to Rolland, was tilted toward the ground.⁶³

The would-be rescuer W11 kneels on his left leg, which is foreshortened with the thigh presented frontally and the rest of the leg bent back under the body and out of view. His right leg, partly hidden behind W10, is seen in profile and is bent at a 120-degree angle. Although the pose is very similar to the stance of W4, W11 is straining more in order to lift a dead weight with no help; he is reaching down with his right arm (which Rolland says is not shown)⁶⁴ and is holding his shield above his head and toward the left. The shield is round with a large circular boss in the center and "horns" radiating to the edge; it casts a shadow over his face, which is seen in profile looking down at W10. It is hard to determine the details of his armor because of the damaged condition of the panel. There is a baldric over the right shoulder and across the chest to a bordered belt with a circular buckle. Short sleeves and a skirt of two rows of lappets are also visible. The warrior wears a helmet, but its details are obscured by the shield; it may have cheekpieces.

W5 is similar in appearance to W1 and has been dubbed an enemy of W10 and W11 for that reason. His pose could otherwise be construed as that of a comrade assisting W11 to remove the body of W10. As he crouches from the waist to the right, he exposes about three-quarters of his back to the spectator. His left leg is extended toward W10 at a 120-degree angle and braces his weight. Although the slabs have been damaged, it seems that W5 is reaching toward the feet of W10 with his right hand and is looking toward the corpse with his face in profile to the viewer. The left arm, which is partially extended from the shoulder, supports a round, convex shield, which is seen from the inside where the arm passes through a band. It would seem that the left hand grasped a grip or support toward the rim of the shield. Only two pieces of armor are visible: a helmet with a crest that is reminiscent of a Phrygian cap and with a wide, semicircular neckguard, and a cuirass that is smooth, at least on the back.

W9 is rushing in from the right with his spear pointed down toward W5. He is striding forward on his right leg, which is no longer visible, and his left leg is propelling his body forward. A round or oval shield, decorated with a boss of concentric circles and a sunburst design, is held waist-high on the left arm in front of the body. The right arm is raised and bent at the elbow in order to aim the spear downward; the angle is slightly unusual because the allotted space is so limited. The point of the spear

is long, narrow, and sharply honed, while the shaft is incised across the relief ground. It passes across W9's right arm and may have been partially rounded, since it is now totally eroded and there are no incision marks on the arm; it may very well have been painted. The upper end of this shaft crosses over the shaft of the spear of W12 and then disappears under the decorative garland. W9's gear is completed by a double-crested helmet, a smooth cuirass with a skirt of two rows of lappets and short sleeves, and a scabbard which is visible on his left side. The helmet, decorated with a spiral ornament above the ear, is comparable to the helmets with cheekpieces and neck-guards worn by N2, W13, and others. W9's face is seen in three-quarter view to the left. There seems to be a cloak hanging limply from his shoulders; W13 offers clearer evidence for the cloak.

W13 is also rushing in from the right in order to help in the attack. He is still in the process of raising his spear, since he is not yet in the thick of the action. Only the shaft of the spear is visible as it is outlined against W12's body and is incised into the relief ground. His body is seen from the back and at a three-quarter angle. Only one leg is visible as it thrusts his body forward in hurried movement. The impression of movement is heightened by the long cloak that flaps behind the body. W13 is advancing with his left shoulder leading; an unornamented, round, convex shield with a flattened, recessed rim covers

that shoulder, the left arm, and most of the body. His torso is covered by a cuirass that ends in lappets that fall to mid-thigh. A baldric passes across the right shoulder and back to a moderately wide belt; a scabbard hangs at his left side. An additional object also hangs from the left side, but its details are unclear. His head, which is shown in profile to the left, is protected by the typical double-crested helmet with cheekpieces and neckguard; there is no additional ornamentation.

W12, W14, W15

W12 is standing in the far background and is visible only from the waist up. He stands frontally and directs his gaze to the right. He seems to be clad in a smooth cuirass with a round neckline and shoulder guards. His helmet has a wide neckguard and is crowned with two curling ram's horns or plumes; the general shape recalls earlier Thracian helmets from Greece. In his right hand he holds a spear that has a holder fitted along the lower middle part of the shaft. The upper shaft is incised into the relief ground and passes under both the spear of W9 and the decorative garland; the spearhead is just visible under the garland.

W14 is approaching from the right and is advancing on his flexed left leg. He is seen from the back, and his head is viewed in left profile. In his right hand he carries a spear identical to the one carried by W12. Here it is clear that the spearhead is fairly short and sharp;

the shaft is defined across the relief surface in the usual manner. On his left shoulder, which is leading into the fray, and left arm he carries a round, convex shield that is ornamented with a central, circular boss and slender, radiate triangles. Most of his body is protected behind the shield. W14 is wearing a smooth cuirass with neck edging and short sleeves. Around his waist is a wide belt decorated with two rows of studs. A fairly broad baldric leading to the belt is visible across the right shoulder and back. Beneath the belt is a skirt of two rows of lappets. His head is protected by a helmet of Thracian shape with wide neckguard and cheekpieces and a crest shaped like a Phrygian cap.

The group is completed by W15, who is crouching in the right corner of the panel. His body, with the legs foreshortened, is seen fully from the rear, but the face is seen only in partial profile. Both the bent right leg, whose knee does not quite touch the ground, and the extended right arm support the weight of the body. The right leg is seen in profile along the groundline, and the arm is seen from the outside with the elbow toward the viewer. The left leg is bent under the body and only the sole of the foot is clearly seen. Both the right arm and sleeve overlap the frame slightly. His body seems to thrust itself backward and out of the panel toward the viewer. He is holding a shield, which may be oval, in front of his body and is peering over its rim; he wears a

smooth cuirass with short sleeves and a skirt of two rows of lappets. Passing over his right shoulder are a baldric and a stippled garment that is held by a belt at the waist. The stippling may be an attempt to represent chain mail. A scabbard hangs from the belt at his left side. His helmet, like that of W14, is of Thracian shape with a Phrygian crest, neckguard, and cheekpieces.

W2, W6, W8, W7

W2 wears the double-crested helmet that we have seen before; the broad cheekpieces and the neckguard are clearly visible. His head is seen in profile to the right, but his facial features are almost totally obscured by the helmet. The muscles in his neck are straining with the effort he is exerting. We see his body frontally, as he leads from the left into the melee with his left arm, which supports a round, convex shield, and brandishes his spear with his upraised right arm. The shield, held by a central armband and a rim support for the hand, is seen from its inner side. The incised shaft of the spear is directed toward and in front of W6, and the shaft passes across the helmet of W2 before disappearing under the end of the decorative garland. Barely discernible between W1 and W4 is the bare left leg of W2; he is advancing on this leg, which is set in profile. His bare right foot, whose placement suggests that the leg would have been shown frontally had not W1 covered it with his body, is visible "dangling in air" between the thighs of W1. It has already been sug-

gested that this arrangement indicates the original existence of painted terrain.

The armor that covers his body is smooth and has broad epaulets, short sleeves, and a skirt of two rows of lappets that fall to the upper thigh. A loose baldric crosses his chest from the right shoulder and attaches to a moderately wide belt that has a narrow upper and lower edging. A scabbard hangs at his left side, and the hilt of a large sword projects from it. From his pose, W2 seems to be attacking W8, whose helmet is unclear, although it seems to be of the "Thracian-Phrygian" type. Considering the similarity of the helmets of W2 and W9 and the similarity of the armor of W6 and W1, it seems more likely that W2 is attacking W6, or perhaps W7 who may be an ally of W6.

W6 is quite an imposing figure because of his unusual helmet and because he seems to be at the center of the most violent action in the panel. The helmet is distinguished by cheekpieces, neckguard, engraved ornamentation, and a very large, fan-shaped crest. Both his face with the chin tilted upward and his shoulders are turned partially to meet the rush of W8 and W9. He has extended his left arm toward the attackers in order to defend himself with a convex shield that is now very damaged; he holds his right arm across his body at waist-level, suggesting that he may have been holding a sword that is now missing. Like W1, he wears a muscle cuirass with cutouts for the legs and no belt. A loose baldric falls from his right shoulder to

the left side of his waist. Part of the bare right thigh can be seen, but his legs are mostly hidden by W5.

W8 is advancing to the left with his weight on his bent right leg and with his ~~left~~ leg extended behind him. The bare right foot may be seen protruding under the lower edge of W5's shield and the left leg and foot may be discerned between the legs of W9. Our artist showed the left leg frontally. W8's body is positioned in a three-quarter view, but most of its details are hidden behind the round shield that is decorated with a flower-like design. A short sleeve is visible across the upper right arm, which is bent and raised to brandish a sword over and behind his head. The sword, which has a broad blade with an edging along the lateral extremities, obscures the crest of the helmet, but it appears to be like that worn by W14 and W15 rather than that worn by W1 and W5. His right hand is touched by the feet of the central genius. Only the central genius interferes with the action; the other two genii direct their attention downward and thus seem to be interested spectators. W8 seems to be directing his attack against W6 rather than W5.

Most of W7's body is hidden under the mass of figures in the foreground, but his head, shield, and spear can be seen. He is wearing a rounded helmet that is decorated with long horns that curve slightly at the tips; the cheekpieces are quite wide, and there seems to be a neck-guard. Only the upper edge of his shield can be seen, but

it is carried on the left arm up in front of the body; part of the left shoulder is visible. He has begun to bring his right hand, which grasps the shaft of a spear, into casting position, but he is not yet close enough to his target (presumably W2) to have completed the maneuver. The point is directed toward the ground; the upper part of the shaft is incised into the relief ground as it passes under the horns of the helmet and disappears under the decorative garland.

The interpretation

Since 1835 there has been universal agreement about the nature of the subject depicted in the west panel. According to both Rolland and Charles-Picard,⁶⁵ P. Merimée was the first person to recognize the battle that ensued for the body of Patroclus, which Homer described in Book XVI of the Iliad.⁶⁶ However, comparisons with Iliac tablets, relief vases, and the two painted Iliac friezes from the Casa del Cryptoportico in Pompeii and the Domus Transitoria in Rome fail to produce an exact prototype for the composition.

Charles-Picard, therefore, has recently suggested that the scene shows the battle for the body of Achilles rather than Patroclus. He refers to a silver oenochoe from Berthouville as his evidence.⁶⁷ This jug and its companion vessel were buried around 275 A.D. and are believed to be reproductions of earlier vessels that were derived from Pergamene works of the second century B.C.⁶⁸ They probably,

date from the Claudian era.⁶⁹ Although the general action depicted on the oenochoe would have to be changed radically to produce the St. Rémy composition, some credit should be given to the idea of identifying W10 as Achilles, since both the jug and the panel show two fallen warriors. However, on the jug only the nude Achilles is being lifted from the ground.

At least a comparison of the two works makes it clear that both were inspired by pictorial sources, but probably not by a single painting as Kleiner suggests;⁷⁰ these pictorial sources may have originated in a Pergamene school.⁷¹ It must be remembered, too, that contests for a corpse were popular themes in ancient art. The west frieze (block k) of the temple of Athena Nike, an Attic red-figure pelike,⁷² a neck amphora by the Ixion painter,⁷³ and a Tarquinian sarcophagus⁷⁴ all depict such struggles, and they are certainly not all based on Homeric episodes. Therefore, there seems to me to be no absolute reason for assuming that the scene of the west panel is derived from Homer. Such an identification is certainly possible, but it seems just as likely that the scene should be viewed merely as a "generic" infantry battle, similar to the cavalry battle of the north panel.⁷⁵

The East Panel -- Two Scenes (Illus. 7 and Fig. 7)

The composition

Of the three panels under detailed consideration,

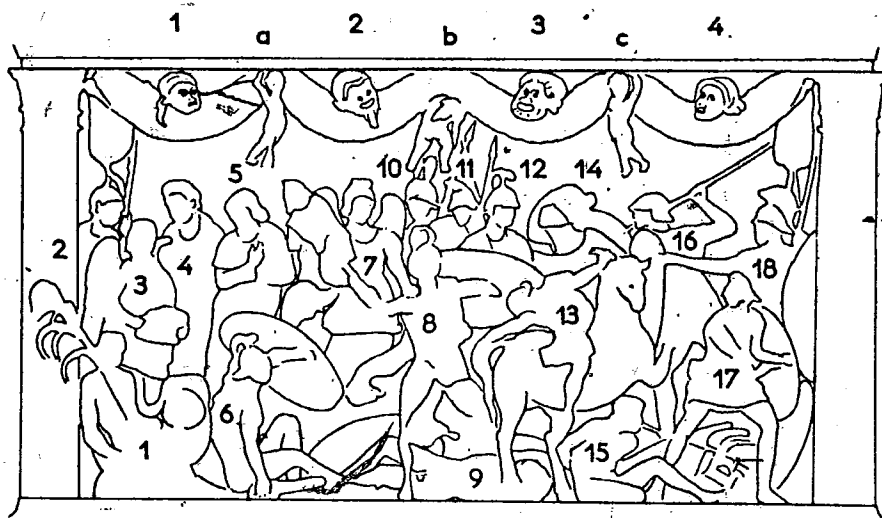


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram of east panel.
Mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy.

(Rolland, Le Mausolée, Fig. 20.)

the east relief displays the most complex composition and iconography. To the left and right are two distinct scenes, occupying approximately one-third and two-thirds of the panel. The left portion shows a tranquil scene, centered around a winged deity E3 (see Fig. 7) who is reading from a volumen. She stands beside a seated river god E1. To her right and left three spectators look on: a young man E2, a bearded man E4, and a woman E5. E6, a warrior with upraised shield who has fallen to his haunches in front of the woman E5, provides the transition to the violent action of the right portion.

Three figures offer the main focus for the larger action. A heroically nude warrior E8 has grasped E13 by the hair and is pulling him from his horse, which is rearing or galloping to the right. Behind E8 stands a winged Victory E7, who is holding a trophy. Numerous figures supplement the scene. Behind the main figures are three soldiers (E10-12) who watch the action and a woman E14, who is disturbed by the fate of the horseman. The far right of the panel is filled by three warriors in attitudes of combat: E16 is rushing from the right with his spear ready, E18 is gesturing toward the main scene, and E17 is rushing to the right in front of the horse. Under the front hooves of the horse is a nude, seated prisoner E15 and behind the horse lies a nude corpse E9. The lower right corner is filled with a conglomeration of items that definitely includes two swords, a spear, and at least one pelta; presum-

ably a pile of arms from defeated warriors is meant. There seems to be no doubt that this particular iconography originates in Greek sources.

In this panel as in the north panel there are clear indications of depth, although the artist has not resorted to subtle renditions here. Standing in the foreground, along the groundline defined by the baseline of the panel, are E1, E6, E8, E9, E15, E17, and the horse. The middle ground is occupied by E3, E7, and E13. Most of the figures, including E2, E4, E5, E12, E14, E16, and E18, stand in the background, and the remaining E10 and E11 are positioned in what may be termed the far background. Despite the piling up of the figures, there is a great deal of isocephalia; the heads of E10 and E11, for example, are level with the heads of E12, E14, and E16, although the former are deeper in the background. The action seems to lead in from both sides to a pyramid of figures in the center.

Grooves are used to enhance the volume of the figures and to separate them from the neutral relief surface. Incision defines spear shafts across that surface and the leaves of the reed on the pilaster at the left side of the panel. Even though some of the garments are draped in heavy folds, the chiaroscuro effect is accomplished by high ridges and deep furrows rather than by a studied pattern of drilled or incised grooves or lines.

Each figure in the various groupings within the panel will now be described in detail.

The characters

E1, E3, E2, E4, E5

E1 is the only personification used to suggest a locale in any of the St. Rémy panels. He is a river god, who is seated in the left corner of the panel with his legs toward the right, and his back leaning against the pilaster. His face and lower body are badly damaged, but he looked to the right. The stomach muscles are clearly visible in the nude torso, and the shoulders are partially turned toward the viewer. A cloak is draped over the left shoulder, along the left side, and over the left arm, which is extended to support a large urn or amphora on his leg and knee. A tall reed, whose fronds are incised into the pilaster, is held along the right side of the body and over the right shoulder. The right hand was probably grounded beside the right hip. Part of a rock may be visible beside the body under the right elbow.

Just above E1's left shoulder is the small, winged deity E3. She wears a palla looped from her shoulders across her stomach; underneath this mantle are a tunic (possibly a peplos) with a loose neck and a double-tiered skirt. She is holding a rotulus or volumen in both hands and seems to be reading from it, although the facial features have been badly damaged. The right arm has also been damaged. She stands with her shoulders on a line diagonal to the relief ground.

Behind E3 and looking over her head is E2, a young

man who is leaning on a long, straight staff that he holds in his left hand. His body is frontal, but his head is turned to the right and his neck muscles strain as he peers to see what the goddess is holding. Little of his garment is visible, but he may be wearing a toga or a pallium. On his head is a smooth, close-fitting cap which appears to have a spike projecting from the crown. Without an examination on the site itself, it is impossible to be absolutely sure about this apex because the tassels on the end of the garland interfere with the cap. Still, the cap seems to be the galerus worn by the Roman flamines.

Next to E3's left shoulder stands an older man E4. He is bearded and has long hair. His body is frontal, and his face is turned to the left as he looks down at the small deity. He wears a garment that is draped over his right shoulder and across his chest, with the end thrown over his left shoulder. His right arm is cradled in the fold of the garment, where the hand is visible. Since the lower edge is not visible, it is impossible to say whether he (or E2 either) is wearing a toga or a himation.⁷⁶ The left hand may be seen just under the elbow of E5. Straight folds of drapery fall from the left arm. Loose, curved folds that result from the draping of the toga/himation over the chest cover the legs.

The group is completed by E5, who stands at the left side of E4. Because of the long hair that is caught up at the base of the neck and the long skirt worn by the

figure, she can be identified as a woman. Her body is frontal, and she is looking to the left and down at the winged deity; her facial features are missing. She wears a tunic with loose sleeves that reach almost to her elbow. The tunic is girt at the waist, creating a slight blousiness over the torso. A himation or palla is draped over her left shoulder and arm and across the left breast and right hip. Her right arm is bent across her body, and the right hand lies across her breast. The left hand is not visible.

E6

E6, the nude warrior fallen to his haunches, is seen in profile to the right. His right leg is extended along the groundline, and his left leg is bent double with the knee in the air and the foot on the ground as if he is about to push himself into a standing position. His right arm is extended, and the right hand, which grasps the hilt of a short sword, is braced against the ground. The left arm is raised beside and behind his head and supports a large, round shield by means of an armband and a handgrip. Although the head is quite battered, a crested helmet of the type frequent on the mausoleum is evident. A short chlamys hangs from his shoulders and down his back. E6 is similar to E8 because both are nude and wear the same helmet. His right foot overlaps the feet of E9. If he has an opponent, it is unclear who it might be.

E9, E15

E9 is a nude corpse that is stretched on the ground with his torso behind the legs of E8 and his head behind the rear hooves of the horse. His feet are hidden by the legs of E6. He is lying on his back with his head thrown back and an arm, visible between the horse's legs, thrown up above his head. The musculature along the rib cage is clearly delineated. There is sufficient torsion at the waist to present the hips in a frontal view; the ~~genitalia~~ are visible. The right leg is seen in profile as it is bent at a 120-degree angle to the ground; the left leg is also shown in profile as it is extended somewhat more along, but not on, the ground. Approximately half of a round or oval shield is seen behind E9, who is presumably its fallen owner.

Just to the right of E9's head and under the belly and forelegs of the horse sits E15. He is crouched slightly forward at the waist, and his arms are bound behind his back. His shoulders are turned toward the viewer, and the musculature and bones of the diaphragm and chest are shown. The right leg is foreshortened and is bent back under the left leg, which is extended at a 120-degree angle with the foot on the ground; the right thigh is seen frontally. It seems that E15, whose head is seen in profile to the right, had long hair and possibly a beard, but this semblance may be due to his damaged condition.

E8, E7, E13, E14

E8 is the hero, who is nude except for a long chlamys⁷⁷ that swirls dramatically behind and between his legs. He is seen frontally as he straddles the corpse of E9. His weight is supported by his right leg which is slightly flexed and planted in front of E9; his left leg is extended with the lower calf and foot behind E9. The pose is vigorous and dynamic. An oval shield, seen from the inner side and held by an armband, is extended to the right on the left arm; a loop of the cloak is seen over the upper left arm. E13's head and shoulders are outlined against the shield. Although the right arm is now missing, the condition of the relief at the shoulder and waist (Illus. 7 and 8) suggests that the arm was not extended to the left but was instead bent across the body, where it held a sword at waist-level. It was drawn slightly back from the shoulder and against E7's skirt. A scabbard is seen hanging at E8's left side, where it is held by a baldric that crosses from the right shoulder to a belt. The face is damaged, but the crest of the helmet suggests that it is of the type most common at St. Rémy.

Directly behind and to the left of E8 stands a winged Victory E7, who seems larger in scale than the mortal combatants around her. Her hair is piled atop her head, and she wears a sleeveless tunic that is gathered into a slight blousiness by a belt around the waist. It falls in neat folds to mid-thigh. Beneath it, a heavy

skirt falls in small folds to the ground. The end of her peplos can be seen billowing above the shield of E6. Her movement to the right and into the action is indicated by her billowing cloak, the displacement of the folds of the tunic, and her slightly raised right foot (visible just below E6's shield); her body is frontal and her head is in profile to the right. She looks down at E8 as she rests her left hand on his right shoulder.

Over her right shoulder she carries a small trophy on a pole. Her right hand grasps the pole at the level of her waist. The helmet is too damaged to allow description, but the armor is clear. On the cuirass the pectorals are marked, a line passes from the center of the chest to the abdomen, and the neckline is banded. Elbow-length sleeves hang from the banded armholes, and a knee-length skirt of lappets hangs above the billowing cloak of E7. The armor may have cutouts for the legs like the muscle cuirass of W1 and W6.

E13 is the only mounted figure in this panel. He is being pulled from his horse by E8. His left arm is extended toward the horse's head, and his right arm is stretched out over the horse's hindquarters toward E8. He is sitting astride the horse, but his body is bent back sharply from the waist, and his head is bent to the left and is parallel to the ground. All the facial features have been obliterated; the hair appears to be long. The youth is wearing a loose, blousy garment that is fastened

on the left shoulder, leaving the right shoulder and part of the right chest bare. A belt girds the garment around the waist, and a short skirt covers the thigh to a point just above the knee. There are numerous folds over the torso. The upper edge of a pelta, held out on the left arm, is seen in front of the body of E14.

E13's rearing horse is identical to the rearing horse of N4. His rear legs are planted on the groundline, and he paws the air above the head of prisoner E15. His body is slightly twisted at the hindquarters, and the neck is bowed. He is foreshortened to give the impression that he is rearing into the foreground from a greater depth in the panel. The lower part of the forelegs and the muzzle were probably worked partially in the round and have been broken away. Both the mane and tail are long and natural. His gear includes a saddlecloth, bridle, and breast-strap.

A despondent E14 stands directly behind E13 and his horse. Most of the features of the head are missing, but the hair is definitely quite long and is caught up at the nape of the neck. The figure wears a loose garment with a round neckline and loose sleeves that reach to the elbow. The right arm is raised and bent so that the hand touches the crown of the head. Because of the hair, the garment, and the grief-stricken pose, the figure seems to be a woman. She is looking at E8 and beyond him to E6, and she thus draws the spectator's attention to these figures.

E10, E11, E12

These three figures are calm spectators of the turbulent scene centered around E8 and E13. E10 and E11 are so deep in the background that only their heads and necks are visible. E10 wears an unusual, rounded helmet adorned with plumes that are shaped like "bunny ears"; the central genius straddles the plumes. He is holding a long spear over his left shoulder with the point in the air. The shaft of the spear is incised into the relief ground and passes between the heads of E10 and E11, beside the right foot of the genius, and as far as the decorative garland. Part of the round shield may be seen on the left shoulder in front of the shaft of the spear. The head is turned in a three-quarter view to the left where his attention is concentrated on Victory E7.

E11 is also seen in a three-quarter view to the left as he looks toward E7; his head is inclined slightly more than the head of E10. He is wearing a helmet that cannot be seen too clearly; it seems to be of the "Thracian-Phrygian" type that occurred several times in the west panel (e.g., W14, W15). He also holds a spear with the point skyward over his left shoulder. It almost touches the garland.

Although most of his body is covered by E8's shield, E12 is seen from his shoulders up. His body is turned slightly to the right, and his head is in profile to the right as he looks toward E14 and the onrushing E16. He

wears a leather cuirass with a round, bordered neckline, short sleeves, and long, narrow epaulets. A spear with a long, slender head is seen over his right shoulder. The shaft overlaps the shaft of E11's spear and the point overlaps the shaft of E10's spear before it terminates just before touching the right shoulder of the genius. A curved object, presumably a shield, is visible behind E12's left shoulder. He also wears a helmet with a crescent-shaped crest; because it is smooth, the crest does not seem to be a plume or a horsetail.

E16, E18, E17

E16 stands in a bellicose pose. He is seen from the back as he rushes in from the right with his weight on his left leg as he advances. The leg may be seen behind the forelegs of the horse; the foot is hidden behind the pile of weapons. His muscular right arm is drawn back to cast his spear, and his face, seen in profile to the left, is distorted in an open-mouthed battle cry. His head is protected by an undecorated Thracian-type helmet. The shaft of the spear passes behind the body of E14 and the head of E16 before it crosses the relief ground and disappears under the end of the garland. An oval shield decorated with a narrow, plain border around the rim covers his body as he holds the shield on his left arm close to his body and over his left shoulder. He wears smooth body armor that ends in a skirt of two rows of lappets. A short sleeve covers the upper right arm. From his left

side hangs a scabbard that is held in place by a baldric that crosses his right shoulder. A plain, moderately wide belt girds his waist.

E18 is viewed frontally. His body is inclined slightly to the left as he gestures with his right arm in that direction. The face is seen in a three-quarter view to the left; the neck muscles stand out clearly. A crested helmet with cheekpieces and neckguard covers the head; it is the type seen so frequently on the mausoleum. The ribbons on the garland hang behind the crest. Smooth armor with broad epaulets covers the torso. A belt with narrow upper and lower borders encircles the waist. His spear is at rest over his left shoulder; the upper end of the shaft touches the end of the garland. An unusually large, oval (or possibly a gigantic, round) shield covers the left side of the body. Its decoration resembles the underside of a tortoise shell. Less than half of the shield is visible because it is terminated by the pilaster. His legs are not visible, but he must be standing on hilly terrain, a pile of arms, or something similar.

The last figure in the panel is E17. He is seen frontally as he moves to the right with his weight on his left leg, which is seen in profile. The right leg is extended frontally to the left, and the calf is obscured by the left leg of E15. Foreshortening is evident in the treatment of the right foot. His right arm, which has been damaged, is swung across his torso, and his left arm is

holding a round shield with a handgrip so that it is close to his body. A smooth cuirass covers his torso; broad epauletts protect the shoulders, and a skirt of two rows of iapets covers the thighs. The back edge of the skirt can be seen between the legs. A belt similar to that worn by E18 encircles the waist. His head and face, which are badly damaged, are turned in profile to the left; the muscles of the neck bulge. The helmet is too battered to show any detail accurately.

The interpretation

Traditionally the violent subject of the east panel has been termed an amazonomachy. Hübner attempted to establish a specific locale for the scene on the basis of the river god and argued that the "amazon" represented a historical figure, such as the daughter of Orgetorix.⁷⁸ Most authorities have advocated a more general interpretation. Rolland refers to E13 as the "traditional figure of a wounded Amazon,"⁷⁹ and indeed there are numerous examples from the Greek repertoire, including a dramatic example on slab 534 from the temple of Apollo at Bassae. If the traditional amazonomachy interpretation is maintained, however, a number of serious iconographical questions arise.

Who is the despondent woman E14 who is definitely not dressed as an amazon? Why are the agitated figures at the right edge of the panel (E16-18, also E10-12) fully armed men rather than amazons? Why are the corpse E9 and the nude prisoner E15 men, since the "Greek" obviously has

the upper hand in the scene? How are the left and the right scenes to be reconciled with each other? Eclecticism for aesthetic and artistic purposes might be part of the answer, but the resultant scene can not be termed an "amazonomachy". In order to answer these questions and integrate the elements of the scene more successfully, a different interpretation of the subject matter is called for. I prefer a suggestion originated by G. Charles-Picard that the violent scene is the death of Troilus at the hands of Achilles.⁸⁰ His idea is a good one and can be supported with new evidence; furthermore, I have a suggestion to offer about the interpretation of the left scene as well.

Kleiner does not accept the Troilus interpretation because he does not make ample use of Etruscan comparanda. He maintains that E13 is an amazon, but he describes the entire scene as a "complex fusion of motifs drawn from a variety of sources" in order to create a biographical composition.⁸¹ He identifies E2, E4, and E5 as a "Gallo-Roman" family (i.e., the Julii) clad in the toga (E2 and 4) or palla (E5).⁸² According to his theory, the accessory soldiers are included only to establish a link with the north and west panels, just as E14 is included as the connecting link between the right and left scenes in the panel.⁸³ He finally summarizes the composition as "a Hellenistic amazonomachy [that] has been used as an allegory of the defeat of the Gauls and been expanded to incorporate

portraits of the Julii."⁸⁴ This approach leaves a great many questions unanswered regarding the iconography of the panel and the identification of various prominent figures. Reference to the Etruscan comparanda can, I think, produce many of these answers and confirm the Troilus interpretation of the scene.

The fullest literary narration of the Troilus episode was part of the epic Kypria and is now lost. Homer (Iliad xxiv, 257) mentions Troilus as a son of Priam, and the Scholiast on the Iliad (vii, 44) identifies him as well as Cassandra and Helenus as children of Priam and Hecuba. Sophocles wrote a dramatic version of the story, but only fragments of this play remain. The legend concerning the prophecy that the death of Troilus must precede the fall of Troy may be a Hellenistic addition.⁸⁵ In the extant literary references and in the representations on early vases, the age of Troilus and the setting and manner of his death vary greatly. He may be a young boy, a youth, or a young warrior. His death at the hands of Achilles may come in the open, near a springhouse, before the city walls, or beside an altar. Achilles is sometimes accompanied by Ajax.⁸⁶ Whatever the particulars, the story was especially popular with South Italian vase-painters and with the sculptors of Etruscan urns and sarcophagi.⁸⁷

Many Troilus depictions have been strongly influenced by amazonomachies, and this borrowing must be taken into account before we consider precedents for the St. Rémy

composition because it does belong to this category of representations. The Apulian amphora from Trieste (Illus. 4)⁸⁸ that we discussed earlier in relation to the south panel shows an amazonomachy. A nude Greek hero, perhaps Achilles, is pulling an amazon in traditional dress from her horse. This motif is almost identical to E8-E13. However, a stamnos in Rome⁸⁹ shows the same motif adapted to the Troilus episode. Achilles pulls the youth from his horse just as the Greek pulled the amazon from her horse.⁹⁰ This "amazonomachized" Troilus composition proved very popular in Etruria. Accessory figures were added, clothing was changed to indicate Greeks and Trojans, but the central motif remained the same.

Etruscan urns, especially from Volterra, offer some outstanding parallels for the general composition and for details that may help in the identification of various individuals. Numerous urns document the central group E8-E13.⁹¹ One of the best examples is in the Museo Archeologico in Florence, no. 5755 (Illus. 9). In addition to the central group, a stately female figure, possibly a Lasa, stands behind Achilles and raises her left hand behind his right shoulder. Her position is almost duplicated by the Victory E7. The actions of E17 and E18 are not unlike those of the male lunging to the right and the quietly standing female on the urn. A fallen pedagogue has replaced E15 under the forelegs of the horse, but he nevertheless offers a precedent for E15's position. Another urn⁹² also

shows a winged female who is much like E7 standing behind Achilles. Two other urns from Volterra (Figs. 8 and 9)⁹³ show Achilles' round shield extended obliquely behind Troilus' head. Troilus' pelta is seen under his horse on an urn in the British Museum (Illus. 10).⁹⁴ On almost all the urns, Achilles holds his sword across his body at waist-level. He occasionally draws it up beside his head, but he never holds it extended out to the left.⁹⁵

This iconography and reconstruction mean that the hero E8 can not be Mars tropaeophorus.⁹⁶ Kleiner proposed this idea prior to his dissertation because he restored the right arm extended to the left, holding the trophy that is, in fact, held by the Victory E7 (see Illus. 7 and 8). He also saw traces of a belt that in fact prove to be the remaining outline of the missing sword and a stippling that may indicate that the genitalia were originally depicted. Kleiner does not offer a parallel in amazonomachies for E7's resting her hand on or just above the hero's shoulder, but we have seen that such a parallel does exist on Etruscan urns showing the death of Troilus (see Illus. 9).⁹⁷

Kleiner also does not wish to identify E13 as a youth because of the way he is dressed. However, this objection can be overcome by referring to an early fourth century B.C. relief base found near Plato's Academy in Athens.⁹⁸ The scene supposedly originated in a contemporary Schlachtenbild or frieze.⁹⁹ Under the hero's horse on this base is a fallen warrior in a short tunic that is

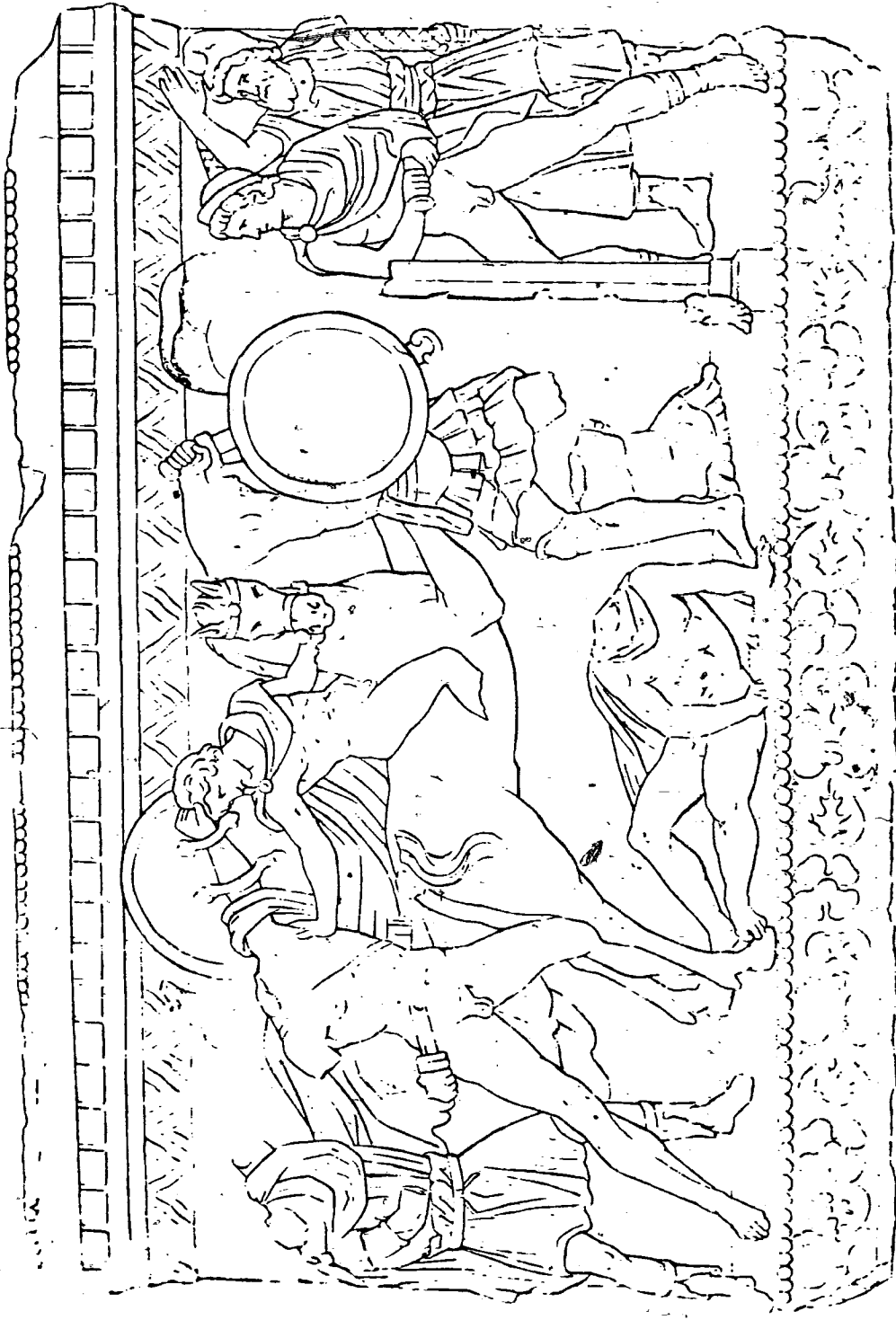


Fig. 8. Death of Troilus. Etruscan urn. Volterra, Museo Guarnacci, no. 376.
(Brunn-Körte, I.li.8.)

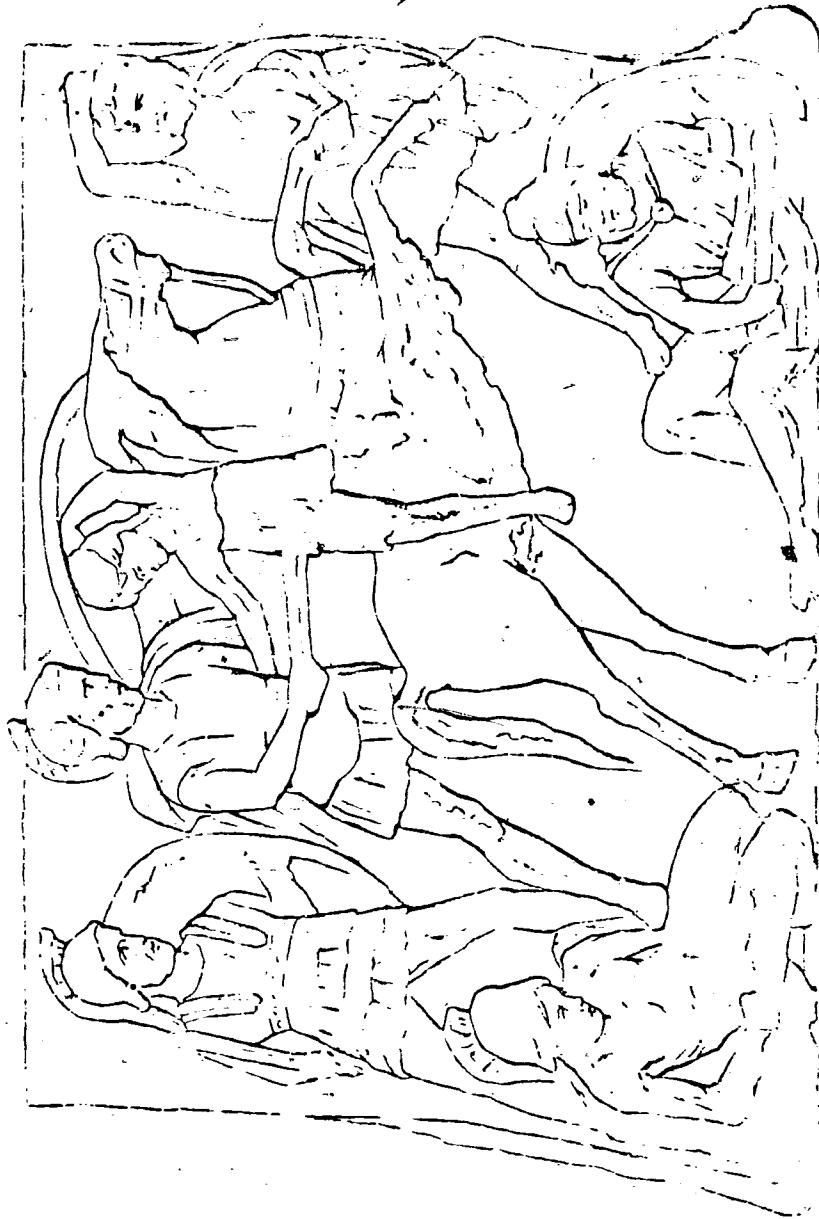


Fig. 9. Death of Troilus. Etruscan urn. Volterra, Museo Guarnacci, no. 422.

(Brunn-Körte, I.1.6.)

girt at the waist and which leaves the right shoulder bare. He is carrying a pelta. A similarly clad warrior, but carrying a round shield, is found on an Attic grave stele in the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston.¹⁰⁰ Obviously, a youth could be dressed like our Troilus, and so Kleiner's objection can be put aside.

Yet another urn (Fig. 10)¹⁰¹ shows a full-scale battle raging as Achilles pulls Troilus from his horse. It is possible that this urn reflects a larger composition from which various excerpts were made and then used as new scenes. The central group remains basically the same, but we also have the precedent for a large number of accessory figures in the composition. Although none of them is duplicated by a St. Rémy figure, we can assume that similar large compositions may underlie the two representations. The Etruscan and the St. Rémy artist merely excerpted different figures from the larger units, and then each added other elements as he saw fit. A nude warrior has fallen beneath Troilus' horse; although he is not supine, his position recalls E9. Achilles is being aided by a bearded, fully armed warrior. Another urn in the British Museum¹⁰² also shows the comrade of Achilles; however, here he is nude and is seen from the rear with his face in profile (a winged Vanth stands beside him).

Because of the fragmentary literary tradition, it is impossible to identify the warrior companion of Achilles definitely. He could be Patroclus, Ajax the Aeacid, or

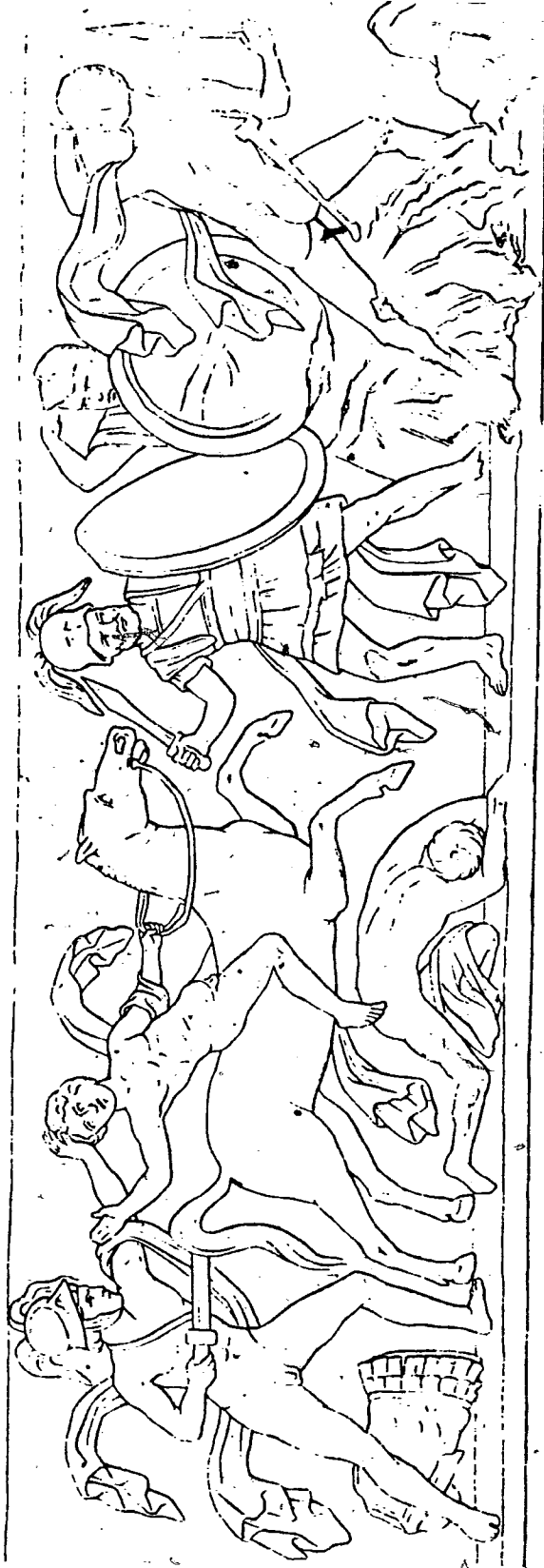


Fig. 10. Death of Troilus. From an Etruscan urn. Chiusi, Museo Casavecchini.
(Brünn-Körte, I.liv.13.)

Odysseus.¹⁰³ Since he is frequently bearded, it is unlikely that he is Patroclus, Achilles' contemporary, and he is never shown in the cap that usually characterizes Odysseus. Therefore, it could be that Achilles is here aided by Ajax the Aeacid. And indeed, an Etruscan mirror showing the death of Troilus (Fig. 11),¹⁰⁴ although in a different setting than the scene of the east panel, confirms this identification. The participants are named by inscriptions as axle (Achilles), extur (Hector), evas (Ajax), truile (Troilus), and a Vanth.¹⁰⁵ The only figure in the east panel that could possibly be Ajax is the fallen warrior E6. However, his position is very unheroic and usually denotes a wounded warrior. We have no literary evidence that Ajax was wounded when Troilus was killed. Consequently, I doubt that E6 can be identified as Ajax, but neither is he to be identified as a duplicate E8. The position is paralleled on an urn from Volterra (Fig. 9)¹⁰⁶ where the warrior is definitely wounded or dying; he is nude except for a helmet (like E6), and he is not Ajax but merely an unnamed Greek. Therefore, I think the best appellation we can give E6 is "fallen Greek".

None of the Etruscan urns shows a prisoner under the forelegs of Troilus' horse, but several urns do show a fallen warrior or a corpse under the horse.¹⁰⁷ Pairault has pointed out that these wounded warriors definitely show the influence of the Great Altar at Pergamon.¹⁰⁸ Bieńkowski and Andreae have also studied Etruscan urns and other



Fig. 11. Ajax and Achilles after the death of Troilus.
Etruscan mirror from Bolsena. London, British
Museum, no. 73.

(Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Bd. V, Taf. 110.)

works in relation to a Pergamene painting and sculptural group representing a galatomachy; they, too, have recognized the wounded or fallen warrior under the hooves of a galloping or rearing horse as a motif taken from this repertoire.¹⁰⁹ Very probably the Troilus urns make use of this repertoire for the accessory figures (such as E9 and E15) in the scene. Although E10-12 and E16-18 are Trojan warriors in the east panel, they may be adapted from some Pergamene source as well. It is also possible that the Victory came from such a source, but there is no evidence to support the theory.

The only other figure in this scene that we can attempt to identify is the woman E14. She appears on several urns from Perugia (Figs. 12 and 13)¹¹⁰, in an identical position but with her cloak billowing over her head.¹¹¹ Because she is a despondent figure, extant literary evidence suggests that she is Polyxena, who in some stories was with Troilus when he was ambushed by Achilles. We should also note that the compositional arrangements of the urns and the panel are basically identical; both rely on tiers of figures set at different levels to suggest depth, but the arrangement on the urns is more impossible to reconcile to realistic groundlines than is the tiering of the east panel. Figure E14 also provides a transition to the left scene because she is dressed much like the woman E5. However, there is no indication that the two figures are meant to represent the same character.



Fig. 12. Death of Troilus. Etruscan urn.
Perugia, Villa di Colle del Cardinale.

(Brunn-Körte, I.lix.23.)

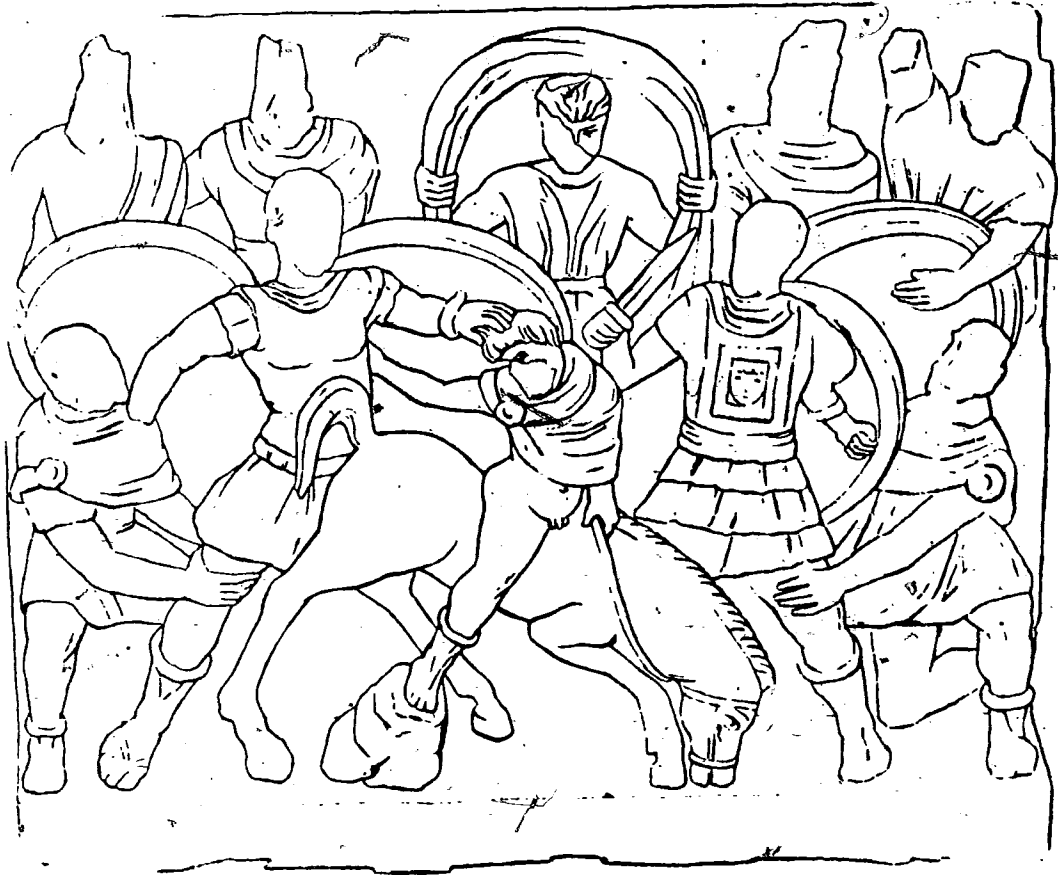


Fig. 13. Death of Troilus. Etruscan urn. Perugia,
Hypogeum of the Volumnii, inv. no. 67.

(Brunn-Körte, I.lix.24.)

Interpretation of the tranquil scene at the left of the panel is slightly more difficult because there are no urns that offer a direct parallel for the episode. However, a number of urns and other works of art do confirm certain details and make suggestions for the identification of the figures. I believe that this scene is connected with the death of Troilus and that the east panel, like the south panel,¹¹² depicts two episodes from the same myth. A winged Lasa E3 foretells Troilus' fate to his parents Priam E4 and Hecuba E5 and to his brother Helenus E2. The event takes place beside the river Scamander E1.

Homeric bowls from Boeotian workshops (Fig. 14)¹¹³ frequently show personifications of the Scamander that are similar to E1. He is usually associated with reeds similar to those in the east panel. The winged lady with a rotulus appears on a number of Etruscan works. A beautifully comparable figure is found on a mirror in the British Museum (Fig. 15).¹¹⁴ She is standing much like E3, although her wings are seen frontally, and she is holding an unrolled scroll in front of her. On the scroll are inscribed the names of Ajax and Amphiaraos, who are seated to either side to hear their fate, as well as her own title (Lasa). Her garments are identical to the clothing of E3. Another winged Lasa with a rotulus is shown on the lid of an urn from Chianciano.¹¹⁵ She is seated beside the deceased and is reading his name from her scroll. The roll of the Lasa is not always so integral to the scene. On an urn from

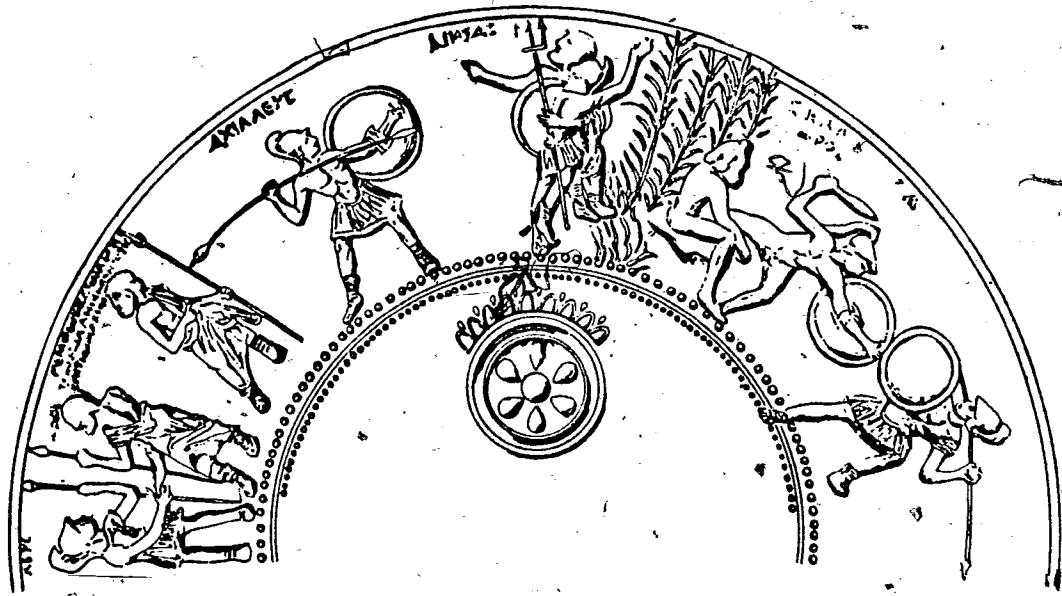


Fig. 14. Drawing of a Homeric bowl. Boeotian relief-ware. Berlin, Staatliches Museen, inv. no. 30535.

(Weitzmann, Roll and Codex, Fig. 20.)



Fig. 15. Ajax, Amphiaraus, and Lasa. Etruscan mirror. London, British Museum.

(Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Bd. IV, Taf. ccclix.)

Volterra¹¹⁶ a winged Lasa is sitting in a tree, holding a rotulus, and watching an unidentifiable scene before her. Similarly, a winged Lasa without a rotulus is an accessory figure in the scene of Helen's appearance before Agamemnon and Menelaus on an Etruscan mirror.¹¹⁷ A precedent for the reduced scale of the Lasa in the east panel is offered by an urn from Chiusi.¹¹⁸

Although I can not offer any specific evidence for the identification of E4 as Priam and E5 as Hecuba, they are the logical participants in this scene if the Troilus interpretation is correct. Priam does appear in a different context on a number of the urns that show the death of Troilus (e.g., Fig. 8).¹¹⁹ In such instances, he is always bearded like E4. I agree with Kleiner that this group does resemble contemporary, provincial funerary reliefs,¹²⁰ but I think that this resemblance is due to the funerary nature of the mythological scene rather than to the biographical interpretation Kleiner prefers. It must also be pointed out that these figures reflect an Etruscan, as well as a Greek, tradition in which figures stand quietly along a common groundline during a depiction of religious ceremonies or an assembly of deities.¹²¹ It is a tradition common to Roman sculpture as well.

The urn showing Priam (Fig. 8) also offers evidence for the galerus topped by an apex that I believe is worn by E2. On the urn a heroic nude, who is wearing a bowl-shaped helmet with a spike protruding from its crown, rushes in

from the right. The spike is decorated with cross-hatching just like the scepter carried by Priam. This same hat appears on three other urns whose subjects are the death of Troilus¹²² and the recognition of Paris.¹²³ E3's head-gear is duplicated in shape, but without a spike, by the galerus on the bronze head of a young man, presumably a priest, that is now in the British Museum.¹²⁴ Even though the figure wearing the apex on the urns is often engaged in violent action, he is probably Helenus, a priest who may well have been a warrior in times of extraordinary duress. The religious significance of the hat with an apex is substantiated by the Tarchon mirror.¹²⁵ There it is worn by the hero Tarchonus as he reads a liver; his hat is bowl-shaped and the apex is decorated with the same spiral or cross-hatched ornament that we find on the Etruscan urns. Figure E2 because of his garments and his quiet pose definitely fits the image of a priestly figure such as Helenus. He is also holding a staff that recalls the scepter carried by Priam and sometimes by the figure wearing the hat with apex on the urns. Finally, we should remember that the apex and galerus are specifically associated with the Flamines Maiores at Rome.¹²⁶ As a result of all this evidence, there seems little doubt that E2 could be Helenus, priestly brother of Troilus.

Kleiner and most other authorities seem very reluctant to accept the possibility of two episodes with-

in a single panel. Only Peter von Blanckenhagen has considered this possibility, and then in regard to the south panel.¹²⁷ However, certain Etruscan urns once again offer the precedent for such a duality of scenes. An urn in Rome¹²⁸ shows both the murder of Aegisthus and Clytemnestra and the pursuit of Orestes by the Furies after the crime. Other examples of dual scenes taken from the Oresteia cycle are numerous.¹²⁹ Scenes from the saga of the Seven against Thebes are also amalgamated. An urn from Chiusi¹³⁰ shows the pairing of the deaths of Amphiaras and Capaneus, which were two separate episodes in the legend.

South Italian vases also offer parallels. An early fourth century amphora in Naples¹³¹ shows four successive moments in the Troilus story: the attack by Achilles, his pursuit of Troilus, Troilus' death, and the contest for Troilus' body. With this evidence, I am convinced that the east panel represents two moments in Troilus' life, both the foretelling or announcement of his death and his actual murder by Achilles. I am also inclined on these same grounds to agree with Peter von Blanckenhagen's theory that the south panel shows both the death of Meleager and the Calydonian boar hunt. The duality of episodes in these two distinctly mythological panels is very important. They belong, I think, to pictorial cycles that represented a number of episodes of a single legend in narrative sequence. Sometimes these paintings were

artistic adaptations of literary accounts, as the Oresteia urns indicate. Judging from the vases and urns, these mythological cycles flourished in South Italy, and it may be that the St. Rémy artist was familiar with these sources.¹³²

There are a number of convincing indications that both the Etruscan artists and the St. Rémy master used such South Italian pictorial sources.¹³³ Perhaps the most impressive suggestion is made by the Apulian amphora in Trieste (Illus. 3 and 4) that we have already examined. On its two sides are the Calydonian boar hunt and an amazonomachy of the type elsewhere adapted into Troilus episodes. Although the compositions of the vase and the south and east panels differ, there are some notable similarities as well. First, the position of the boar on the vase (emerging from the background, head and hindquarters in profile, forequarters seen frontally) is duplicated by the boar in the south panel. We see less of that boar because he is hidden by the tree and because he is shown in linear perspective rather than in a bird's-eye view. The graceful pose of the dog on the vase is seen again with the dog in the south panel. Second, the Greek hero in the amazonomachy is nude except for a chlamys and a helmet with a flowing crest. He is supporting his weight on his right leg. E8 is seen in a similar pose, but he is shown more frontally than the painted Greek. Third, both the Greek hero and Achilles E8 carry a round, convex shield on the left arm

that is extended in a three-quarter view behind the head of the amazon or Troilus E3. Finally, the horses in the amazonomachy and the Troilus episode are comparable. The painted horse is more extended in a gallop, but his front legs paw the air and his neck is turned so that his head is seen in left profile. The pose of the St. Rémy horse is more restrained, but it is basically the same stance.

I also think that it is much more than coincidence that the myth of the boar hunt and an amazonomachy that led to the Troilus iconography appear on a single vase and again in the St. Rémy panels. This pairing indicates to me that famous pictorial models underlie the vase, a number of Etruscan urns, and the St. Rémy panels. Perhaps the Etruscans saw the South Italian original, perhaps the provincial artist saw the original or sketches of it or an Etruscan interpretation of it. It is quite possible that he used an Etruscan intermediary because of the winged ladies in the east panel. A number of Pompeian paintings also show winged ladies that were introduced into Campania from Etruria. In two paintings of the abandonment of Ariadne on Naxos, a winged female points toward the departing ship of Theseus.¹³⁴ In each case, she is an added element who has lost the practical significance she enjoyed in the Etruscan repertoire. A similar figure, this time identified as Nemesis, watches from behind a rock as Thetis dips Achilles into the river Styx in another painting.¹³⁵ Sometimes winged ladies are used purely for deco-

ration. In the House of Fuscus a winged lady sits inside a rotunda in the ornamental frieze along the top of one of the walls.¹³⁶ If Campania adopted these figures from Etruria, Gaul certainly might have as well.

Consequently, on the basis of these various examples I believe that the cyclic pictorial models that offered the inspiration for the south and east compositions at St. Rémy should be dated ca. 350-330 B.C. They were obviously popular cycles that were copied, adapted, and modified by vase-painters and Etruscan sculptors before they finally appeared in the provincial reliefs at St. Rémy. Each artist freely added or omitted elements, but the central groups of a charging boar or a youth being pulled from his horse by a heroic warrior were almost always retained virtually intact. For me, the possibility of a South Italian pictorial cycle underlying the south and east panels at St. Rémy is made almost a surety by the Trieste vase and by Pompeian paintings of both the hunt and the death of Troilus; despite the fact that such scenes of combat are rare there.¹³⁷

✓ NOTES

¹The reliefs are actually located on the northeast, northwest, southeast, and southwest faces of the socle. However, Rolland designates them as north, west, east, and south, and for convenience we shall hereafter do likewise.

²Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 22.

³Arturo Stenico, Roman and Etruscan Painting, Compass History of Art (New York: The Viking Press, 1963), Figs. 144 (comic scene) and 145 (preparations for a satyr play).

⁴e.g., a marble relief, perhaps from Corinth, third century B. C. (Sir John Davidson Beazley and Bernard Ashmole, Greek Sculpture and Painting to the End of the Hellenistic Period [Cambridge: University Press, 1966 reprint of the 1932 edition]; Fig. 200).

⁵Museo dei Conservatori, Inv. no. 2141; Florence, Museo Archeologico, no. 5792, from Chiusi (Enrico Brunn and G. Körte, I rilievi delle urne etrusche, Vol. III [Roma and Berlin, 1870-1916], Taf. cxvi.4, no. 151).

⁶Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 98-99.

⁷Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 26 notes comparable examples of such garlands from Narbonnaise monuments at Alleins, Arles, Narbonne, and Avignon (first century A.D. or slightly earlier) and from Pompeii. He believes that the inspiration for such decoration probably originated at Pergamon. Of particular interest is a fragmentary example from a funerary monument that once stood near the mausoleum. It is somewhat earlier than the mausoleum and can be dated to the Republican period because of the thorny leaves of its acanthus decoration. Rolland illustrates this fragment on his Pl. 49.1.

⁸Jörg Schäfer, Hellenistische Keramik aus Pergamon, DAI, Pergamenische Forschungen, Bd. 2, ed. by Erich Boehringer (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co., 1968), p. 91.

⁹Ibid., p. 92, Abb. 15.2.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 91; Erich Boehringer and Friedrich Krauss, Das Temenos für den Herrscherkult 'Prinzessinen Palais', Staatliche Museen zu Berlin, Altertümer von Pergamon, Bd. IX (Berlin und Leipzig: Druck und Verlag von Walter de Gruyter & Co., 1937), Taf. 18.

¹¹Schäfer, Keramik, Taf. 37, E92-97; Boehringer and Krauss, Temenos, Taf. 58, a (1931, 303), e-1 (1931, 337).

¹²Schäfer, Keramik, referring to Armin von Gerkan, p. 61, Abb. 3a-c, dated "in die frühhellenistische Zeit."

¹³Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 101-103.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 103-104.

¹⁵Rolland, Le Mausolée, pp. 22, 26.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 47.

¹⁷Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 73.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 83.

¹⁹See Rolland, Le Mausolée, Figs. 18-21.

²⁰Chamoux, "Les Antiques," pp. 97-112.

²¹Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 151-172, and "The Kalydonian Hunt: A Reconstruction of a Painting from the Circle of Polygnotus," Antike Kunst, 15 (1972), 7-19.

²²See below, pp. 45, 56.

²³See below, pp. 45ff., 60ff.

²⁴Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 158.

²⁵Eduard Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Vol. II (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1974 photoreprint of 1843 edition), Taf. clxxiii, the Bartholdy mirror in Berlin.

²⁶CVA, Italia, Fasc. 43, Tav. 14.1-2, in the Civico Museo di Storia ed Arte di Trieste, no. S380.

²⁷Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 168. He also cites a krater in Berlin (Staatliche Museen F3258), ca. 340 which also has the motif of the dual horsemen.

²⁸Ibid., p. 160, first suggested by C. Fouqué in 1837.

²⁹François Chamoux, "Un bas-relief du Mausolée de Saint-Rémy," CRAI, 1945, pp. 179-180; and "Les Antiques," pp. 106-107; and "Observations sur l'Arc de Triomphe de Glanum (Saint-Rémy de Provence)," Etudes d'Archéologie Classique, I (1955-6), p. 34.

³⁰Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 170-172.

³¹Ibid., p. 172.

³²See below, pp. 74ff.

³³See below, pp. 113ff., 117ff.

³⁴Franz Cumont, Recherches sur le symbolisme funéraire des Romains, Commissariat de Syrie, Serv. des Ant., Bibliothèque archéologique & historique, Tome XXXV (Paris: Geuthner, 1942), pp. 447-449.

³⁵Peter H. von Blanckenhagen, "Narration in Hellenistic and Roman Art," AJA, 61 (1957), p. 81.

³⁶George M. A. Hanfmann, "Narration in Greek Art," AJA, 61 (1957), p. 77.

³⁷(Demetrios), Peri hermeneias 76 (Recueil Milliet 350-1, no. 465); see below, pp. 135f.

³⁸Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 48, Fig. 17; he concurs with this theory and offers as a parallel the treatment of the figures in the second attic of the arch at Orange.

³⁹E. Hübner, "Die Bildwerke des Grabmals der Julier in Saint-Remy," JdI; 3 (1888), p. 28.

⁴⁰See below, Chapter III.

⁴¹G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 8; and "Les sculptures du Mausolée des Julii à Glanum," BAntFr, 1963 (1965), Séance du 13 Février, p. 32; and Art romain (Paris-Lausanne: La Bibliothèque des Arts, 1968), pp. 11, 13.

⁴²E. A. Sydenham, The Coinage of the Roman Republic (revised and edited; London: Spink, 1952), p. 57, no. 483, ca. 120 B.C.; Herbert Appold Grueber, Coins of the Roman Republic in the British Museum, Vol. I, The Trustees of the British Museum (Oxford: The University Press, 1970 reprint of the 1910 edition), no. 1116, ca. 94 B.C.; most recently published by Michael Crawford, Roman Republican Coinage (London & New York: Cambridge University Press, 1974), no. 264, dated ca. 127 B.C.; G. Charles-Picard, Roman Painting, Pl. III.

- ⁴³G. Charles-Picard, "Les sculptures du Mausolée," p. 33.
- ⁴⁴Ernst Garger, "Die kunstgeschichtliche Stellung der Reliefs am Julierdenkmal von St. Remy," RöMitt, 52 (1937), pp. 1-43.
- ⁴⁵Chamoux, "Les Antiques," pp. 97-112.
- ⁴⁶Ibid., p. 106.
- ⁴⁷See below, pp. 135ff.
- ⁴⁸Chamoux, "Les Antiques," p. 107.
- ⁴⁹Bernard Andreae, Motivgeschichtliche Untersuchungen zu den römischen Schlachtsarkophagen, DAI (Berlin: Verlag Gebr. Mann, [n.d.]), p. 80.
- ⁵⁰Ibid., pp. 20-28.
- ⁵¹Ibid., p. 21.
- ⁵²Ibid., p. 23.
- ⁵³Ibid., p. 27.
- ⁵⁴Ibid., p. 22.
- ⁵⁵See below, pp. 127f., 142ff.
- ⁵⁶Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 127.
- ⁵⁷Ibid., pp. 128-130.
- ⁵⁸Ibid., pp. 130-132.
- ⁵⁹Ibid., p. 116.
- ⁶⁰Ibid., p. 32.
- ⁶¹G. Charles-Picard, Art romain, p. 13; and "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 15.
- ⁶²Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 133 divides the sides differently: W1, W2, W5, W6 against W3, W4, W7, W8, W9, W11, W12, W13, W14, W15. This scheme ignores similarities in armament (e.g., W2, W9, and W13 all wear crested helmets; W6, W7, and W12 wear unusual helmets).
- ⁶³Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 51.
- ⁶⁴Ibid.

⁶⁵Ibid., p. 54; see also G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 12;

⁶⁶See also Hübner, "Die Bildwerke," p. 34, but he calls W2, W9, W12-14 "Roman legionaries"; G. Charles-Picard, Roman Painting, p. 15 and "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 12.

⁶⁷G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 12; Salomon Reinach, Répertoire de Reliefs Grecs et Romains, Vol. I (Paris: Ernest Leroux, Editeur, 1909), p. 70, Fig. 1.

⁶⁸Karl Lehmann-Harleb, "Two Roman Silver Jugs," AJA, 42 (1938), pp. 82, 103.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 84.

⁷⁰Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 150; see above, pp. 43ff., concerning the north panel.

⁷¹G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 15.

⁷²Munich, Museum Antiker Kleinkunst, no. 2365, ca. 390 B.C.

⁷³Paul A. Clement, "Geryon and Others in Los Angeles," Hesperia, 24 (1955), p. 21, of Campanian workmanship, ca. 325-315 B.C., No. A5933.50.22, with fifteen figures in three registers.

⁷⁴Reinhard Herbig, Die jüngeretruskischen Steinsarkophage, DAI, Die antiken Sarkophagreliefs, Bd. 7 (Berlin: Verlag Gebr. Mann, 1952), p. 61, no. 118, Taf. 39, late fourth-third centuries B. C.

⁷⁵Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 150.

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 199, where he identifies the garment as a toga.

⁷⁷Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 54 calls it a paludamentum.

⁷⁸Hübner, "Die Bildwerke," p. 31.

⁷⁹Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 54.

⁸⁰G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," pp. 14f.

⁸¹Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 180, 184.

⁸²Ibid., pp. 184-5, 199.

⁸³Ibid., pp. 193-4.

⁸⁴Ibid., p. 199; Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 57.

⁸⁵Albin Lesky, "Troilos, 2," RE, Bd. VII, A, 1, cols. 602-3, 605; Kurt Weitzmann, Ancient Book Illumination, Martin Classical Lectures, XVI (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 43.

⁸⁶Lesky, "Troilos," cols. 603-4, 606, 609; Vergil, Aeneid i.474 (painting showing Troilus dragged from a chariot); Horace, Carmina, ii.9.16 ("youthful"); Cicero, Tusc. i.39 (younger than Priam).

⁸⁷Konrad Schauenburg, "Achilleus in der unteritalischen Vasenmalerei," BonnJbb, 16 (1961), pp. 215-235, especially p. 218; Max Mayer, "Troilos," Ausführliches Lexikon der griechischen und römischen Mythologie, Bd. VIII, ed. by W. H. Roscher (Leipzig: Verlag und Druck von B. G. Teubner, 1909-1915), col. 1228; other scenes from the Kypria, the Iliad, the 'Little Iliad', and the Iliupersis on urns in Brunn-Körte, I, pp. 3-90.

⁸⁸See above, pp. 25ff.

⁸⁹Mayer, "Troilos," col. 1228, Museo Gregoriano II 27 (22). It is impossible to determine the exact date and place of manufacture for this vase. Mayer says that most vases with this iconography are late and South Italian. However, he lists four exceptions, describing two of them as Greek red-figure. Unfortunately, he does not give any information about our stamnos. It may be Greek since Trendall does not list it in his volumes of South Italian vases.

⁹⁰See also Françoise-Hélène Pairault, Recherches sur quelques series d'urnes de Volterra à représentations mythologiques, Collection de l'Ecole Française de Rome, 12 (Rome: Ecole Française de Rome, 1972), pp. 122-133. In addition to painted precedents, she theorizes that the central group E8-E13 may have been modelled after a sculptural group from the school of Skopas that was known to both Tarentine and Volterranean workshops (pp. 127, 132; see also L. Bernabò Brea, "I rilievi Tarantini in pietra tenera," RivIstArch, N.S. I (1952), pp. 1ff., Fig. 95). Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 191, argues that the group is based on a Pergamene painting representing the defeat of the amazons as an allegorical defeat of the barbarians.

⁹¹For example, Museo Guarnacci nos. 420 (Brunn-Körte, I.xlix.3a), 422 (Brunn-Körte, I.1.6), 376 (Brunn-Körte,

I.li.8), etc.

⁹²Museo Guarnacci, no. 375; Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 51.

⁹³Museo Guarnacci, no. 376 (Brunn-Körte, I.li.8; Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 56); Museo Guarnacci, no. 422 (Brunn-Körte, I.l.6; Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 53).

⁹⁴No. D136-7; Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 72a.

⁹⁵The Troilus myth is also represented on a gem in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, acc. no. 17.194.12 (Gisela M. A. Richter, Metropolitan Museum of Art. Catalogue of Engraved Gems: Greek, Etruscan, and Roman [Rome: "L'Erma" di Bretschneider, 1956], Pl. LXXI, no. 633, p. 127) and on an urn in the Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna, inv. no. 2188 (R. Noll, "Etruskische Aschenkisten mit der Troilossage in Wien," StEtr. 6 (1932), p. 436, Tav. XVII).

⁹⁶Fred S. Kleiner, a review of Le Mausolée de Glanum, by Henri Rolland, in AJA, 75 (1971), pp. 232-34, especially p. 234, but not mentioned in his dissertation.

⁹⁷Ibid., p. 234.

⁹⁸Bernhard Schweitzer, "Krieger in Grabkunst des fünften Jahrhunderts," Die Antike, 17 (1941), p. 37, Abb. 3 now in the National Museum, Athens.

⁹⁹Ibid.

¹⁰⁰Evelyn B. Harrison, "The South Frieze of the Nike Temple and the Marathon Painting in the Painted Stoa," AJA, 76 (1972), Pl. 74, Fig. 6, no. 1971.129.

¹⁰¹Chiusi, Museo Casuccini (Brunn-Körte, I.liv.13).

¹⁰²Brunn-Körte, I.l.5.

¹⁰³Ibid., p. 54.

¹⁰⁴Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Vol. V, Taf. cx.

¹⁰⁵Denise Rebuffat-Emmanuel, Le miroir étrusque d'après la collection du Cabinet des Médailles, Collection de l'École Française de Rome, 20 (Rome: École Française de Rome, Palais Farnèse, 1973), Vol. I, p. 474.

¹⁰⁶Museo Guarnacci, no. 422 (Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 53, p. 45, ca. 150 B.C.; Brunn-Körte, I.l.6).

¹⁰⁷ Brunn-Körte, I.liii.11 (Chiusi, Museo Casuc-cini), I.li.8 (Museo Guarnacci, second half second century), I.l.6 (Museo Guarnacci 422 = Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 53), I.xlix.4 (Museo Guarnacci 375); Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 59b (Museo Guarnacci 294), Pl. 65a (Vienna, Kunsthistorisches Museum, no. 1032).

¹⁰⁸ Pairault, Recherches, p.61.

¹⁰⁹ P. R. von Bieńkowski, Die Darstellungen der Gallier in der hellenistischen Kunst, Oesterreichisches Archäologisches Institut in Wien (Wien: Alfred Hölder, 1908), pp. 93ff.; Andreea, Motivgeschichtliche Untersuchungen, pp. 54ff.; see also Brunn-Körte, III.cxii.4,5 and cxv-cxxiii.

¹¹⁰ Brunn-Körte, I.lviii.22, lix.23 (in the Villa di Colle del Cardinale), lix.24 (hypogeum of the Volumni, inv. no. 67), lx.25 (Villa Bordonni); Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 49 (Museo Guarnacci 420).

¹¹¹ René Rebuffat, "Le meurte de Troilos sur les urnes étrusques (La Nuit et L'Aurore, V)," MéRomAntiquité, 84,1 (1972), p. 520 argues that the 'Polyxena' on the Etruscan urns is, in fact, a personification of Night.

¹¹² See above, pp. 24ff.

¹¹³ Kurt Weitzmann, Illustration in Roll and Codex. A Study of the Origin and Method of Text Illumination, Studies in Manuscript Illumination, 2 (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1970), Fig. 20, Berlin, inv. no. 30535.

¹¹⁴ Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Vol. IV, Taf. ccclix.

¹¹⁵ G. Q. Giglioli, L'arte etrusca (Milano: Fratelli Treves, 1935), Tav. ccxxxv, in the Museo Archeologico in Florence, from the fifth or fourth century B.C.

¹¹⁶ Museo Guarnacci 199 (Brunn-Körte, II.cxiv.1).

¹¹⁷ Rebuffat-Emmanuel, Le miroir étrusque, Pl. 70.5, p. 641, showing the influence of the Darius Painter. Other examples of winged Lasas include: Museo Guarnacci 287 (Brunn-Körte, III.lxxv.14, a journey to the Underworld), Berlin 1311 (Brunn-Körte, III.lvii.8, entry into the Underworld), Museo Guarnacci 183 (Brunn-Körte, III.i.2, kidnapping of Persephone), Museo Guarnacci 243 (Brunn-Körte, I.xxxii.14, death of Telephus), an urn in the Inghirami collection (Brunn-Körte, II.xli.3, death of Amphiaraos), an urn from the François Tomb, now in the Museo Torlonia (Gig-

lioli, L'arte etrusca, Tav. cclxvii, sacrifice of Trojan prisoners, second half fourth century B.C.).

¹¹⁸In the collection of Flavio Paolozzi (Brunn-Körte, II.xxiv.8).

¹¹⁹For example, Museo Guarnacci 376 (Brunn-Körte, I.li.8), dated second half of the second century B.C.

¹²⁰Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 185.

¹²¹Emeline Hill Richardson, "Terracotta Sculpture," in Cosa, II. The Temples of the Arx, by Frank Edward Brown, L. Richardson, Jr., and Emeline Hill Richardson, MAAR, XXVI (1960), pp. 307-308. Greek examples include the friezes of the Parthenon, Hephasteion, etc.

¹²²Vienna, Kunsthistorisches Museum, no. 2188 (Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 64a).

¹²³Museo Guarnacci 236 (Brunn-Körte, I.xii.25), Inghirami collection (Brunn-Körte, I.xiv.29).

¹²⁴George M. A. Hanfmann, Classical Sculpture, A History of Western Sculpture (Greenwich, Connecticut: New York Graphic Society, 1967), Fig. 213, ca. 250 B.C.

¹²⁵This hat with apex is also held by the young man at the far left of the mirror; see M. Pallottino, The Etruscans, trans. by J. Cremona, Penguin Books (Aylesbury: Hunt, Barnard & Co., Ltd., 1955), Pl. 25b.

¹²⁶See Inez Scott Ryberg, Rites of the State Religion in Roman Art, MAAR, XXII (1955), Pl. XII, Figs. 23a-b.

¹²⁷Blanckenhagen, "Narration," p. 81.

¹²⁸Museo etrusco del Vaticano (Brunn-Körte, I.lxxx.11).

¹²⁹Museo Guarnacci 345 (Brunn-Körte, I.lxxx.10; Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 99); Ny Carlsberg, H298 (Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 89); Berlin, Staatliches Museum, no. 1281 (Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 90); Florence, Museo Archeologico, no. 5777 (Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 91a); Florence, Museo Archeologico, no. 5778 (Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 86).

¹³⁰Collection of Flavio Paolozzi (Brunn-Körte, II.1.xxiv.8).

¹³¹Anna Rocco, "Il mito di Troilo su di un'anfora Italiota della Biblioteca dei Gerolomini in Napoli," ArchCl, 3 (1951), pp. 168-175, Tav. XL.

¹³²See below, pp. 27ff.

¹³³I am very much indebted to Emeline Richardson for suggesting the possibility of a connection with a South Italian pictorial tradition. Her suggestion prompted me to look more carefully in this direction and consequently has proven very valuable indeed.

¹³⁴Barré, Herculaneum et Pompéi, Vol. II, ser. 2, Pl. 32 and Vol. III, ser. 2, Pl. 109.

¹³⁵Ibid., Vol. III, ser. 5, Pl. 141.

¹³⁶Ibid., Vol. I, ser. 1, Pl. 108.

¹³⁷August Mau, Pompeii. Its Life and Art, trans. by Francis W. Kelsey (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1899), p. 468.

CHAPTER III

ARMAMENT

In this chapter we will examine the armament of the figures in the various panels. Does the armament reflect contemporary practice, or are the weapons characteristic of an earlier period? If the armament does date to an earlier era, can it be used as evidence for establishing a terminus post quem for the original compositions that served as inspiration for the panels? Finally, does the armament suggest any specific nationalities within the panels? The original study of the armament at St. Rémy was made by P. Couissin in 1923.¹ He worked largely from drawings that were made by Espérandieu from casts of the reliefs. Consequently, despite his important contributions, there were a large number of inaccuracies in the study. Rolland has expanded and clarified Couissin's study and has included detailed drawings of the armament and weapons in his publication of the Glanum cenotaph.²

Cuirasses

All of the active warriors in the panels wear cuirasses except E6 and E8, who are semi-nude heroes in the classical Greek tradition. Two types of cuirass are

represented: 1) a smooth cuirass fitted with broad epaulets and a skirt of lappets that reaches from waist to mid-thigh (e.g., W2, 4, 8, 9, etc.) and 2) a fitted muscle cuirass that ends in a loose skirt that reaches to mid-thigh (W 1, 6). Both versions appear as early as the fifth century B.C.³ and are well documented in Greek art of the fifth and fourth centuries and later. However, the particular styles seen at St. Rémy seem to be Hellenistic types. Hellenistic cuirasses in general were made of heavy leather with broad, reinforced epaulets and heavy belts (e.g., W2, 11, 14; N1, 5; to a lesser degree W4, 13; N3, 4; E16-18). Leather straps that were attached to the breastplate protected the thighs. These straps served the same protective function as pteryges that formed part of a special undergarment.⁴ These straps were shorter, narrower, fewer in number, and less elaborate than actual pteryges common in Rome from the Julio-Claudian period on.⁵ Vermeule has noted that Hellenistic cuirassed statues closely resemble the armor that was actually worn by Alexander the Great and his successors.⁶ It is this style that is also worn by most of the figures at St. Rémy.

Evidence for the smooth cuirass abounds in almost every artistic medium and covers a wide geographical area, including Greece, Asia Minor, South Italy, Egypt, Etruria, and Campania. Some fourth century examples include a Macedonian horseman on a stele in Alexandria,⁷ the Greeks of the painted amazon sarcophagus in Florence,⁸ and a

fragmentary grave stele in Athens.⁹ This last warrior wears a cuirass with broad epaulets and rows of lappets over a loose skirt; he could easily stride from the grave stele into the St. Rémy panels. This smooth or loose cuirass was particularly popular in the second century; a funerary stele in Rhodes¹⁰ shows a Pergamene style of the cuirass with broad epaulets, two rows of long and short lappets, and a heavy belt. It is quite similar to the St. Rémy style. The statue of Mithradates in the museum on Delos¹¹ wears the smooth field cuirass with an elaborate triple-banded belt or cingulum that is not duplicated at St. Rémy.

This smooth type was also widespread in Italy. Both mythological figures, such as Ajax and Achilles on a Chiusine mirror,¹² and heroic figures, such as the horseman on a sculptured plaque from a naiskos in Tarentum,¹³ wear smooth Hellenistic cuirasses. It serves as an accessory for the general from Tivoli.¹⁴ Finally, it is used in triumphal and funerary art in the Roman provinces, as evidenced by the triumphal fountain at Glanum¹⁵ and a cippus from Tauroentum.¹⁶

Muscle cuirasses were especially popular with Alexander the Great's cavalry,¹⁷ and they soon became popular as an artistic motif. The molded armor and loose skirt of W1 and W6 are exactly duplicated by the armor of a commander on a Scythian sword sheath in the Metropolitan Museum of Art¹⁸ and by the outfit of a fragmentary horse-

man from the naiskos in Tarentum.¹⁹ It was common in mythological representations as well as in commemorative sculptures. Telephus in the frieze from Pergamon wears a muscle cuirass²⁰ as do Perseus on a bronze mirror from Chiusi²¹ and a warrior on a Troilus urn from Volterra.²² We find it in the Basilica Aemilia frieze²³ and on a relief of a trophy from Saint-Bertrand-de-Comminges.²⁴ This survey indicates that both the smooth cuirass and the muscle cuirass at St. Rémy are Hellenistic styles that enjoyed considerable artistic popularity both during and after the Hellenistic period.

Helmets

There are two common helmet styles in the St. Rémy panels as well as six more unusual types. The most common helmet (worn by N2, 3, 5; W2, 9, 13; E6, 8, 18, 12 -- but with a different crest) has a high, domed crown, broad cheekpieces, and a flowing crest, possibly a horsetail, that is supported by a projection from the apex of the skull. Its basic shape recalls the Thracian helmet that originated in Greece in the fifth century B.C.²⁵ H. Russell Robinson in his recent book on Roman armor specifies this helmet as the Montefortino type that was in use from the late third century B.C. into the first half of the first century A.D.²⁶ These helmets were decorated with feathers or with horsetail crests or sometimes with flat metal horns or side plumes. The cheekpieces were often

of thick metal. Russell Robinson notes that this type "emerges as one of the standard Roman legionary helmets in late Republican and early Imperial times."²⁷ Rolland also considers this St. Rémy helmet to be a legionary type, but his argument is based on the fact that it is always worn in the panels by the warriors that have the advantage in the battle.²⁸

Should we then consider this helmet to be a contemporary detail included by the artist to create a realistic effect? I definitely think not. A similar helmet is worn by some of the Greeks in the amazonomachy frieze of the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus,²⁹ by Otus in the east frieze of the Great Altar at Pergamon,³⁰ and by the warriors in the backgrounds of the Pompeian paintings of 'Achilles on Skyros' and 'Achilles Surrendering Briseis'.³¹ It is also found in a historical context. The trophy on the coins commemorating Augustus' victory at Actium is crowned with this type of helmet.³²

I am convinced that the high-domed helmet type at St. Rémy too closely resembles the helmets in these other works, most of which are definitely earlier than St. Rémy, to represent any attempt on the part of the artist to depict a contemporary detail. In fact, the St. Rémy helmets differ in detail from every example of the Montefortino type illustrated by Russell Robinson; consequently, I am forced to question whether the St. Rémy style can legitimately be labelled "Montefortino". It seems to me

that this helmet, like the smooth and the muscle cuirasses, is a retention from Hellenistic models upon which the St. Rémy compositions are based.

Russell Robinson himself admits that Roman sculpture shows a "persistent Hellenistic influence" in the portrayal of helmet types.³³ He points out, for example, that the Attic helmets of the Basilica Aemilia frieze (ca. 14 B.C.) appear again in Trajanic and Aurelian reliefs (second century A.D.) and on the Arch of Constantine (312 A.D.).³⁴ I think that St. Rémy is also part of the artistic tradition that utilized Hellenistic models and details.

The second major helmet style at St. Rémy is again a Hellenistic adaptation. This type (worn by E14; W5, 8, 14, 15, and perhaps 1) has a rounded crown, abbreviated visor, and broad neckguard. A projection thrusting forward from the crown gives the general impression of the traditional Phrygian cap. This type may also be a descendant of the Thracian or of the Boeotian helmet, a Greek type that was especially popular with the Macedonian cavalry of Alexander the Great.³⁵ There is considerable documentation of this helmet type in monuments related to Alexander and his successors. The Greek who is the fourth standing figure from the left in the battle scene on the Alexander sarcophagus is wearing a helmet that is almost identical to the St. Rémy style.³⁶ It is also possible that the true Boeotian helmet, which is shaped like a petasos and which

has no crest, is worn by figures E16 and N4 at St. Rémy. This type also appears on the Alexander sarcophagus, where it is worn by the mounted Antigonus Monophthalmus.³⁷ I think both the descendant of the Boeotian helmet and the possible actual Boeotian helmet that are found in the St. Rémy panels reflect precedents in Hellenistic compositions and that the types were retained because of artistic popularity rather than any contemporary usage.

We may have better success in recognizing contemporary helmet types if we look for parallels for the unusual helmets worn by N1 (antennae or horns), W6 (fan-shaped crest), W7 (horns), W12 (curling ram's horns or plumes), and E10 (plumes shaped like "bunny ears"). Republican coins are a likely source for comparative evidence, and a number of coins do provide some interesting parallels for the unusual St. Rémy helmet types. Unfortunately, they do little to establish a terminus post quem for their usage as we shall see.

Horned helmets much like the helmet worn by N1 occur on a number of Caesarian denarii that were minted between 49 and 44 B.C. to commemorate the victories in Gaul. Each coin shows a trophy of Gallic arms that includes an oval shield, an ax, a carnyx, and a horned helmet.³⁸ Another series of denarii minted between 46 and 44 B.C. to commemorate Caesar's victories in Gaul and Spain show the same helmet. One coin from Spain depicts a trophy consisting of the horned helmet, an oval and an oblong shield,

two spears, and two carnyces.³⁹ A second Spanish coin shows a horned helmet that is virtually identical to the helmet of N1 as part of a trophy.⁴⁰ The helmet appears again with an oval shield as part of a trophy on an aureus minted around 44 B.C.⁴¹ It is also found in a fragmentary Augustan relief from Biot that is now in the museum at Antibes; Espérandieu believed that this fragment came from the entablature of a funerary monument and that the scene represented a battle between Gauls and Romans.⁴² Although all this evidence suggests a date in the second half of the first century B.C., especially during Caesar's campaigns of the 40's B.C., the horned helmet of N1 cannot be used as a secure dating device because earlier examples of the type also exist, particularly in Macedonia. Therefore, we can only say that the horned helmet may reflect contemporary practice in Gaul, but it may also merely be an adaptation from an older artistic tradition. There is no conclusive evidence to settle the question. I like to think, however, that if the motif were adopted from an earlier composition, it may have particularly caught the artist's eye because of its resemblance to a current Gallic style.

A search for parallels for the other unusual helmet types produces very few results. A notable comparison for W7's horned helmet appears on a denarius that was minted in Italy around 90 B.C. for Q. Minucius Thermus.⁴³ To the left on the reverse, a Roman defends his fallen

comrade against a barbarian in a horned helmet who is attacking from the right and who is carrying a small, round shield. The coin probably commemorates the deeds in Thrace (ca. 188, B.C.) of one of Minucius' ancestors. This example is yet another instance of the retention in art of an older motif; the original composition upon which the coin is based was very possibly a triumphal or familial painting.⁴⁴ A fan-shaped crest similar to the helmet of W6 is found on the cippus from Tauroentum that may date from the Tiberian period.⁴⁵ It could, therefore, also be a contemporary style, but there is no other evidence to support the possibility, so we are left in limbo as with the helmet of N1.

Shields and Swords

Almost all the figures in the St. Rémy panels (e.g., N1, 2, 4, 5; W2, 4, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14; E6, 8, 17) carry round, convex shields with a system of handgrips on the interior.⁴⁶ These grips are clearly visible on the shields of W2, E6, and E8. The rim of the shield is flattened and recessed. This shield is the standard Greek aspis, common to such Hellenistic works as the amazonomachy frieze of the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus,⁴⁷ the battle scenes of the Alexander sarcophagus,⁴⁸ and the Great Altar at Pergamon.⁴⁹ The interior of the shield, with the same system of handgrips at the center and the rim, is clearly shown on the oval amazonomachy cista from Vulci.⁵⁰

More significant than the presence of the Greek aspis at St. Rémy is the absence of the scutum and the oblong or hexagonal Gallic shield. The large, rectangular scutum with its concave profile is considered the characteristic shield of the Roman legions.⁵¹ It appears earlier than St. Rémy on the amazonomachy base from Nikopolis⁵² and in the tomb-painting from the Esquiline Hill in Rome.⁵³ Likewise, the hexagonal shield that is so prominent in the trophies on the arch at Orange⁵⁴ is considered a clear indication of Gallic iconography. Consequently, we have the same situation with the shields that we have with the cuirasses and the helmets. The artist has turned to artistic tradition rather than everyday life for the details of his composition.

Adherence to artistic tradition is also evidenced by the fact that all the St. Rémy figures wear their swords at their left sides in the Greek manner rather than at their right sides in the Roman manner.⁵⁵ W8 and E6 carry swords that have straight shafts, heavy rectangular guards, and large spherical pommels. Both N1 and N3 carry a lighter sword that Rolland describes as pistilli-forme.⁵⁶ W1 wields a broad-bladed sword. Couissin was the first to point out, and Rolland agrees with him, that none of these swords is typically Latin;⁵⁷ they are all traditional types just like the shields, helmets, and cuirasses.

Lances

Most of the lances in the panels have a long, slender head that is indented at the base where it joins the smooth shaft (e.g., N2, 5; W2, 9; E10-12; probably also N4, W13, E16, and E18, but the head is not visible).

Two figures (W12, 14) carry spears with short, diamond-shaped points and a tubular casing around the shaft.

This type has been identified by Rolland, Couissin, and others as the pilum used by the Roman legions, and they offer this evidence as indication of the inclusion of contemporary details in the compositions.⁵⁸ The monument of the Julii is usually cited as documentation for the style of the pilum in the late first century B.C.⁵⁹ Although the form was adopted by the Roman legions in the third century B.C., it was extensively modified by both Marius and Caesar so that the shaft would break when it entered the enemy's shield, thus making it impossible for him to reuse the weapon. A pyramidal, triangular, or cone-shaped head was affixed to an iron shaft that was then inserted into a pyramidal joint in a wooden holder.⁶⁰

I have to question whether the weapon carried by W12 and W14 is indeed a pilum. It seems to me that the reinforcement on W14's weapon is not an integral part of the structure but is instead some addition that is tied to the shaft of the spear (see Illus. 6). The shaft is not centered in this reinforcement, and such an off-center orientation would certainly have affected the flight of

the weapon when it was thrown, as the pilum was. Actual examples of pila, admittedly from a somewhat later date, show the upper shaft centered in a prominent wooden reinforcement that bears no resemblance to the St. Rémy arrangement.⁶¹

I am inclined to think that the weapon of W12 and W14 is a reflection of a practice mentioned by Cicero and others.⁶² In the Brutus (78,271) Cicero speaks of "... hastae velitibus amentatae...", or spears that are wrapped with thongs so that they can be thrown with greater force. Such a weapon is also described as a lance that is bound around the middle and then thrown.⁶³ This practice originated as early as the sixth century B.C.,⁶⁴ and literary sources indicate that it was common in Italy during the campaigns against Hannibal⁶⁵ and Antiochus.⁶⁶ Caesar also mentions this custom in his account of the wars in Gaul.⁶⁷ Although I can offer no corroborating evidence in art, I think that we have at St. Rémy a survival of this old practice. Since it was still familiar during Caesar's campaigns, it could still be said that its use reflects a certain contemporaneity, but it should not be restricted to the Roman legions. At any rate, this peculiar weapon should not be called a pilum and used as a sure indication that the artist was illustrating a detail adapted from the Roman legions in the late Republican period.

Almost every piece of armament in the St. Rémy

panels is a Hellenistic invention. Typical and characteristic Gallic dress and weapons, such as hexagonal shields, baggy trousers, or torques, are conspicuously absent. The horned helmet of N1 and the fan-shaped crest on the helmet of W6 may reflect Gallic traditions current when the panels were carved, but they are also similar to older styles and so may just as well be adaptations from an older artistic tradition. The unusual spears carried by W12 and W14 may also reflect a current practice, the ammentum mentioned by Cicero and others, but this peculiar type of weapon appeared as early as the sixth century B.C. Its use here may also be due to artistic convention. It is absolutely impossible to assign specific nationalities to the combatants, despite the efforts by such scholars as Rolland to do so,⁶⁸ and it is equally impossible to establish any more than a very general terminus post quem in the Hellenistic period.

Chamoux was absolutely right when he declared that the so-called "Gauls" resemble the so-called "Romans" who in turn resemble Greeks in numerous earlier works of art.⁶⁹ As Couissin recognized long ago, the armament in the St. Rémy panels reflects the modèles helléniques of its prototypes rather than documenting contemporary styles.⁷⁰ In the next chapter we will see a similar reflection of compositional techniques from pictorial prototypes.

NOTES

¹Paul Couissin, "Les Guerriers et les armes sur les bas-reliefs du Mausolée des Jules à Saint-Rémy," RA, Ser. 5, 17 (1923,1), pp. 303-321.

²Rolland, Le Mausolée, pp. 61-64, Pls. 29-33.

³Anthony M. Snodgrass, Arms and Armour of the Greeks (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1967), pp. 90-92.

⁴Cornelius C. Vermeule III, "Hellenistic and Roman Cuirassed Statues. The Evidence of Paintings and Reliefs in the Chronological Development of Cuirass Types," Berytus Archeological Studies, 13 (1959-60), pp. 1-82 and later supplements.

⁵H. Russell Robinson, The Armour of Imperial Rome (London: Lionel Levanthal Limited, Arms and Armour Press, 1975), p. 149.

⁶Vermeule, "Cuirassed Statues," p. 5.

⁷Jean Charbonneaux, Roland Martin, and François Villard, Hellenistic Art (330-50 B.C.), trans. by Peter Green, The Arts of Mankind (New York: George Braziller, 1973), Fig. 100.

⁸Ibid.: Figs. 102-104, pp. 107-108.

⁹Vermeule, "Cuirassed Statues," p. 13, Pl. I.2, kept "behind the Hephaisteion."

¹⁰Ibid., Pl. II.6, p. 15, in the Archeological Museum, no. 1154.

¹¹Ibid., Pl. I.5, p. 32, ca. 102 B.C.

¹²Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, I.cccxxiv, p. 8.

¹³Joseph Coleman Carter, "Relief Sculptures from the Necropolis of Taranto," AJA, 74 (1970), Fig. 4 (Relief D).

¹⁴Hanfmann, Classical Sculpture, no. 282, dated ca. 80-60 B.C., now in the Museo Nazionale delle Terme.

¹⁵G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," p. 4, Fig. 3; Rolland, Fouilles de Glanum, Pl. 10.2.

¹⁶G. Charles-Picard, "Glanum et les origines, II," pp. 3-5; Les trophées romains, Pl. XII.

¹⁷Snodgrass, Arms and Armour, p. 419.

¹⁸Hanfmann, Classical Sculpture, no. 219.

¹⁹Carter, "Relief Sculpture from Taranto," Fig. 6 (Relief F).

²⁰BrBr 470; Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Fig. 305.

²¹Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, I.v, no. 67.

²²Museo Guarnacci 294A, Brunn-Körte, I.lvi.16; Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 59b.

²³G. Charles-Picard, Roman Painting, p. 21, Pl. VII (dated ca. 60 B.C.).

²⁴G. Charles-Picard, Les trophées romains, Pl. XVI.

²⁵See Snodgrass, Arms and Armour, p. 95, Fig. 53 (in the Staatliche Museen, Berlin) on the type.

²⁶Russell Robinson, Armour of Imperial Rome, p. 13.

²⁷Ibid., pp. 13-14.

²⁸Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 61.

²⁹e.g., British Museum slabs 1015, 1020.

³⁰Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Fig. 291; see also the fragmentary bronze from Pergamon in my Fig. 18, p. 143.

³¹Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Figs. 125 (Skyros) and 123 (Briseis).

³²G. Charles-Picard, Les trophées romains, Pl. VIII; Max von Bahrfeldt, Die römische Goldmünzenprägung während der Republik und unter Augustus (Aalen: Scientia Verlag,

1972 reprint of 1923 edition), p. 113, no. 22, Taf. 10.

³³Russell Robinson, Armour of Imperial Rome, pp. 13ff.

³⁴Ibid., p. 16.

³⁵Snodgrass, Arms and Armour, pp. 94-95, 125, Fig. 58 (Ashmolean Museum) on the type.

³⁶Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Fig. 250.

³⁷Ibid.

³⁸BMC Republic, Vol. I, p. 505, no. 3954, Pl. XLIX.12; p. 506, no. 3957, Pl. XLIX.13; Crawford, Roman Republican Coinage, Vol. I, p. 467, no. 452 (1), 48/7 B.C. (= BMC Republic, Vol. I, no. 3953); p. 467, no. 452 (4), Pl. LIII, 48/7 B.C. (= BMC Republic, Vol. I, p. 506, no. 3959, Pl. XLIX.14); p. 467, no. 452 (5), Pl. LIII, 48/7 B.C. (= BMC Republic, Vol. I, p. 507, no. 3960); GianGuido Belloni, ed., Le monete romane dell'Età repubblicana. Catalogo delle raccolte numismatiche (Milano: Comune di Milano, 1960), Tav. 50, no. 1911 (see also nos. 1912 and 1915).

³⁹Crawford, Roman Republican Coinage, Vol. I, p. 479, no. 468 (2), Pl. LV, 46/5 B.C. (= BMC Republic, Vol. II, p. 368, no. 86, Pl. CI.9).

⁴⁰Ibid., Vol. I, p. 479, no. 468 (1), Pl. LV, 46/5 B.C. (= BMC Republic, Vol. II, p. 369, no. 89, Pl. CI.10); see also Belloni, Le monete romane, Tav. 51, no. 2001 (also nos. 2008 and 2012), p. 222, dated ca. 47-45 B.C.

⁴¹Ernest Babelon, Description Historique et Chronologique des Monnaies de la République Romaine vulgairement appelées monnaies consulaires, Vol. II (Bologna: Arnaldo Forni Editore, 1963), p. 17.

⁴²Espérandieu, Vol. I, pp. 29-32, especially p. 31, nos. 5 and 6.

⁴³BMC Republic, Vol. II, p. 302, no. 656, Pl. XCV.14; see also Babelon, Monnaies de la République Romaine, Vol. II, p. 235.

⁴⁴BMC Republic, Vol. II, p. 302, no. 656, note.

⁴⁵Espérandieu, Vol. I, p. 44, no. 46, Fig. 3, possibly Tiberian.

⁴⁶Russel Robinson, Armour of Imperial Rome, p. 16 says oval; W8 and W9 may carry oval shields, E13 carries a pelta, and E18 perhaps carries an unusually large, oval shield.

⁴⁷British Museum slabs 1010, 1018-1021, etc.

⁴⁸Hanfmann, Classical Sculpture, Pl. VI.

⁴⁹Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Fig. 291, carried by Otus.

⁵⁰Giovannangelo Camporeale, "L'Amazzonomachia in Etruria," StEtr, 27 (1959), p. 128, Tav. XV and XVI, now in the Museo Vaticano; Herbig, Steinsarkophage, Taf. 38. Such a scheme is also evident in the terracotta urn in the Worcester Art Museum and on a sarcophagus from Vulci that is now in the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston.

⁵¹Betsy Davison, Shields of Ancient Rome in Art and History, Library Series (San Diego: Maltes Westerfield Publishing Company, 1969), p. 5. According to Sallust 86,34 an oval shield was in use in the second century B.C. but by Marius' time the scutum was common.

⁵²Josef Fink, "Amazonenkämpfe auf einer Reliefbasis in Nikopolis," JOAI, 47 (1964-5), pp. 74-5.

⁵³in Braccio nuovo, Palazzo dei Conservatori, Sala I/33, no. 1025; see Lübke-Pernice, Die Kunst der Römer, ed. by Berta Sarne (Wien: Paul Neff Verlag, 1958), p. 357, Fig. 348.

⁵⁴R. Amy, et al., L'Arc d'Orange, Vol. II, XVe Supplément à «Gallia» (Paris: Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, 1962), Pls. 75, 76, 110.

⁵⁵Russell Robinson, Armour of Imperial Rome, p. 16.

⁵⁶Rolland, Fouilles de Glanum, Vol. II, p. 63.

⁵⁷Couissin, "Les Guerriers et les armes," p. 319; Rolland, Fouilles de Glanum, Vol. II, p. 63.

⁵⁸Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 61, seems to think E18 also carries a pilum; Couissin, "Les Guerriers et les armes," p. 312 and "Les armes figurées sur les monuments romains de la Gaule méridionale," RA, Ser. 5, 18 (1923,2), p. 58 says the pilum is once carried by a "Gaul" because of the artist's ignorance or indifference; G. Charles-Picard, Les trophées romains, p. 198, says the pilum is a touch of reality that probably came from notebooks of actual observations or of drawings from some intermediary monument.

⁵⁹Salomon Reinach, "Pilum," *DarSag*, Vol. IV,1, (2nd ed.; Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie, 1875), cols. 481-484, especially col. 482.

⁶⁰Ibid., cols. 482-483; Russell Robinson, Armour of Imperial Rome, Pl. I; Polybius VI,23. Excavations at St. Blaise have produced actual examples of pila with iron shafts and wooden holders (Rolland, Fouilles de Glanum, Vol. II, p. 63).

⁶¹Reinach, "Pilum," Figs. 5677-5681, see also Figs. 5682 (second century A.D.), 5684 (second century A.D.).

⁶²TLI, Vol. I, col. 1885, s.v. "am(m)entum", "amento, amentum"; Lucan 6,221; Ovid, Metamorphoses, 12,321; etc.

⁶³Serv. Aen. 9,662 (ammentum est lorum quo media hasta religatur et iacitur).

⁶⁴Snodgrass, Arms and Armour, Fig. 34, p. 80.

⁶⁵Silius Italicus 4,15 (hasta iuvatur amento ab arma parantibus).

⁶⁶Livy 37,41,5, concerning events of ca. 190 B.C.

⁶⁷Caesar, Gall. 5,48,5, used metaphorically.

⁶⁸Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 61.

⁶⁹Chamoux, "Les Antiques," p. 105.

⁷⁰Couissin, "Les Guerriers et les armés," p. 320.

CHAPTER IV

FIGURAL PROTOTYPES AND PICTORIAL TECHNIQUES

In the first part of this chapter we will examine the figural prototypes for the figures in the St. Rémy panels. Although numerous scholars, including Ernst Garger and Bernard Andreae,¹ have made admirable studies of the individual poses in the panels and have traced the origins of these motifs in Greek art, it will best suit our purposes to select those motifs which suggest a definite three-dimensionality and to trace only these particular motifs back into Greek art. Three-dimensionality is generally recognized as an indication of pictorial draughtsmanship. We will hope to establish a terminus post quem for the selected motifs. It will also be important to note in what artistic media the motifs predominantly appear and to speculate whether these media could suggest something about the originals upon which the compositions were based.

The second part of this chapter will be devoted to the compositions as entities. What elements in the compositions could be borrowed from pictorial sources? Could the groove used to outline the figures be a survival

of a technique of painting? What effect would painting have on the reliefs? How was the artist limited in his adaptation of pictorial elements by the relief surface? What effect does the architectural position of the panels have on the pictorialism of the compositions? In trying to answer these questions, we will consider such aspects as the handling of depth and space, the direction of movement with relation to the relief surface, the profile of the relief surface, the contour groove, and painting.

Figural Prototypes

Individual figures suggest three-dimensionality by foreshortening, by a preference for a three-quarter rather than a profile view, and by frontal or back views rather than a mere profile. At least four motifs, in the St. Rémy panels deserve consideration on these grounds: the obliquely moving horses of N1-5 (and E13), the crouching W15 who is seen from the rear, the falling horse of N6, and the various convex shields that are seen obliquely from the inner side (N1, 5; W1, 2; E6, 8). There is some precedent in both sculpture and painting for each type of motif. Because the inner view of the shield is a popular and common motif early in Greek art (i.e., by the mid-fifth century B.C. in painting and soon thereafter in sculpture), we will not trace its origins because it can do nothing toward establishing a terminus post quem for the compositions.

Oblique horses N1-N5

The obliquely moving horses in the north panel are the easiest three-dimensional motif to document. In the amazonomachy friezes from Bassae (ca. 410) and Halicarnassus (ca. 350) we see a nascent form of the motif.² Rather than rearing in strict profile, the horses' heads in these friezes are occasionally turned out toward the viewer and are worked almost completely in the round, as they are at St. Rémy. However, these horses are not foreshortened, and they do not suggest any oblique movement. None of the riders at Bassae or Halicarnassus comes close to the torsion-filled poses of the cavalrymen of the north panel.

Relief sculpture really offers only two comparable precedents to the St. Rémy horses. A fragmentary relief from Lecce (ca. 225), now in the museum at Budapest,³ shows a cavalry battle with at least three horsemen involved. Kleiner has pointed out that the second and third horses from the left in the Lecce fragment are similar to horses N3 and N5.⁴ The head of the second horse, like the head of horse N3, is seen from the rear and turned to the right; his rider is seen almost frontally while rider N3 is seen from the rear. What distinguishes the St. Rémy motif is that the horse is seen obliquely from the rear rather than in profile like the Lecce horse. The third Lecce horse and rider are similar to N5. Like him, the rider's torso is almost frontal and his right arm is raised beside his head to strike a blow. The horse seems

to move obliquely from the background, but unlike horse N5 his head is not turned at all but is seen in strict profile to the right.

Perhaps the best depiction of a horse's oblique movement in relief sculpture prior to St. Rémy is the riderless horse (no. 5) in the frieze from the Aemilius Paullus monument in Delphi (ca. 168 B.C.).⁵ His body is seen in left profile, and his head, which is turned to the right, is seen from behind. This animal is very similar to horse N3, except that the Glanum horse is seen obliquely from the rear rather than in profile. A partially preserved horse in the same frieze (no. 14)⁶ is similar to horse N3 in that it is seen obliquely from the rear with its forelegs in the air. The head and forelegs are now missing, so their exact position is uncertain. The rider differs from N3 because he sits upright with his left arm at his side and his right arm partially obscuring his face, but he is seen from the rear like N3, who is leaning to the right with his sword raised above his head, his face unobscured, and his left arm brought across his body in a defensive pose. This pose is more clearly seen with N2. These two horses (nos. 5 and 14) are the only animals in the frieze that suggest a pictorial rendering; almost all the other horses (except no. 18) are seen in strict profile moving in a plane parallel to the relief ground.

Vase-paintings offer fuller documentation for the creation and popularity of motifs such as horses N3 and N5.

An Apulian volute krater by the Sisyphus Painter (ca. 410)⁷ shows a mounted amazon who is comparable to N5. Both the horse and the amazon are shown obliquely from the front. The horse is moving to the right with his head turned; the amazon is turning to the left to strike with an upraised arm at a Greek soldier who is approaching on foot. This motif of a horse and rider seen obliquely from the front enjoyed considerable popularity throughout the fourth century.⁸

Although horses shown from the front while moving in lines oblique to the background appear on vases from the late fifth century on, horses seen obliquely from the rear do not appear until the latter part of the fourth century. Kleiner cites an Attic pelike in Warsaw and an Apulian volute krater in Munich as two of the earliest examples.⁹ In each case, the horses are seen from the rear as their amazon riders twist their bodies dramatically to confront their attackers. These motifs are very similar to N3 and N5 in the St. Rémy panels. Although they are duplicated by no particular St. Rémy motif, the horse and rider in a tomb-painting from Dion (Fig. 16) indicate the skill with which painters were able to depict a foreshortened horse and rider from the rear. This motif is particularly notable because of the torsion of the horse's forequarters. He turns his head back to his right so that it is presented frontally to the spectator. A more restrained, but still comparable torsion is shown by horse N5. A mirror image



Fig. 16. Drawing of a fragment
of a tomb-painting, Dion.

(vonGraeve, Alexandersarkophag, Taf. 76.2.)

of the Dion rider, who is seen in three-quarter right profile from the rear, is presented by rider N3.

Pictorial depictions of horses in both front and rear views occur in several other artistic media as well as in relief sculpture and vase-painting. An Etruscan mirror in Paris (late fourth or early third century B.C.)¹⁰ shows Aurora in a chariot pulled by horses. The horses' bodies are elongated and curved and are shown in a three-quarter profile from the rear. Their heads are turned. These animals are very similar to the riderless horse (no. 5) in the Aemilius Paullus frieze, but in their oblique positioning they also offer precedent for horses N3 and N5 at St. Rémy. Another outstanding Etruscan parallel for the St. Rémy motifs is found on the amazonomachy cista from Vulci (Fig. 17),¹¹ which is roughly contemporary with the Aurora mirror. The cista shows a mounted amazon seen in three-quarter profile from the rear as she leans to the right with her right arm raised and obscuring her face as she attacks a Greek who has fallen under her horse. Her pose is seen in motif N3. The horse she is riding is seen obliquely from the rear with his head turned in right profile. His pose is almost duplicated by horse N1.

The horse N4 is approximated by an animal in the Alexander mosaic from the House of the Faun in Pompeii.¹² This mosaic is a second century adaptation of a late fourth century painting.¹³ Midway between the mounted Alexander and Darius in his chariot is a horse that is rearing from

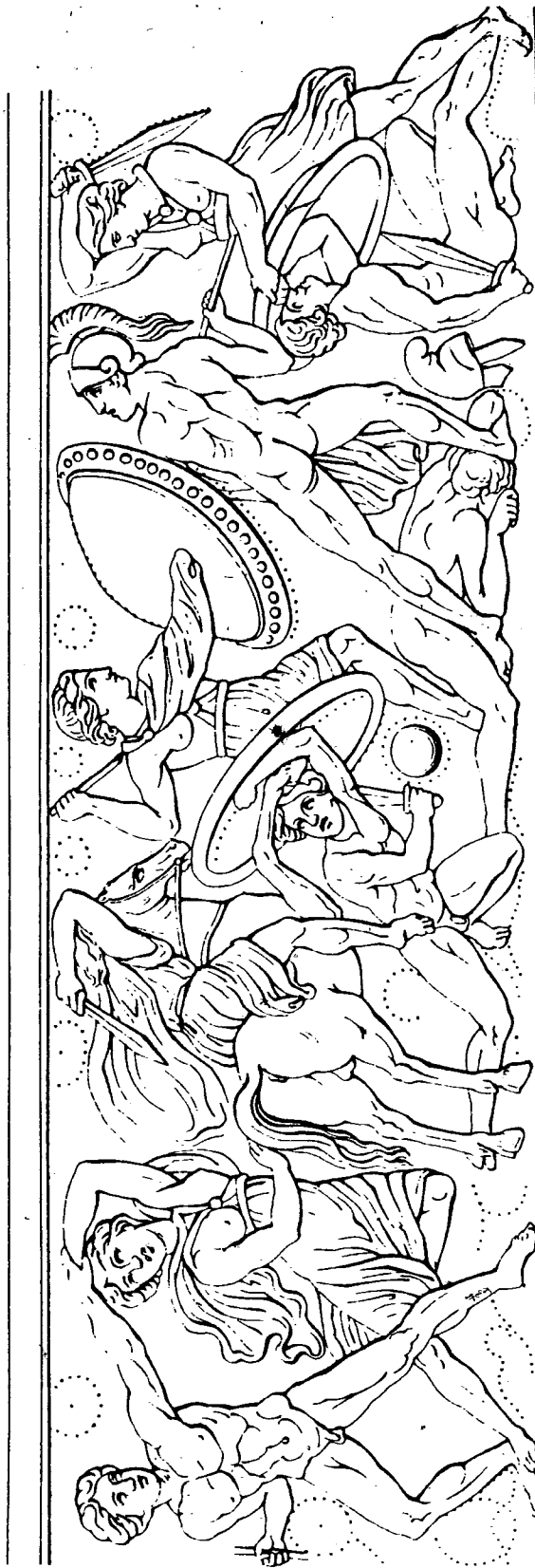


Fig. 17. Amazonomachy. Etruscan cista, from Vulci. Vatican, Museo Vaticano.
(Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Bd. I, Taf. x.)

the background into the foreground. His hindquarters are obscured, his head is almost frontal and is pulled back, and his forelegs paw the air just like horse N4. Finally, similar horses are also found on a series of gems from the third and second centuries B.C. The horses and their riders are seen in three-quarter profiles from the back and are very similar to motif N3.¹⁴

Crouching warrior W15

Success is more limited in trying to trace the history of the motif W15, a kneeling warrior seen from the rear. A rough version of the motif appears on an amazonomachy volute krater of the mid-fifth century¹⁵ and slightly later on the west frieze of the Nike Temple in Athens (ca. 425).¹⁶ Adaptations also appear in the Gjölbaschi friezes. Once, the figure is shown in a defensive pose similar to the figure on the Nike Temple, and again he is shown in an observant pose more similar to W15.¹⁷ However, I must agree with Garger that no exact parallel for this figure has really been found.¹⁸

Fallen horse N6

An exact parallel also has not been found for the fallen horse N6, but two virtuoso foreshortenings deserve mention nevertheless. In the Alexander mosaic¹⁹ the horse of Alexander's adversary falls in a restrained, foreshortened pose. His forelegs are folded sideways under him, and his neck is bowed with his muzzle touching the ground. The

artist here has chosen the moment preceding total collapse while the more daring St. Rémy master selected instead the moment of collapse. An Etruscan artist, on the other hand, chose the moment after collapse for a bronze mirror from Bolsena (Fig. 11).²⁰ The scene shows Ajax and Achilles after the murder of Troilus. At their feet is Troilus' slain horse in a most contorted pose. We clearly see his tail, but because the attempt at foreshortening is a little too adventurous, it is hard to tell just what else we see.

These examples, although they do not offer exact parallels for the St. Rémy motif N6, do indicate that such complicated problems of draughtsmanship fascinated artists from the end of the fourth century on. They made various experiments in attempting to solve these problems successfully. The experiment at St. Rémy is more daring than the mosaic and more successful than the mirror. Therefore, the origins of this particular motif might best be assigned to the middle or late third century, when artists had learned better how to handle such a highly complicated position. Unfortunately, the lack of exact parallels makes it impossible to confirm this hypothesis.

Pictorial Techniques

The panel reliefs at St. Rémy have been aptly termed "Reliefgemälde"²¹ by scholars. Certainly the large compositions set within frames of pilasters that are looped

with garlands²² impress one almost as panel pictures on display in a gallery. What characteristics qualify the reliefs to be considered as "paintings in stone"? Are the reliefs direct translations of paintings or are they adaptations of pictorial compositions that use other elements as well? What traditions could the St. Rémy artist have borrowed from painted precedents? How successfully did he adapt these elements into the more restrictive medium of relief sculpture? In order to find satisfactory answers to these questions, we must consider what we know of monumental painting in the Hellenistic world, what techniques could be adapted from such paintings, what precedents exist for such adaptations, and how the St. Rémy panels themselves reflect pictorial traditions and techniques. As we consider these questions, we will also attempt to establish a terminus post quem for the particular pictorial devices that are used in the panels at St. Rémy.

The precedents

The Alexander mosaic

Monumental paintings belong to what may be termed the "grand pictorial" tradition. According to the painter Nicias (ca. 350-300), the artist must be sure to select appropriate subjects for his compositions. He should paint heroic scenes with a large number of figures engaged in a vigorous action of heroic proportions.²³ Our best indications of how such compositions must have looked

come from vase-paintings, urns and sarcophagi, gems, and mosaics. Usually we have only an abbreviation of the original composition. A vase-painter could scarcely have fitted onto an amphora a composition that originally covered the better part of a wall. Consequently, perhaps the best survival of an almost complete grand pictorial composition is the Alexander mosaic from Pompeii.²⁴ It is generally agreed that this mosaic is a copy of a large painting that was executed in the fourth century B.C. by Philoxenos of Eretria for Cassander.²⁵ We will examine this mosaic in order to determine what traditions we should look for in the St. Rémy panels as indications of an underlying pictorial heritage. By also looking at several reliefs that are earlier than St. Rémy and that use certain pictorial techniques, we can confirm the criteria produced by the examination of the Alexander mosaic before we look at the St. Rémy panels themselves.

The mosaic shows a battle between the forces of Alexander the Great and Darius, king of the Persians. We see Alexander's organized troops pressing Darius' confused army which has begun a panic-stricken retreat. There are a large number of men, horses, and weapons, and the action is violent and tumultuous. The success of the composition depends on several factors: the handling of perspective, the treatment of depth and space, and the suggestion of landscape. A consideration of each aspect will produce some important guidelines for the St. Rémy panels.

We do not see the figures in a mere linear arrangement against a neutral background; Alexander and Darius dominate the foreground and are larger in scale than the other combatants. This difference may be due in part to their greater relative importance, but it is also due to their position in the foreground of the composition. At least two rows of heads of smaller-scale figures are superimposed one in front of the other in isocephalic lines behind the main characters. It is a realistic perspective because the spectator is looking into a mass of figures who are more obscured as they are deeper into the background and, therefore, into the mass of figures. This type of perspective is more sophisticated than the "bird's-eye" perspective of the famous scene of the riot in the amphitheater from Pompeii.²⁶ In this painting the amphitheater is seen from above in such a way that all the spectators inside the building are seen, as well as the fight that is going on outside its walls.

Although the battleground in the mosaic is somewhat slanted, the mosaic maintains a greater realism because its overall perspective is closer to actual life. We do not have the feeling that the groundline has been distorted just to allow us to see the figures in the background; its slant is merely its natural state. Similarly, the scale of the figures follows a logical pattern; the figures in the foreground are larger than the figures in the background. Such a proportionate handling of scale

is absent in the "bird's-eye" perspective of the riot scene where the architecture has been greatly reduced in scale so that all the smaller humans can be shown without being dwarfed.

A basic impression of depth is created by the smaller scale of the background figures, and that impression is furthered by the masterful foreshortening of the horse beside Darius' chariot and by the oblique movements of several other horses and men. By foreshortening the horse beside the chariot so that we are able to see him from the rear as he moves perpendicularly into the background, the artist has convinced the spectator that his figures are moving within space. This impression is similarly enhanced by the rearing and falling horses to the left of the first horse, by the Persian falling under Darius' chariot, by Darius' team, and by Darius himself as he leans out from the chariot. All these figures are foreshortened to allow the artist to depict their movements realistically in space.

In spite of the diverse movements of the various figures, the scene is a coherent mass. The basic lines of action are clear, even though most of the figures overlap each other. Such overlappings add to the impression of depth and to the tumult of the scene. The figures cast shadows on the ground, but not on each other. Figures are shown in profile, but there is a decided preference for three-quarter views and bodies whose movements show consid-

erable torsion. These devices also contribute to the overall impression of depth. Finally, the picture is made more complete by the inclusion of a single landscape "prop", a large dead tree in the background to the left of center in the composition. The artist has used this tree to create an outdoor setting rather than leaving a generalized scene against a neutral background. It is an effective, if laconic, statement of setting and a nice touch of realism. Only the south panel at St. Rémy has a similar setting, and again the "props" are dead trees.

Our consideration of the Alexander mosaic as an example of the "grand pictorial" tradition produces several criteria that we should look for in other pictorial compositions, including the St. Rémy panels. Both perspective and scale should be consistent and logical. A large number of figures should be comfortably integrated into a coherent grouping of overlapping figures engaged in diverse actions. Movement should be diagonal to the background as well as parallel to it. Figures may be seen in three-quarter views, contorted positions, and foreshortened poses. An impression of depth may be created by the choice of perspective (perhaps involving a varying scale for the foreground and background figures), foreshortening of figures, overlappings, oblique movements of men and animals, and a preference for three-quarter, frontal, or rear views rather than simple profiles. Landscape elements, such as trees,

may be used to suggest a naturalistic rather than a generalized setting.

Gjölbaschi

There are several extant pieces of relief sculpture that are closely related to pictorial sources in draughtsmanship and sometimes in usage as well. The earliest example comes from the Heroön at Gjölbaschi in Asia Minor (end of the fifth century B.C.).²⁷ These reliefs are made up of registers, either two registers stacked on each other or just a single wide register. A large number of episodes are arranged in narrative sequences in the various friezes. Many of the scenes include architectural or landscape elements, and several scenes, including the siege of a walled city,²⁸ suggest an admirable feeling of depth. However, these reliefs belong to a documentary, sculptural tradition rather than to the "grand pictorial" tradition. A brief look at the siege scene will illustrate several important differences between the two traditions.

The siege fills two superimposed registers, so we see the figures in a tiered perspective. They seem to be set on "steps" at different levels in the field rather than placed in space in a realistic relationship. The use of registers and the consequent smaller scale of the composition already mark a separation from the grand tradition. Defenders are hurling rocks down from the city walls on attackers below who defend themselves with raised shields. Both defenders and attackers are set obliquely against the

relief surface. The defenders are seen in three-quarter frontal views and the attackers in three-quarter rear views. An assembly of gods watches quietly to the right. Below them, two attackers are about to enter an open door in the walls. Behind these two figures are two marching soldiers. The door is a dark, hollowed niche with an actual depth as well as an imaginary depth suggested by the shadows. The figure crouching to enter the door is seen in a three-quarter rear view rather than in profile like the two striding soldiers behind him. Many of the figures are realistically grouped, with the figures overlapping each other. However, the scale of the figures is inconsistent; there is no logical reduction in scale between the defenders on the walls and the attackers below the city. The figure entering the door is in scale with the door, but the door itself is about three-quarters as high as the city wall in which it is set. Such marked variance in scale creates a disunity in and between scenes.

Obviously, this relief defies a number of the criteria established by the Alexander mosaic as part of the grand tradition. It is a small-scale, narrative sequence rather than a single, monumental tableau. The use of one or two registers to depict a single scene immediately creates an inconsistent scale between the various episodes. In addition, the scale within an individual scene is inconsistent. There is no change in scale to suggest

a difference in perspective between the defenders and the attackers. To the right, the two marching soldiers are disproportionately larger than any of the other human figures. Their pose is also purely sculptural; they are seen in a static ranking meant to suggest the ordered march of a troop. In order to find a tradition more comparable to the St. Rémy style, we must look to the Hellenistic world.

Fragmentary Hellenistic reliefs

Artists of the third and second centuries made various attempts to solve the problems caused by adapting pictorial renditions to relief work. In a fragmentary bronze relief from Pergamon (Fig. 18)²⁹ the artist tried to suggest depth although he avoided oblique movements and the sophisticated foreshortenings required to portray such movement convincingly. Instead he created an impression of depth by arranging nine infantrymen and four cavalymen on three different planes. The foreground is littered with fallen bodies and weapons and offers the footing for the three lunging horses. Three infantrymen and one galloping horse fill the middle ground while the background is occupied by two more infantrymen. Only two examples of foreshortening occur, but they are bold attempts in an otherwise simple composition. In the left foreground, a warrior has fallen behind his large, round shield. Although the shield is fully visible, we see only the warrior's thighs, shown frontally, protruding from

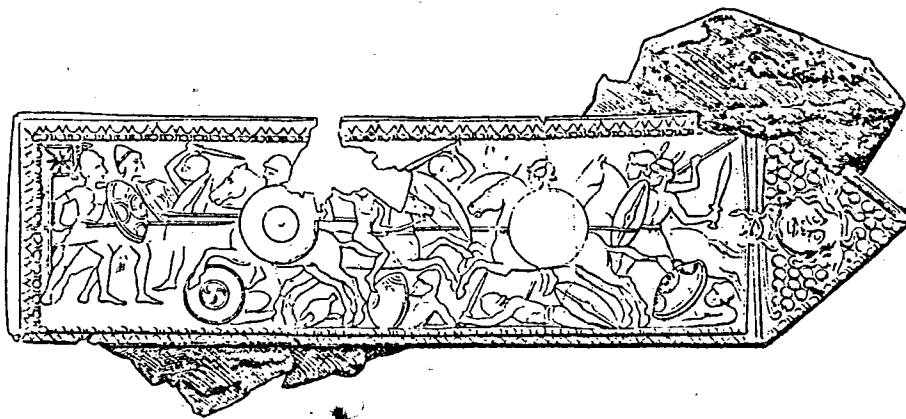


Fig. 18. Fragmentary bronze relief,
from Pergamon. Berlin.

(Conze, Stadt und Landsschaft, p. 251, Abb. 1.)

behind the shield. In the right foreground, another warrior has fallen. We see his head and left shoulder, but the rest of his body is hidden by his convex shield. The standing warrior directly behind him is seen from the rear. The scale of the figures varies but follows no logical plan. Clearly the artist is still restricted by his medium, but he has succeeded in accommodating a large number of figures in a very small space by utilizing a stacked succession of planes within his composition. It seems reasonable to speculate that he may, in fact, have had some monumental tableau as a model and that he adapted it as best he could.

Two fragmentary friezes also combine sculptural and pictorial traditions successfully. Both the frieze from Lecce and the Aemilius Paullus frieze from Delphi adhere primarily to sculptural traditions.³⁰ Figures are set in linear arrangement in isolated groups against a neutral background, especially in the Aemilius Paullus frieze. The outstanding exceptions are several foreshortened horses that move in lines diagonal to the relief surface. In addition, the horses of the Lecce frieze overlap, and there are several superimposed groups in the Delphi frieze that recall the arrangement on the Pergamene bronze.

Telephus frieze

Perhaps the most familiar frieze to make extensive use of pictorial devices is the Telephus frieze from Pergamon (ca. 160 B.C.).³¹ It originally occupied a wall behind

a colonnade, a location usually associated with paintings. Like the Gjölbaschi friezes, it is a series of episodes rather than a single, monumental tableau. Its episodes, all relating to the life of Telephus, are arranged in a narrative sequence and are separated by landscape or architectural elements. Peter von Blanckenhagen beautifully described the character of this frieze as "intimate" rather than "heroic."³² Therefore, it does not belong to the grand pictorial tradition of the Alexander mosaic, but it is a "translation of painting" that uses many of the pictorial devices associated with the grand tradition.

There is a proportionate resolution of scale between the human figures and the architecture and landscape that forms a backdrop for them. The scenes easily handle a large number of figures in overlapping groups or individual poses; these figures are often seen in three-quarter, frontal, or rear views rather than in simple profile. Sometimes, the figures are all shown on one groundline, but in other scenes they are arranged in tiers to give an indication of depth. The arrangements are logical and realistic even when the varying groundlines are not actually visible. A closer examination of two episodes will illustrate these devices.

One well-known scene shows the building of Auge's ship. The foreground is filled by the ship, which is seen obliquely, and by the workmen. Auge and her handmaidens

are seated in the background, apparently on a rocky outcropping, since they are higher than the workmen's heads.

Thus, the figures are arranged in tiers with landscape elements interspersed between the "steps". The scale of the women is slightly smaller than the scale of the foreground figures. Auge is shown frontally, but several of the workmen are seen in three-quarter views as they move obliquely from the background. There is considerable overlapping of figures in both the background and the foreground.

Not all the scenes make use of the tiered arrangement. In the depiction of King Teuthras on the shore, for example, all the figures are seen along a single groundline. The king and two companions dominate the foreground. They are all moving obliquely and are seen in three-quarter (or more) frontal views. These figures are isocephalic. There is a large degree of torsion in the king's movements and in the figure to the right of him. We are made more aware of the imaginary space in which Teuthras moves because we see a head over his left shoulder. This person is standing deeper in the background and is consequently a little smaller in scale than Teuthras and his companions.

Both these scenes illustrate the success with which the creator of the Telephus frieze was able to translate the idioms of painting into stone. In matters of perspective, scale, depth, and oblique movement he proved himself as adept as the artist of the Alexander mosaic, or perhaps

more properly of the painting upon which the mosaic was based. When we begin our consideration of the St. Rémy panels, we should keep in mind these precedents so that we can determine whether the St. Rémy artist was attempting to "translate" a painting or whether he was more concerned with successfully adapting certain pictorial motifs into a more restrictive medium.

Etruscan art

Etruscan art also offers a number of precedents for the pictorial devices at St. Rémy. Certain series of urns and sarcophagi, such as the celtomachies and the saga of the Seven against Thebes, are generally considered to be derived from paintings.³³ Despite the greatly restricted space with which they were working, the Etruscan artisans were able to compress these compositions and still retain a large number of figures, violent action, and even some landscape elements. Sometimes the scale of the figures is varied and elaborate foreshortenings embellish the compositions. On an urn from the Theban cycle in Volterra (Fig. 19),³⁴ the figures are arranged in three distinct planes, which are plausibly shown. In the foreground are a number of fallen figures who lie diagonal to the relief surface. We see only their upper torsos because the lower halves of their bodies are hidden in the background. Large figures occupy the middle ground which is the plane of the main action. In the background are smaller accessory figures. The scale of the figures is proportionate, and

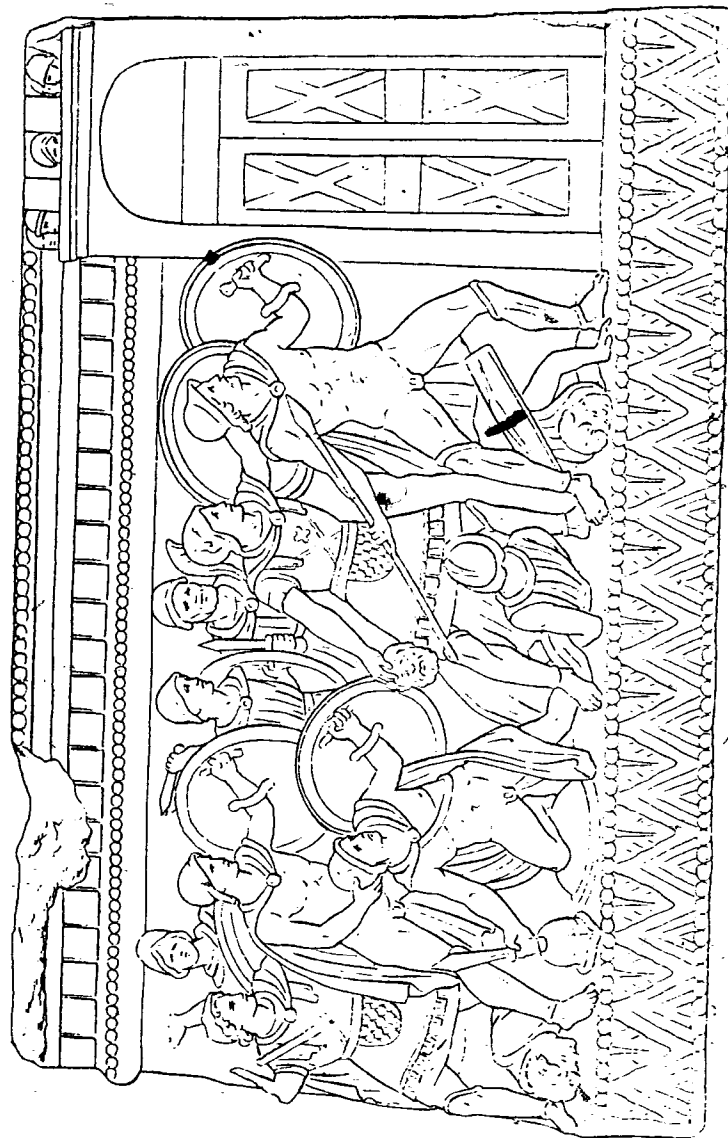


Fig. 19. Seven against Thebes. Etruscan urn.
Volterra, Museo Guarnacci, no. 372.

(Brunn-Körte, II.1.xxi.3.)

they are superimposed realistically.

Frequently, however, in order to find room for all the figures, the artist resorted to a tiered arrangement that totally disregarded spatial realities. A gigantomachy urn from Perugia (Fig. 20)³⁵ shows eighteen figures stacked into a square frame. There is an admirable rendition of oblique movement, especially as the nude, heroic deity with the club advances down from the background to attack a nude adversary who is seen from the rear as he stands in the foreground. However, there is no attempt to maintain a realistic and consistent groundline. The deity in the upper left corner, for example, stands on the shoulder of the figure below her.

We see a similar "stacking" of figures on the Bartholdy mirror in Berlin (Fig. 4), which we looked at earlier in relation to the south panel.³⁶ This system is very reminiscent of vase-paintings of the late fifth century. The gigantomachy krater in Naples (Fig. 21),³⁷ which may reflect trends in monumental painting of the era,³⁸ is a good example. Like the Etruscan urn and mirror, the figures on the vase occupy all the space available in the field. They move in diverse directions with no hint of a consistent terrain. Such an arrangement is not totally unlike the "bird's-eye" perspective of the riot scene from Pompeii.³⁹

Tiered arrangements were not restricted to small-scale compositions in Etruscan art. At least two pedi-

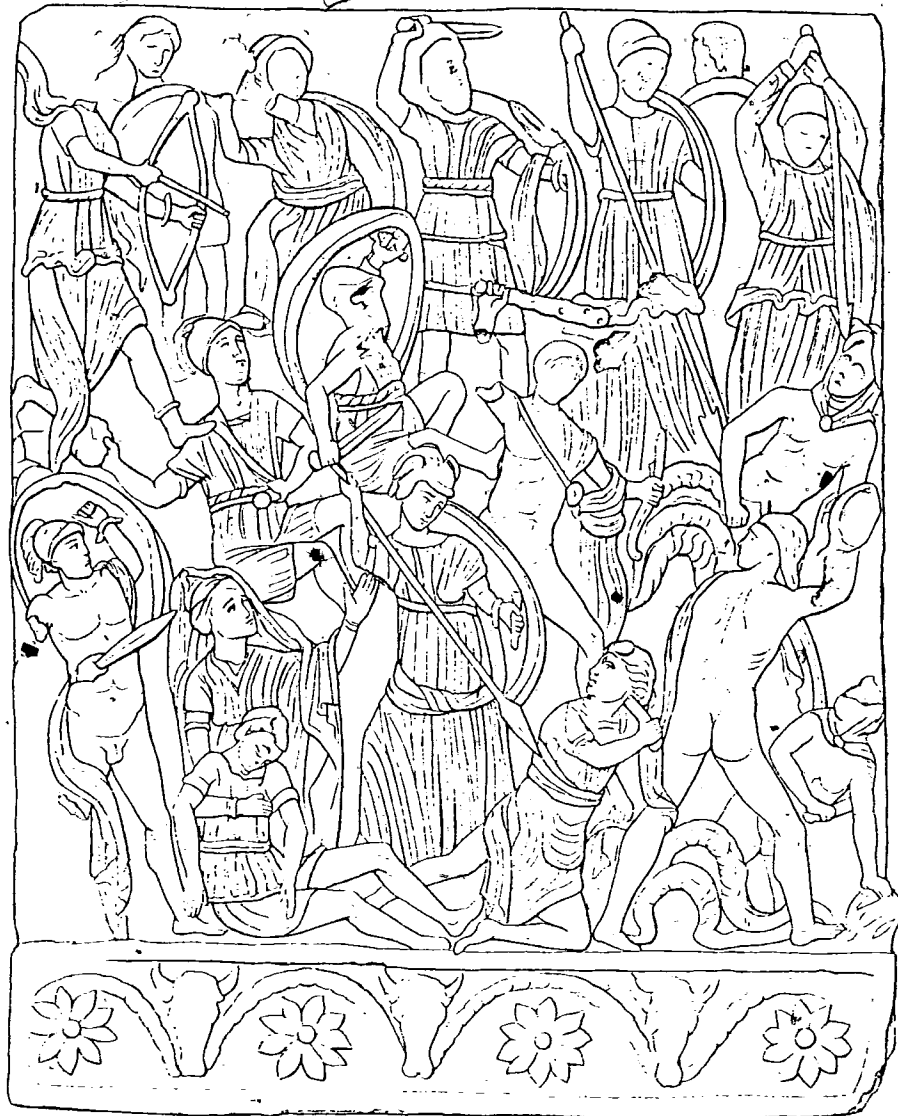


Fig. 20. Gigantomachy. Etruscan urn.
Perugia, Villa Bordonni.

(Brunn-Körte, II.1.i.1.)



Fig. 21. Gigantomachy. Red-figure krater. Naples, Museo Nazionale.

(Pfohl, Malerei und Zeichnung, Taf. 234, Abb. 584.)

mental compositions used the same scheme. Both the discovery of Ariadne at Civita Alba⁴⁰ and the death of Oedipus at Talamone⁴¹ were tiered compositions including large numbers of figures arranged on different levels and in overlapping groups. Each pediment was 'busy' and tumultuous. When the figures were painted, the activity in the pediments would have been even more pronounced.⁴²

One series of urns does, in fact, confirm that Etruscan artists chose the tiered perspective as a means of depicting scenes that they had adapted from monumental, pictorial sources. Several urns (e.g., Fig. 22)⁴³ show episodes that are clearly excerpted from the monumental composition upon which the Alexander mosaic was based. In each case, a tiered arrangement is used to accommodate the figures, although the mosaic shows no such perspective. This clear relation to pictorial sources is not insignificant to our purposes because a number of Troilus urns (e.g., Figs. 12 and 13) make use of a similar stacked composition. In these examples, the right-hand scene of the panel, including the central motif E8-E13, the despondent woman E14, and various accessory figures, is shown compressed into a square field much like the abbreviations from the Alexander composition. The similarity between the two cycles of urns is a sure indication that the death of Troilus is an adaptation from a pictorial source.

The Alexander mosaic, the Pergamene bronze, the



Fig. 22. Alexander the Great in battle.
Etruscan urn. Villa del Palazzone.

(Brunn-Körte, III.cxii.4.)

horse of the Aemilius Paullus frieze, the Telephus frieze, and various Etruscan urns and sarcophagi establish a number of precedents that are combined in the traditions of the St. Rémy panels. There are conscious attempts at creating spatiality, a large number of overlapping figures, numerous three-dimensional or foreshortened motifs, an occasional suggestion of landscape, and oblique as well as parallel movements. Although systems of perspective can vary, a realistic alignment of receding rows of figures or a tiered arrangement seem the most popular formulas for suggesting depth. Furthermore, the scale of the figures should be fairly logical and consistent.

The pictorial qualities of the panels

By considering the panel reliefs in relation to their precedents and to several extant paintings, we will reach a more complete understanding of their pictorial qualities. We will look first at the perspective of the three battle scenes, then at the treatment of depth, space, and movement, and finally at the grooved outline and the use of color.

The three battle scenes are grand in that they accommodate a large number of figures, who are overlapping while engaged in diverse, violent actions. Both the north and west panels are single tableaux, but the east panel combines a battle scene with a tranquil scene in what may well be a narrative sequence. The west panel is the most

pictorial of the three battle scenes, and so we shall consider it last.

In the north panel the artist has used a linear, isocephalic arrangement. All the figures stand on the same groundline, but they move in and out of the background rather than merely parallel to it. There are no figures visible in the background. This type of linear arrangement which suggests depth primarily by oblique movements and foreshortenings is identical to the perspective of the two foreshortened horses of the Aemilius Paullus frieze and of the Teuthras scene in the Telephus frieze. It is more successful here than in the Aemilius Paullus frieze because of the greater relief depth and because it is used for all the figures rather than for just two isolated motifs.

Further suggestions of depth are the back views (N3-4), the shields seen from the inside (N1, N5), the foreshortened horses, (N1-6), and the overlapping legs, spears, and figures. Certain of the horses' forelegs (N2, N4, N5) were actually worked in the round thus creating a greater three-dimensionality to the panel. The artist extended his relief laterally by overlapping the enframing pilasters with the tail of horse N1, by the sword of N1, and probably by the missing forelegs of horse N5. We would also expect to find a contorted figure such as N6 or a twisting figure such as N2 in a pictorial composition. It is quite a feat of sculptural draughtsmanship

that they have been successfully fitted into a relief panel. All the figures fit so well into the scene that it is tempting to think that this panel reflects a number of motifs from a single pictorial prototype, but a certain degree of prototypal interdependence must be assumed.⁴⁴

The east panel, however, is more definitely a compendium of motifs from several sources and consequently is more complicated in perspective and scale than the north panel. We have the usual indications of depth: foreshortening (horse E13, E15, E1's jug), back view (E16), unusual torsion (E6, E13, E15), shields seen obliquely from the inside (E6, E8), and oblique movement (E3, E7, horse E13). The forelegs of the horse were probably worked in the round, and the relief is extended laterally by the reeds that overlap the pilaster. However, the greatest impression of depth comes from the tiered arrangement of the figures. The quiet scene is an example of simple, linear arrangement, but the figures are seen frontally. On the other hand, the violent scene is a stacked arrangement that would be difficult to reconcile to a realistic groundline system, and so it is similar to the Etruscan pediments, urns, and mirror mentioned earlier (see Figs. 4, 12-3, 20, 22).

The scale of the figures follows no consistent pattern. Seated prisoner E15 is smaller than the Greek E6, who has fallen to his haunches, although they both

are seated in similar positions in the foreground. Warrior E17 is smaller than Achilles E8; however, warrior E18, who is deeper in the background, is considerably larger than E17 rather than smaller as he should be. Warriors E10 and E11 are reduced in scale as befits background figures, but E11 is unduly small in relation to warriors E10 and E12 who flank him. The east panel certainly makes use of pictorial devices, but it also uses sculptural traditions and integrates them reasonably well into the entire composition. The group E2, E4, and E5 reflects contemporary funeral sculpture, but the actual battle scene reflects grand pictorial sources, perhaps an "amazonomachized" Troilus scene and a battle (of Greeks and Trojans? Greeks and Gauls?). It is clearly a mythological scene rather than a monumental battle scene, and this difference may account in part for the hodgepodge quality of the composition.

The west panel, however, does belong to the monumental grand tradition, and its subject could be either mythological or topical. There is no common groundline for the figures. Rather than depicting successive rows of figures receding one behind the other into the background, as in the Alexander mosaic, the artist has here arranged the figures in four successive tiers. Despite this arrangement, the figures constitute a coherent mass because of the strong diagonal lines of movement and the overlapping of the various figures. All the figures are drawn on the same scale, but there is no illogical dis-

parity apparent to the eye. The greater pictorialism of this panel is accomplished primarily by the tiered perspective coupled with the diagonal lines of movement. Otherwise, the depth techniques are familiar and have been seen in the other panels and in the Alexander mosaic as well as other sources: frontal, back, or three-quarter views (W13-15), foreshortening (W15), unusual torsion (W4, W5, W15), and movement out of the background (W1, W5-9). A look at several comparable paintings will give a fuller picture of the importance of the tiered perspective.

The painted comparanda

Kleiner errs when he says that the tier arrangement "was almost unknown in earlier reliefs."⁴⁵ We have seen that this system was popular in Etruscan reliefs (see Figs. 15, 16, 23, 25), and this factor should be kept in mind with regard to the possibility of an Etruscan or an "Etruscanized" intermediary source behind the St. Rémy compositions. However, the most outstanding comparisons for the combination of tiered perspective and diagonal movement come from Attic and South Italian vase-painting. Two examples are particularly convincing.

A fourth-century Attic hydria (Fig. 23)⁴⁶ shows a group of two attacking amazons and three Greek defenders, massed closely together on at least three different planes. Pfuhl was convinced, and rightly so, that this fragment was an adaptation of a monumental, pictorial composition.⁴⁷ The nude heroic Greek is seen in a three-quarter rear view

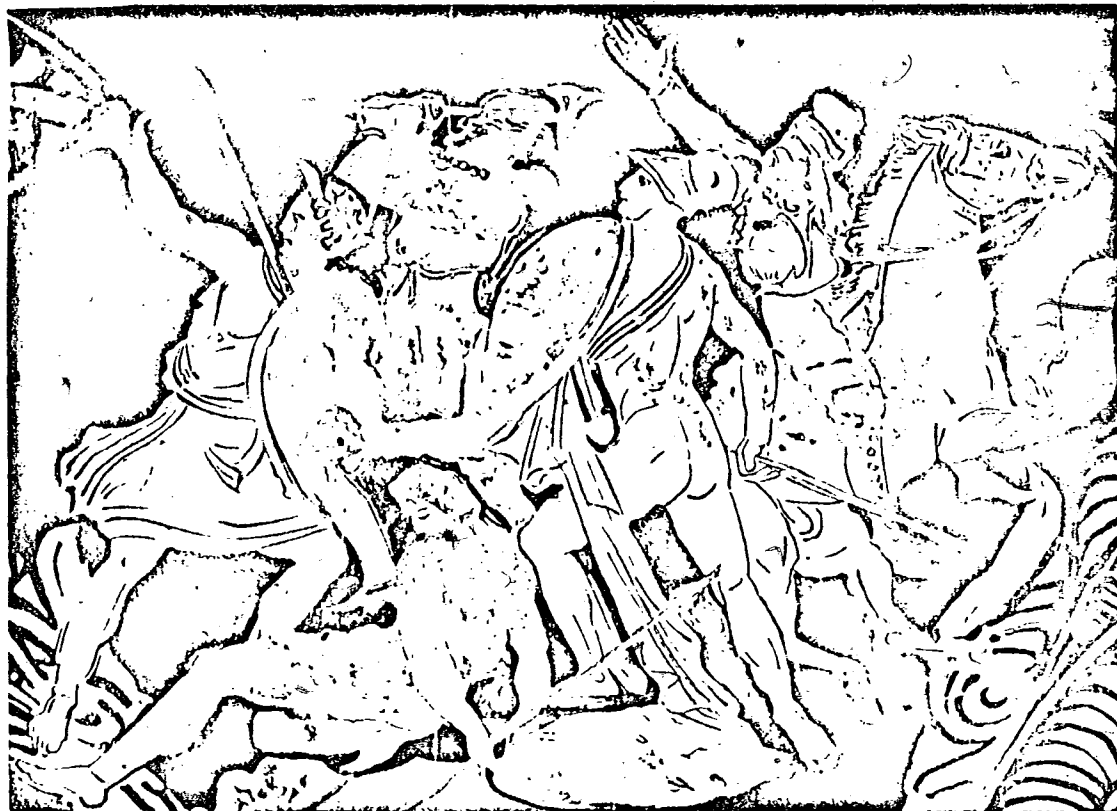


Fig. 23. Amazonomachy. Fragment of
Attic red-figure hydria.

(Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung, Taf. 246, Abb. 603.)

and seems to advance upward against an amazon who is moving down in her attack against him. To the right of this group is a rearing horse whose rider is seen in a three-quarter frontal view. On the other side of the central group is a fallen Greek and a comrade who is lunging to the right with one leg shown frontally and the other in profile. The oblique movement of the horse is restrained because his head is shown in profile. However, the strong diagonal movement of the central group is very much like the movement of W7-9, who are moving down against their opponents. The painting and the panel are also comparable in the successful integration of oblique and parallel movements into a coherent mass. This same quality characterizes the Alexander mosaic.

A Campanian amphora by the Ixion Painter (Illus.11, ca. 330-310)⁴⁸ shows on one side an amazonomachy that is much like the west panel. The figures on the vase are massed in tiers just like the figures in the panel, and the Greek lunging to the right on the vase is very similar to W2. Although the diagonal movements on this vase are not as pronounced as on the Attic hydria or in the St. Rémy panels, they are suggested, and they, too, are successfully combined with parallel movements.

Finally, we have the painted Iliac cycle from the House of Loreius Tiburtinus in Pompeii (Regio II, Insula v; Figs. 24 and 25).⁴⁹ These paintings show a much more sophisticated treatment of space and perspective than we



Fig. 24. 'Hector's Fight'. From a painted frieze.
Pompeii, House of Loreius Tiburtinus.

(Bianchi-Bandinelli, Ilias Ambrosiana, Fig. 178.)

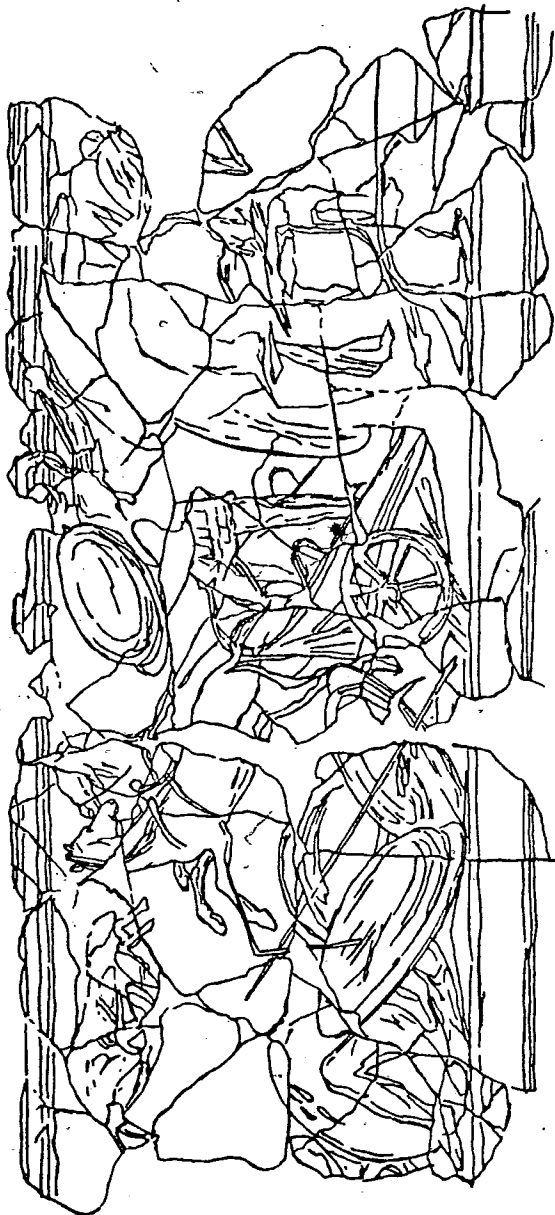


Fig. 25. 'Patroclus on Achilles' Chariot'. From a painted frieze.
Pompeii, House of Loreius Tiburtinus.

(Bianchi-Bandinelli, Ilias Ambrosiana, Fig. 179.)

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have in the St. Rémy panels, but there are some important similarities as well as differences. In the episode of 'Hector's Fight' (Fig. 24) the figures in the foreground are larger than the men in the background. The fallen Hector is dramatically foreshortened. Among the background figures are two motifs similar to St. Rémy figures. To the left, a warrior advances into battle; he is almost identical to W2. To the right, several figures are running into the main scene, and they are very close to W13 and W14. The perspective of this episode is somewhat different from the perspective of the west panel. In both cases the foreground is filled with a number of fallen or crouching figures. The painter, however, has been able to accommodate more figures in parallel and oblique movements because of changes in scale to suggest depth by perspective. Because of the diagonal movements converging from both sides toward the center of the panel, the St. Rémy battle scene is better integrated as an entity than the Hector episode. The Hector episode suffers a little from the same disunity that characterizes the east panel; the background figures seem to have been taken from one source and the foreground figures from a different source. However, the central portion of the Hector episode is very much like the west panel and the Attic hydria (Fig. 23). This portion shows the fallen Hector, a comrade who defends him, and two attackers who are trying to capture the body. The oblique movements of the attackers and defender recall the

movements of W7, W8, and W9 against their opponents.

In the second episode of 'Patroclus on Achilles' Chariot' (Fig. 25) the foreshortened horses that surge into the background recall the horse N3. However, the variance of scale of the figures in this episode is even more pronounced than in the Hector episode. The west panel at St. Rémy is certainly closer to fourth century vases in matters of perspective and movement than it is to these more sophisticated episodes from the painted Iliac frieze. These techniques are still in an experimental stage in the panels and the vases, while they are more matured in the painted frieze.

St. Rémy represents an attempt to interfuse spatial techniques of painting into relief sculpture. However, it is not, like the Telephus frieze, an attempt to translate a painting into stone. The failure to adhere to a systematic pattern of scale is a good indication of the difference in concept. The artist succeeds to a certain extent in creating an imaginary space by using varied planes, differing relief heights, and oblique movement. He is able to extend his relief laterally by occasionally overlapping the pilasters, but he has not been able to create a successful illusion of an infinite space in which the figures actually move. The relief surface remains a finite backdrop to the action even though the artist tries to break its limits by making the shafts of the spears disappear behind the over-

hanging garlands, thus suggesting a greater depth. Despite the various indications of depth, the changes in scale that do occur in the panels do not belong to a pattern that would suggest a realistic perspective.

The grooved outlines

The last techniques to be considered are the grooved outlines around the figures and the use of color on the panels. We must examine the purpose of the groove, the precedents for its use, later examples of it, and whether it may be an adaptation of a painted outline. Then we will speculate about the effects that the use of color would have on the overall compositions and how color was used to indicate landscape and ornamentation. Finally, in connection with the use of color to create the impression of large panel paintings, we must also consider the architectural use of the panels and the limitations which that use imposes.

The use of a chiselled groove around the contours of the figures is a technique common to all the panels at St. Rémy as well as to other monuments, especially in Narbonnaise Gaul.⁵⁰ Various opinions have been offered about the origin and purpose of such outlining. Hübner in 1888 described the grooves as deep furrows filled with reddish chalk that were used to accentuate the outlines of figures located in the background; the technique seemed to him to be a clear indication of a painted prototype, even though

he mentioned no other use of color in the panels.⁵¹ Löwy in 1928 and Redenwaldt in 1930 followed this reasoning when they traced the origin of the technique specifically to Alexandrian and Egyptian painting.⁵² However, in his publication of the monument Rolland has clearly illustrated that one should not attribute the technique to a single school of painting since there are several sculptural examples from Greece and Ionia that date as early as the fifth century B.C.; he also argues that the grooves were not filled with red because there is no evidence to indicate that they were and because such a device would have disrupted the compositions.⁵³

What, then, is the function of the groove? Bie as early as 1891 and Bianchi-Bandinelli as late as 1970 likened the contour lines to the preliminary drawings made for paintings.⁵⁴ It has even been suggested that the grooves were intended as guidelines to help local artisans execute the designs of the more skillful master.⁵⁵ However, after a careful examination of the panels, the grooves seem to play a much more integral role than these approaches would allow. Several practical considerations must be made. First, the carving was done on separate courses of soft limestone blocks, whose joins are clearly visible. Second, the depth of the carving is somewhat deeper toward the bottom of the panel than toward the top, but the overall relief is still quite low (see Fig. 2). Third, the background is conceived as a blank, neutral surface.

In the light of these practicalities, the grooving may be seen to serve several useful purposes. Primarily, it is used to define as fully as possible the volume of an object, animal, or person against the neutrality of the background or against the mass of another figure. It is an attempt to accentuate that volume despite a fairly low relief. Toward the bottom of the panel where the depth of the carving is greater and the shadows therefore deeper, the legs of the horses are delineated by dark grooves that enhance the outlines almost as undercutting would; the grooves seem broader and deeper in these instances. Secondly, it dramatically separates the characters from the background so that they seem to have been set in against the blank relief ground.⁵⁶ The contours of the figures are sharply articulated. Thirdly, the groove is sometimes used as a definitive rather than an outlining device. Swords and spears are often "drawn" by incision. This function is similar to the use of the groove to maintain the integrity of shapes that are depicted across several visible courses of stone. It is important to note, however, that the effects of the drapery are not enhanced in any of the panels by studied patterns of drilling or incision along the channels. Kleiner also points out that in numerous cases the groove was definitely added or at least modified after the figure was carved. In these cases, it was drilled or chiselled at angle to undercut an arm or a leg.⁵⁷

An amazonomachy relief from Teos (ca. 300 B.C.)⁵⁸ offers a good sculptural precedent for the St. Rémy groove. It is an extremely low relief with the figures darkly outlined by grooves to set them off from the background. As at St. Rémy, the groove is also used for detailed effects, such as the horses' tails. This usage is pictorial in its effect, much like the St. Rémy outlining. An Etruscan sarcophagus from Chiusi (Illus. 12)⁵⁹ uses a groove to draw most of the elements of the scene on its long side. We see a rider approaching a tree that is drawn with grooves. The artist has removed the excess stone to leave a deep outline around the various figures. In this way he was able to separate the figures from the background and accentuate their volume as did the St. Rémy master.

A number of provincial examples from Gaul and Germany postdate the St. Rémy panels. These examples date from the first to the fourth centuries A.D.⁶⁰ Obviously, the technique was popular and aesthetically pleasing to have persisted so long. The earlier examples in this series are similar to the St. Rémy groove, but the later examples have subordinated the pictorial function of the outline to a more decorative function. The figures are not "drawn", but instead their surfaces are broken up by patterns of deep grooves intended to produce striking chiaroscuro effects. On the "Piler des Nautes" (Illus. 13)⁶¹ that was dedicated to Tiberius and Jupiter Optimus Maximus the figures are drawn by the groove, just like the figures at St. Rémy;

it is one of the early examples postdating the St. Rémy panels. The grouping is, in fact, reminiscent of E4 and E5, and the woman in the Tiberian relief resembles E5 quite closely.

Perhaps the best known examples from this early series of provincial reliefs are the reliefs from the arch at Orange, which may date to the reign of Tiberius.⁶² The technique is used effectively in the small friezes of the facades to silhouette the figures strongly against a neutral relief ground. This frieze is not very pictorial, however, and the preference for the technique seems to be due to the architectural position of the frieze. The spectator must look up at the frieze, and in order to make the small figures visible in their obscured position the artist was forced to resort to a bold delineation of their forms. However, the grooved outlines of the figures in the battle scenes from the north and south sides of the attic at Orange (Illus. 17 and 18) are very similar in intent to the grooves at St. Rémy. Outlining is used to define volumes and set them off from the relief ground as well as from the tumbling mass of men and horses. Again, the grooves would have made the compositions more intelligible to the spectator below, but they also serve a definite pictorial function like the grooves at St. Rémy.

Lightly grooved outlines occur occasionally in scenes on the columns of Trajan and Marcus Aurelius⁶³ and on the Hadrianic tondos⁶⁴ that are now on the Arch of Con-

stantine in Rome. In these instances the groove is used only to mark such things as legs or shoulders meeting the relief surface. It is not the same usage that we have at St. Rémy. A similar limited usage of the grooved outlines also occurs on a number of sarcophagi from the second and third centuries A.D.,⁶⁵ on the late third century monument in Igel,⁶⁶ and on the arch of Galerius at Saloniki.⁶⁷ In all these cases the primary function of the groove has changed. It is no longer a device to define or draw a character and maintain the integrity of that figure despite architectural interferences, such as masonry courses.

The outlining of the Provinces from the Hadrianeum in Rome is more comparable to the St. Rémy technique because it forms a dark, continuous outline for the figures.⁶⁸ This temple was dedicated by Antoninus Pius in 145 A.D. and was decorated with representations of the provinces in high relief and trophies and weapons in low relief.⁶⁹ The groove was used to set off the figures from the background, perhaps because they were set either in a dimly lit interior or at a considerable height.⁷⁰ It again is as much an expedient due to architectural considerations as a pictorial device. The provinces are isolated figures that are not engaged in any action. Consequently, the function of the groove here recalls its function in the small friezes from Orange. I think what we have is an adaptation of the pictorial groove that was so successful at St. Rémy to another equally useful and successful purpose which was realized as early as

the small friezes at Orange.

Severan monuments use grooves a great deal for outlines as well as decorative patterns. Its usage is often inconsistent, even on the same monument, and the overall effect is not as successful as the pictorial grooving at St. Rémy. Sometimes the grooves are used to separate limbs or draperies from the relief ground or some other backdrop, as in the scene of Liber, an official, and a soldier from the arch at Leptis Magna (Illus. 14).⁷¹ Liber's nude body is set off from the relief ground by grooves as is the official's body from the shield behind him. In this scene the folds of the soldier's cloak are also emphasized by grooves which produce a chiaroscuro effect. Such pronounced chiaroscuro patterns created by grooves produce the impression of interrupted surfaces in the Severan monuments. The grooving at St. Rémy produces, on the other hand, a strong impression of unified contours and surfaces in spite of disruptive masonry courses.

Despite Rolland's objections,⁷² I think the grooved outline as it is used at St. Rémy definitely reflects the broad, dark outlines that are common in ancient paintings. Although the scenes are not so complex, a variety of paintings dating from the fourth century on display these outlines. The combatants from the tomb at Niausta (ca. 300),⁷³ the Thracians and Macedonians from the painted dromos frieze at Kazanlak,⁷⁴ the family from the cupola scene at Kazanlak,⁷⁵ the horsemen and soldiers on various Alexandrian

stelai,⁷⁶ the Greeks and their Trojan prisoners in the François Tomb at Vulci,⁷⁷ and the figures in the fragmentary wall-painting from the Esquiline Hill in Rome⁷⁸ are all defined against their various backgrounds by dark, reddish-brown outlines which are then blended into normal flesh tones. This technique is also used effectively in certain mosaics; in the scene of 'Dionysus on a Panther' from Delos,⁷⁹ Dionysus' body is broadly outlined to set it off from the body of the animal.

Closer in date to the St. Rémy panels is an Augustan painted frieze from a small tomb located just off the columbarium of the family of Statilius Taurus in Rome.⁸⁰ The episodes depict scenes from the Aeneid and from the early legends of Rome. The figures are drawn in dark outlines and then filled in with dark brown to red flesh tones. Similarly, in the painting of 'Achilles Surrendering Briseis' from the House of the Tragic Poet in Pompeii,⁸¹ the heads of the soldiers in the background are outlined against painted shields just like the heads of horses N1 and N5 and other figures at St. Rémy are outlined against sculpted shields. It seems reasonable to believe on the basis of these examples that the grooves were filled with a color appropriate to the limb or garment they outlined. For example, human limbs would be outlined in reddish-brown, horses in black or brown, and shields in brown or gilt tones.

Although I do not think it possible to argue that the St. Rémy panels use the groove as an adaptation from a

particular school of painting, I am convinced that it is a definite pictorial reflection and is equivalent to the broad outlines that "draw" figures in ancient paintings. We need only compare the St. Rémy panels with the later Severan monuments that use the groove in a sculptural and decorative capacity to produce a strong argument in favor of the painted precedents for the contouring at St. Rémy. The technique could have been adopted from sketches of monumental paintings or even from vase-paintings of such compositions. The contour lines on red-figure vases are very similar in function and effect to the St. Rémy grooves. In each case the figures are set off from the background and from each other by these devices. Unlike the Severan monuments, the contour lines and the grooves are not used merely for decorative effects. This trend is a later development that resulted from sculptural and sometimes architectural considerations. Both the St. Rémy grooves and the painted contour lines are essential elements of the composition that are used to "draw" the various figures.

The use of color and the setting

There are several extant sources in sculpture and painting that give us some indication of what color schemes were used in the panels. A considerable amount of color remains on the Alexander sarcophagus⁸² and on a number of Etruscan urns and sarcophagi.⁸³ In addition we have the Alexander mosaic.⁸⁴ The composite evidence from these sources suggests that the background was blue or gray, the

human bodies red or reddish-brown, the horses black or brown, the shields brown with gilt decoration, the helmets yellow or red, and the hair brown or red. Armor was often brown, sometimes with red or gold decoration. The quiet, stately group in the east panel (E2-5) and the Victory E7 were probably dressed in white. If the groundline were painted in the west panel, it would have been in shades of brown. The ornamentation on the shields of various warriors (e.g., W8-9) was probably highlighted with gilt, and some shields that now appear plain may have been decorated with painted ornamentation.

When the reliefs were in their original painted state, they must have seemed very much like large panel paintings, not unlike the numerous paintings from Pompeii and Herculaneum. They are even neatly set within an architectural framework of pilasters. Because of their position on the socle of the monument, the relief panels and their pilasters must serve a definite architectonic function. Most of the mass of the structure is supported by the base of which they are a part, so the panels must seem capable of supporting the weight. Because of the pilasters and the flat relief surface, the panels perform this function admirably. Even when the relief surface was painted, this functionality would not have been weakened.

The spectator was expected to walk around and examine the panels in much the same way that he would have walked along the colonnade decorated by the Telephus frieze.

The panels are above eye-level but are fully lighted with natural light, so they can be easily observed. As the spectator moved around, the repetition of the garlands and pilasters would have given him a certain sense of continuity even though the subjects of the four scenes are quite different. I think he would have experienced much the same feeling examining these panels that he might have when walking around a room with a panel painting inset in each wall.

The north and west panels are single monumental tableaux like the Alexander mosaic and the east panel is a fusion of mythological episodes, but all three battle scenes at St. Rémy belong to the "grand pictorial" artistic tradition. They are characterized by a large number of figures that are engaged in violent and diverse actions on a heroic scale. There are various suggestions of depth, including foreshortened views, overlapping figures, oblique movement, and sometimes a tiered perspective. Specific indications of a pictorial heritage are the motifs of obliquely moving horses seen from the front and the rear and diagonal movements used in conjunction with tiered compositions. These elements are seen in fourth century vases and in Etruscan urns that are definitely derived from pictorial compositions. None of the panels slavishly copies a single painting.

It is difficult to determine a specific terminus

post quem for each panel. All the figures in the west panel are extremely well integrated into the scene, and only one figure (W15) is unusual. Unfortunately, we are unable to find an accurate parallel for this motif. Consequently, on the basis of the similarity of the tiered composition and diagonal movement of the west panel to compositions on late fourth century vases, we can assume at least a late fourth or early third century terminus post quem.

However, it is possible to suggest a more specific date as the terminus post quem for the originals behind the north panel. Motifs N1-5 may well come from a single composition. Because horses seen obliquely from the rear do not appear in vase-painting until the end of the fourth century B.C., we can suggest a terminus post quem of ca. 325-250 B.C. for the source of these motifs. Motifs N6 and N7 probably come from later sources. Horse N6 is definitely a pictorial element that may be dated to the middle or late third century B.C. I suggest this date because the execution of the motif is more bold and successful than any available fourth century prototypes. Prisoner N7 is probably taken from a Pergamene galatomachy tradition, either sculptural or pictorial, of the second century B.C.

The east panel is quite a compendium of motifs, but its battle scene still reflects grand pictorial traditions, even though the entire scene (with its two episodes) is probably adapted from a pictorial mythological cycle that

is also evident on Etruscan urns. The accessory warriors in the battle scene probably come from some large-scale source, and prisoner E15 resembles N7 and so may well come from a Pergamene composition of the second century B.C. The quietly standing group (E2, E4, E5) reflects a sculptural tradition and is common in contemporary provincial funerary sculpture as well as Greek, Etruscan, and Roman art. It is difficult to suggest a date for the Troilus episode, but the tiered composition again hints at a late fourth or early third century terminus post quem. This panel and the south panel, which also reflects a mythological cycle, are very likely narratives. Such a narrative duality of episodes within a single scene is preceded by Etruscan urns.

NOTES

¹Garger, "Die kunstgeschichtliche Stellung," pp. 1-28; Andreae, Motivgeschichtliche Untersuchungen, pp. 20-28, 35-38, 80; Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 116, 132, 144, 184, 202.

²Hedwig Kenner, Der Fries des Tempels von Bassae-Phigalia, Kunstdenkmäler, Heft 2 (Wien: Franz Deuticke, 1946), Taf. 15, 21, slabs 534, 541; Guy Donnay, "L'Amazonomachie du Mausolée d'Halicarnasse," L'Antiquité Classique, 26 (1957), slabs 1006, 1010, 1016.

³Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 419; Heinz Kähler, Der Fries vom Reiterdenkmal des Aemilius Paullus in Delphi, Monumenta Artis Romanae, V (Berlin: Verlag Gebr. Mann, 1965), p. 79, Taf. 23; Jocelyn M. C. Toynbee, Some Notes on Artists in the Roman World, Collection Latomus, VI (Bruxelles: Latomus, Revue d'Etudes Latines, 1951), p. 39; Andreae, Motivgeschichtliche Untersuchungen, pp. 29-30; Anton Hekler, "Relieffragment aus Lecce," JOAI, 18 (1915), pp. 94-97.

⁴Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 119.

⁵Kähler, Aemilius Paullus, pp. 19, 21-23, Taf. 5.

⁶Ibid., Taf. 1.2.

⁷Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 123, Fig. 70, in the Jatta collection in Ruvo, no. 1096.

⁸Ibid., pp. 123-124, including a mounted amazon on a mid-fourth century Sicilian calyx krater, in Syracuse, Museo Nazionale, no. 55838; one of the Dioscuri in a Calydonian hunt on an Apulian volute krater, ca. 340, Berlin, Staatliche Museen, no. F3258; an amazon on an Attic Kertsch pelike, ca. 310, Leningrad, Hermitage, no. B2230. They also appear in Alexandrian tomb-paintings (Blanche R. Brown, Ptolemaic Paintings and Mosaics and the Alexandrian Style, Monographs on Archaeology and Fine Arts, VI [Cambridge: The Archaeological Institute of America, 1957], no. 34, Pl. 24.1, Mustafa Pasha Tomb I).

⁹Warsaw, National Museum, no. 138531; M. L. Bernhard, CVA Pologne 6, Varsovie 3 (Warsaw 1964), Taf. 23 and 26.2; Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 124; Munich, Museum antiker Kleinkunst, shown in Ernst Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung der Griechen, Vol. III (München: F. Bruckmann A.-G., 1923), Fig. 795.

¹⁰Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Vol. I, Taf. lxxiii; Rebuffat-Emmanuel, Le miroir étrusque, Vol. I, pp. 217-219 and Vol. II, Pl. 72.

¹¹Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Vol. I, Taf. x, now in the Vatican Museum, fourth-third century B.C.

¹²Havelock, Hellenistic Art, Pl. XI, in the Museo Nazionale, Naples, no. 10020.

¹³Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, p. 390.

¹⁴Adolf Furtwängler, Die antiken Gemmen. Geschichte der Steinschneidekunst im klassischen Altertum (Amsterdam: Verlag Adolf M. Hakkert, 1964 and 1965), Vol. I, Taf. 27, nos. 31 and 33 and Vol. III, p. 284.

¹⁵New York, Metropolitan Museum of Art, no. 07.286.84, by the Painter of the Shaggy Silens (Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung, Vol. III, Fig. 506).

¹⁶West frieze, block k, figure 20 (see AJA, 76 [1972], Pl. 61, Fig. 4).

¹⁷Section B3 from outer south wall and section A6 from west wall (Fritz Eichler, Die Reliefs des Heroons von Gjölbashi-Trysa, Kunstdenkmäler, Heft VIII [Wien: Franz Deuticke, 1950], Taf. 2/3 and 15).

¹⁸Garger, "Die kunstgeschichtliche Stellung," p. 9.

¹⁹Havelock, Hellenistic Art, Pl. XI; see below, pp. 135ff.

²⁰Gerhard, Etruskische Spiegel, Vol. V, Taf. cx, in the British Museum, no. 73.

²¹Hübner, "Die Bildwerke," p. 12.

²²See above, pp. 18f.

²³(Demetrios), Peri hermeneias 76; see above, p. 99, note 37.

²⁴Havelock, Hellenistic Art, Pl. XI.

²⁵Wilhelm Kraiker, Die Malerei der Griechen (Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer, 1958), p. 164, no. 64; Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, p. 118; Heinrich Fuhrmann, Philoxenos von Eretria. Archäologische Untersuchungen über zwei Alexander-mosaïke (Göttingen: In Kommission bei der Dieterichschen Universitäts-buchdruckerei W. F. Kaestner, 1931).

²⁶Region I, Insula iii, House 23.

²⁷Vienna, Kunsthistorisches Hofmuseum; Gisela M. A. Richter, The Sculpture and Sculptors of the Greeks (4th ed., newly revised; New Haven: Yale University Press, 1970), pp. 131, 172.

²⁸Ibid., Figs. 421, 422 (details); BrBr 486.

²⁹Alexander Conze, et al., Altertümer von Pergamon, Band I, Text 1, Stadt und Landschaft, Königliche Museen zu Berlin (Berlin: Verlag von Georg Reimer, MCMXII), pp. 250-251, Abb. 1; he dates the relief very generally to the "Königszeit".

³⁰See above, pp. 127f.

³¹BrBr 485; Margarete Bieber, The Sculpture of the Hellenistic Age (revised edition; New York: Columbia University Press, 1961), Figs. 477-478; Christa Bauchhenss-Thüriedl, Der Mythos von Telephos in der antiken Bildkunst, Beiträge zur Archäologie, 3 (Würzburg: Konrad Triltsch Verlag, 1971), Faltpiane 1 and 2.

³²Blanckenhagen, "Narration," p. 79.

³³Guido Achille Mansuelli, Ricerche sulla pittura ellenistica. Riflessi della pittura ellenistica nelle arti minori, Università degli Studi di Bologna Facoltà di Lettere e Filosofia, Studi e Ricerche IV (Bologna: Dott. Cesare Zuffi, Editore, [1950]), pp. 41ff., 46ff.; Ranuccio Bianchi-Bandinelli and Antonio Giuliano, Les Etrusques et l'Italie avant Rome, trans. by Jean-Charles and Evelyne Picard, Le Monde Romain I (Paris: Editions Gallimard, 1973), pp. 306-307. Examples of such urns include: Brunn-Körte, II.1.xlviii.16 (Berlin 1275), II.2.lxviii.3 (Museo Guarnacci 272), II.2.lxviii.4 (Museo Guarnacci 292), II.2.lxix.5 (Museo Guarnacci 296), II.1.xxi.3 (Museo Guarnacci 372), II.1.xxii.5 (Museo Guarnacci 371); Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 104a,b (Florence 5768).

³⁴Museo Guarnacci 372 (Brunn-Körte, II.1.xxi.3).

³⁵Villa Bordonì (Brunn-Körte, II.1.i.1).

³⁶See above, pp. 25ff.

³⁷Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung, Bd. III, Taf. 234, Abb. 584 and Bd. II, pp. 588ff., late fifth century, but badly damaged.

³⁸See also Harrison, "South Frieze and Marathon Painting," pp. 353-378, *passim*; John P. Barron, "New Light on Old Walls: Murals of the Theseion," JHS, 92 (1972), pp. 25ff.; L. H. Jeffery, "The 'Battle of Oinoe' in the Stoa Poikile: A Problem in Greek Art and History," BSA, 60 (1965), pp. 41-57, *passim*; R. E. Wycherley, Literary and Epigraphical Testimonia, The Athenian Agora, III (Princeton: American School of Classical Studies at Athens, 1957), pp. 31-45.

³⁹See above, pp. 137f.

⁴⁰Bianchi-Bandinelli, Les Etrusques, Fig. 343.

⁴¹Otto-Wilhelm von Vacano, "Die Figurenanordnung in Giebelrelief von Telamon," RömMitt, 76 (1969), pp. 141ff., Taf. 54.

⁴²See Gabriella Ronzitti Orsolini, Il Mito dei Sette a Tebe nelle urne Volterrane, Studi dell'Ateneo Pisano 2 (Firenze: La Nuova Italia Editrice, 1971), p. 43.

⁴³Brunn-Körte, III.cxi and cxii.1-5.

⁴⁴Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 127; see above, pp. 43f.

⁴⁵Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 147.

⁴⁶Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung, Taf. 246, Abb. 603, pp. 711ff., no museum reference. He offers several other vases with it including: a pelike in the Hermitage, no. 2012 (A. Michaelis, "Theseus und Medeia," AZ, XXXV [1877], pp. 75-77) and a stark räumlich South Italian vase in the collection of Borelli Bey, no. 219.

⁴⁷Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung, p. 712, no. 776.

⁴⁸Arthur Dale Trendall, The Red-Figured Vases of Lucania, Campania and Sicily, Oxford Monographs on Classical Archaeology (Oxford at the Clarendon Press, 1967), p. 339, no. 798, Pl. 132.1-3, Chicago, no. 89.24.

⁴⁹Ranuccio Bianchi-Bandinelli, Hellenistic-Byzantine Miniatures of the Iliad (Ilias Ambrosiana) (Olten, Switzerland: Urs Graf-Verlag, 1955), pp. 30-31, Figs. 175, 177-179, from Regio II, Insula v.

⁵⁰For example, the arches at Orange and Carpentras; see also Espérandieu, I, nos. 127, 157, 215, 277, 347, 364, 536, 537, 540, 560, 562, 565, 566, 569, 583, 614, 616, 623, 630, 639, 652-656. It is also found in funerary art, especially in Provence and Narbonne, with a terminus ante quem of the end of the first century, A.D. (Amy, L'Arc d'Orange, p. 116). G. Kenneth Sams has also mentioned to me that a groove is used in Lycia, especially in fourth century amazonomachies of the Graeco-Persian school.

⁵¹Hübner, "Die Bildwerke," p. 11 and the note on that page.

⁵²Gerhart Rodenwaldt, "Zur Polychromie des Petosirisgrabes," AA, 1930, col. 264; Emanuel Löwy, "Die Anfänge des Triumphbogens," JKS, N.F. 2 (1928), p. 26.

⁵³Rolland, Le Mausolée, pp. 47-49; Amy, L'Arc d'Orange, pp. 115-116; Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, p. 83 argues that red filled the grooves.

⁵⁴Oscar Bie, Kampfgruppe und Kämpfertypen in der Antike (Berlin: Mayer & Müller, 1891), p. 150; Bianchi-Bandinelli, Rome, La Fin, p. 145.

⁵⁵Olwen Brogan, Roman Gaul (London: G. Bell and Sons, Ltd., 1953), p. 167.

⁵⁶See also Arnold Schober, "Zur Entstehung und Bedeutung der provinzialrömischen Kunst," JOAI, 26 (1930), p. 23; Carl Weickert, "Gladiatoren-Relief der Münchener Glyptothek," Münchener Jahrbuch der bildenden Kunst, N.F. II (1925), p. 28; Gerhard Koepfel, "The Grand Pictorial Tradition of Roman Historical Representations during the Early Empire," a manuscript for Aufstieg und Niedergang der römischen Welt, p. 25; Rolland, Le Mausolée, p. 47; Mrs. Arthur Strong (Eugénie Sellers), Roman Sculpture from Augustus to Constantine (London: Duckworth and Co., 1907), p. 95.

⁵⁷Kleiner, The Glanum Cenotaph, pp. 76-77; he says that the technique was also used in the acanthus frieze of the tholos and on the archivolts of the quadrifrons.

⁵⁸Pierre Devambez, Bas-relief de Téos, Bibliothèque archéologique et historique de l'Institut Français d'Archéologie d'Istanbul, XIV (Paris: Librairie Adrien Maisonneuve, 1962), Pls. I, III-V, p. 21 for date.

⁵⁹Herbig, Steinsarkophage, Fig. 15, no. 49.

⁶⁰ Several cornice blocks in Bordeaux (Espérandieu, II, pp. 207-210, no. 1232, Figs. 1-9); a funerary sculpture in the Musée lapidaire in Béziers (Espérandieu, I, p. 347, no. 537); a fragmentary relief of Hercules in the Musée de Lamourguier in Narbonne (Espérandieu, I, p. 364, no. 562); a relief of weapons in Narbonne (Espérandieu, I, p. 432, no. 711); parts of a column in Périgueux decorated with tritons and trophies (Espérandieu, II, p. 248, no. 1294); parts of an arch from Arles (Espérandieu, I, pp. 127-128, nos. 155-159, especially nos. 157, 158).

⁶¹ Jean-Jacques Hatt, "Les Monuments gallo-romains de Paris et les origines de la sculpture votive en Gaule romaine," RA, 39 (1952), p. 71, Fig. 1, p. 77 for date, now in the Musée de Cluny, Paris.

⁶² Amy, L'Arc d'Orange, II, Pl. 68, etc.

⁶³ For example, Karl Lehmann-Hartleben, Die Trajanssäule. Ein römisches Kunstwerk zu Beginn der Spätantike (Berlin: Verlag von Walter de Gruyter & Co., 1926), Taf. 7 (scene VII -- trees), 8 (scene IX -- arms, trees, horses), 11 (scene XV -- trees, legs, contours of figures), 12 (scene XVIII -- légs, garments, contours), 13 (scenes XXI, XXII -- legs), 15 (scene XXV -- heads), 31 (scene LXVII -- barbarians), etc.

⁶⁴ Becatti, Art of Ancient Greece and Rome, Fig. 316.

⁶⁵ Fittschen, "Ein Feldhernnsarkophag," p. 329, Taf. 106.1; Antonio Garcia y Bellido, "Sarcófagos romanos de tipo oriental hallados en la península Iberica," ArchEspArq, 21 (1948), pp. 101-102 and Esculturas romanas de España y Portugal, Vol. II (Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, 1949), Pl. 200, no. 262; Fritz Eichler, "Fragmente attischer Sarkophage in Wien," JOAI, 36 (1946), pp. 85-90, Abb. 19 and 20; Alda Levi, Sculture greche e romane del Palazzo Ducale di Mantova (Roma: Biblioteca d'arte Editrice, 1931), p. 87; Antonio Minto, "Regione XI (Transpadana). IV. S. Casciano dei Bagni. Scoperta di una tomba etrusca e Celle sul Rigo," NSc, Ser. 6, 12 (1936), Tav. XCIV.

⁶⁶ Hans Dragendorff and E. Krüger, Das Grabmal von Igel, DAI, Römisch-Germanische Kommission, Frankfurt a/Main (Trier: Kommissionsverlag von Jacob Lintz, 1924), p. 100.

⁶⁷ Bianchi-Bandinelli; Ilias Ambrosiana, Fig. 25:

⁶⁸ Ernest Nash, Pictorial Dictionary of Ancient Rome, Vol. I (2nd ed. revised; New York and Washington: Frederick A. Praeger, 1968), pp. 457, 459, Fig. 562

(trophies and Gallia, in courtyard of Palazzo dei Conservatori); Jocelyn M. C. Toynbee, The Hadrianic School. A Chapter in the History of Greek Art (Cambridge at the University Press, 1934), Pl. XXXIV, especially Figs. 2, 5, and 6 in the Palazzo dei Conservatori, the Palazzo Odescalchi, and the Museo Nazionale in Naples; see also Hans Lucas, "Die Reliefs der Neptunsbasilica in Rom," JdI, 15 (1900), pp. 1-42.

⁶⁹Nash, Pictorial Dictionary, p. 459.

⁷⁰Toynbee, Hadrianic School, pp. 154-155.

⁷¹Renatto Bartoccini, "L'arco quadrifronte dei Severi a Lepcis (Leptis Magna)," Rivista Africa Italiana, IV (1931-x, 1-2), Fig. 51.

⁷²See above, p. 166.

⁷³J. Six, "Nikomachos et la peinture d'un hypogée Macédonien de Niausta," BCH, 49 (1925), pp. 263-274, Pl. VI; Pfuhl, Malerei und Zeichnung, no. 992, abb. 750; K. F. Kinch, "Le tombeau de Niausta, tombeau macédonien," Det Kongelige Danske Videnskabernes Selskabs Skrifter, Historisk og Filosofisk Afdeling, 7. Række, Bind IV.3 (1920), pp. 283-288.

⁷⁴Carlo Verdiani, "Archeological Notes --, Original Hellenistic Paintings in a Thracian Tomb (Preliminary Report)," trans. and excerpted by Rhys Carpenter, AJA, 49 (1945), Figs. 3 and 4; Assen Vassiliev, Das antike Grabmal bei Kasanlak (Sofia: Verlag Bulgarski Hudoshnik, 1959), pp. 5-18, where on p. 15 he calls the 'Umrisverfahren' an Egyptian technique that was long familiar to Hellenistic painting; both shadows and outlines were used to define the forms of the bodies.

⁷⁵Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Figs. 109-113.

⁷⁶Ibid., Fig. 96; Brown, Ptolemaic Paintings, pp. 11-82.

⁷⁷Bianchi-Bandinelli, Les Etrusques, p. 257, Fig. 293; Frederik Poulsen, Etruscan Tomb Paintings. Their Subjects and Significance (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1922), p. 52; Massimo Pallottino, The Great Centers of Etruscan Painting, trans. by M. E. Stanley (Geneva: Albert Skira, 1952), pp. 115-120; Stenico, Roman and Etruscan Painting, Fig. 59.

⁷⁸Braccio nuovo, Palazzo dei Conservatori, Sala I/33, no. 1025 (Lübke-Pernice, Die Kunst der Römer, p. 357, Fig. 348).

⁷⁹Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Fig. 97.

⁸⁰Nash, Pictorial Dictionary, Vol. II, pp. 361-364, Figs. 1139-1147, in the Museo Nazionale Romano or destroyed in removal.

⁸¹Charbonneaux, Hellenistic Art, Fig. 123.

⁸²Hanfmann, Classical Sculpture, Pl. VI.

⁸³Pairault, Recherches, Pl. 48a (=Brunn-Körte, I.xlviii.1), Museo Guarnacci 398; Pl. 48b (=Brunn-Körte, III.xlviii.2a), Museo Guarnacci 437; Pl. 51 (=Brunn-Körte, I.xlix.4), Museo Guarnacci 375; Pl. 62 (=Brunn-Körte, I.lvi.17), Museo Guarnacci 293.

⁸⁴Havelock, Hellenistic Art, Pl. XI.

CHAPTER V

EARLY IMPERIAL BATTLE RELIEFS

As we have seen the three battle scenes at St. Rémy belong to a distinctly pictorial tradition that, judging from the Alexander mosaic, was popular in the Hellenistic world by the late fourth century B.C. Such grand representations also flourished in the court of Pergamon, but we unfortunately have only literary and fragmentary (and much later) sculptural evidence of their appearance. We specifically label this artistic tradition "grand" because of its characteristics. In each panel the St. Rémy artist has suggested an illusion of depth by oblique movement and foreshortening; in the east and west panels he also resorted to a tiered arrangement as a formula for depth. He has rather consistently maintained a realistic scale for the figures and in the west panel, especially, has successfully combined a linear, isocephalic arrangement with a tiered perspective. Through these various means, the three battle scenes can accommodate a large number of figures engaged in violent, heroic actions.

The east panel illustrates how the grand pictorial traditions can be used in a mythological narrative. The

figures in the death scene are not meshed into a strongly cohesive unit by an action that is directed toward a single goal. Instead, there is a great diversity of action that is produced by individual reaction to a tragic situation. This personal, or "intimate", element is very pronounced and in some ways recalls the character of the narrative Telephus frieze.¹ The spectator is meant to react to the tragedy as well. Consequently, Achilles E8 and Troilus E13 are very prominent as a motif within the overall scene.

This kind of emphasis to produce emotional reactions from the individuals in the scene as well as from the spectator is comparable to the prominence of Alexander and Darius in the Alexander mosaic. One is very much aware of the overall action in each case, but it is the individual human element that is the focus of attention. Consequently, the importance of the human figures is emphasized by various compositional devices that are common to both the mosaic and the panels and, so, to the grand tradition.

In all the battle scenes, then, the St. Rémy artist has achieved a heroic pictorial quality by using the same artistic techniques. It is merely coincidental that one of the scenes is mythological and the other two are generic. Furthermore, the architectural usage of the panels also helps to establish their close relation to paintings. The reliefs are framed by pilasters which perform the architectonic function of supporting the upper stories of the structure. Also, the structural function

of the socle itself is not disguised because its walls with the masonry courses clearly visible constitute the relief surface for the panels. When the panels were in their original painted state, they must have seemed like paintings set in a wall whose pilasters were draped with garlands.

Since we have looked at the pictorial precedents for the St. Rémy panels, we should also look at several early Imperial battle reliefs to see if the same pictorial traditions continue. We will examine the Mantua and Palestrina reliefs, the attic reliefs on the arch at Orange, the drawings of a fragment from the now destroyed arch of Claudius, a scene from the column of Trajan, and the great Trajanic frieze. Our main concern is to use these reliefs to fix the St. Rémy traditions in their immediate surroundings rather than to make an extensive analysis of each Imperial example; we know what went before St. Rémy, now we must look at what comes immediately after it.

Augustan Reliefs

Both the Mantua relief (Illus. 15)² and the Palestrina fragment (Illus. 16)³ are epistyle friezes that were carved together with an architrave. The Mantua relief has been dated ca. 6 A.D. because of its similarities to the remains of the Temple of Castor in Rome,⁴ and the Palestrina fragment may also be assigned to the Augustan age.

Both friezes show a rout of barbarians by civilized forces, but only the Mantua relief includes a landscape "prop" (i.e., the rock under the foot of the nude rescuer). They both show a large number of figures engaged in complex actions. However, the immediate effect of each frieze is quite different.

The Mantua relief seems to be a series of heroic motifs combined to produce a scene; it has a sculptural rather than a pictorial appearance. In fact, it is only upon closer examination that its limited pictorial qualities become apparent. The Palestrina fragment, on the other hand, has a pictorial effect because its mass of figures are embroiled in a single action that is clearly the motivation for all of them. An examination of these two fragmentary reliefs will show the particular devices that produce the different effects and will help relate these friezes to the grand traditions of the St. Rémy panels.

The scene in the Mantua fragment (Illus. 15) is composed of several superimposed rows of figures that are arranged in isocephalic lines. As in the Alexander mosaic, the spectator is looking into a mass of figures so that he sees less of the bodies as the figures are deeper within the crowd. This system of receding rows of isocephalic figures is not used in the St. Rémy panels; no figures are shown in the background of the north panel, and the west and east panels use a tiered formula.

In the foreground of the fragment are two horsemen, two falling or fallen barbarians, and the central nude warrior who is carrying the corpse of a fallen comrade. A fragmentary horse rears at the far right side. All these figures are or would have been completely visible. The middle ground is occupied by a horse whose hindquarters are visible behind the left foreground rider (and whose head is seen just beyond his shield) and by two infantrymen who flank the central nude. These figures are partially obscured by the foreground figures. Finally, in the background are the heads of a warrior and a horse. The warrior is to the left of the first infantryman from the left, and the horse is between the second infantryman and the right rider. These two figures are so deep in the background that their bodies are completely hidden.

Oblique movement also distinguishes the St. Rémy panels, but almost all the figures in the Mantua fragment move in a plane parallel to the relief ground. Only the damaged rearing horse and the striding warrior of the rescue group are exceptions. All the various warriors are seen in frontal or three-quarter frontal views rather than in simple profile, but only the rearing horse seems to move from the background into the foreground. Unfortunately, he is so badly damaged that this movement may well be only an optical illusion. However, even though the rescuer does not move out of the background, his upper torso is set obliquely against the relief surface, thus

suggesting the possibility of such movement. In addition, the two horsemen have extended their shields, which are seen obliquely, behind their horses' heads, thereby creating an impression of depth that recalls motifs N1 and N5 at St. Rémy. Only the east panel shows a similar restriction of oblique movement. Most of the figures there also move parallel to the relief ground, but the horse E13 does rear dramatically from the background into the foreground.

Why is the Mantua fragment not as convincing pictorially as the St. Rémy panels? The highly restricted use of oblique movement is certainly one reason. Also, foreshortening is not used to any great extent in the fragment, but it is used most effectively in both the St. Rémy panels and in the Palestrina relief. The fallen barbarian under the right horse is comparable to E9, who has fallen beneath Achilles E8 and horse E13. However, the St. Rémy figure has been foreshortened to lie realistically supine while the Mantua motif is, instead, a figure in the round that has been inserted, but not integrated, into the scene. Such an avoidance of foreshortening places a severe limitation on the creation of a convincing pictorial rendition.

Finally, the background figures in the Mantua relief are worked in very low relief, and they are not set off from the background by any visible device such as a contour groove. If the frieze were set above eye-level inside a building, it was probably only dimly lit.⁵ There-

fore, one must wonder whether these background figures, unless they were strikingly painted, were even visible to the casual spectator below. Certainly their role in creating depth to the composition would be less essential than the function of the background figures in the St. Rémy panels.

If the proposed architectural setting of the frieze is correct, the shadows cast by the various figures upon one another would have been even deeper than they are now. As a result, I think the figures might seem isolated from each other, but also their exact spatial relationships would be less clearly defined. Herein may lie the explanation for the lack of the conscious rendering of spatiality that we have in the St. Rémy panels. The artist preferred to let the architectural setting of the frieze define its depth.

The Palestrina fragment (Illus. 16) was probably also set at some height, but its figures are clearly defined by dark, grooved outlines. These grooves are used to emphasize the figures and to make them more visible despite their architectural setting, but they are not used in the consistent "drawing" system that we have at St. Rémy. There are so many figures massed into the scene that the relief ground is scarcely visible behind them. The lower foreground of the scene is filled with five falling or fallen barbarians and one fallen horse and his rider, who is still in a defensive pose. In the

upper foreground are a horseman moving to the left, an unusually large central infantryman seen frontally, and a horse as well as a horse and rider moving to the right. Rather than being arranged in tiers, the figures are set on a single groundline as in the north panel at St. Rémy. The galloping horses stand in an isocephalic line, and their hindquarters are hidden in the background, thus giving an impression of oblique movement although their heads and forequarters are shown in profile. The legs of the horses and their riders overlap the fallen figures along the groundline of the frieze and add to the overall impression of depth. Furthermore, the fallen horse in the central foreground is successfully foreshortened in a pictorial pose; the supine barbarian to the left of the horse recalls E9 and fits convincingly into the scene unlike the similar figure in the Mantua fragment." The Palestrina artist has masterfully depicted this body receding obliquely into the background so that we see only his head and shoulders.

We have a much more ambitious scene in this fragment than we have in the Mantua relief. Although oblique movement is not as pronounced as at St. Rémy, the artist has suggested it by concealing the hindquarters of the horses and the lower body of the corpse in the background behind other figures. He has avoided tiers of figures, who might not be visible to the spectator below, as well as receding rows of figures. Instead he created an impres-

sion of depth by numerous overlappings of figures with legs and arms of other figures. This system creates a certain rhythm to the scene. In the left part of the scene, the corpse and the two comrades who are trying to rescue it are overlapped by the leg of the horseman galloping obliquely by them and by the large central infantryman. Consequently, they seem deeper in the background than the two barbarians under the galloping horse at the right. These figures overlap each other but are not overlapped by the horseman above them.

I think when the frieze was in its original position the combination of overlappings and subtly oblique movements would have been quite effective. Because the spectator was walking below and along a continuous frieze, the artist was able to suggest rather than depict spatiality. At St. Rémy the artist had to be very specific in his pictorial rendition; he could not use "shorthand" because the spectator was looking almost directly at his panels, which were also brightly lit by sunlight. For the frieze, however, the angle of vision was such that the artist could use a "shorthand" system of suggestion rather than full depiction. The fact that the horses of the Palestrina fragment are shown in part obliquely and in part in profile is not so noticeable if they are set up high. If they were also in a dimly lit or shadowed position, the discrepancy would probably have never been apparent, especially since the viewer had a "moving picture" rather than a single

scene to study.

Both the St. Rémy and the Palestrina artists made full use of the architectural setting of their works to emphasize the pictorialism of their compositions. The Mantua artist instead used that setting to emphasize the sculptural heritage of his frieze. Although the Mantua relief is not far removed chronologically from the St. Rémy panels, it is farther from them idiomatically than is the Palestrina fragment. Like St. Rémy, both the Mantua and Palestrina fragments depict a large number of figures in various overlapping arrangements. However, a combination of foreshortening and oblique movements make the Palestrina fragment more pictorial than the Mantua relief, even though the latter does employ a realistic system of perspective by setting successive rows of figures deeper and deeper into the background. Furthermore, the Palestrina fragment also uses the contour groove; although its use is occasional rather than consistent, it nevertheless effectively outlines the figures against each other and so is not far removed from the purely pictorial use of the groove that we find at St. Rémy.⁶

Tiberian Reliefs

Many of the St. Rémy pictorial traditions characterize the battle scenes on the north and south sides of the attic of the arch at Orange (Illus. 17 and 18), which are usually dated ca. 27 A.D.⁷ These compositions are

located high up on the arch and are much more densely packed with figures than the St. Rémy panels. Although the scenes at Orange are not set within pilasters, they are also very large panels. Both compositions at Orange depict the victory of the Roman cavalry and infantry over barbarian forces. The compositions are quite complex and probably represent a combination of a number of sources, both pictorial and sculptural. However, all the various elements are well integrated as entities.

The compositions at Orange combine the linear arrangement of the north St. Rémy panel and the tiered perspective of the west St. Rémy panel. At Orange the middle ground is largely dominated by obliquely moving horses and their riders who are seen in various three-quarter, frontal, and rear views. These horsemen recall the cavalymen of the north panel in both movement and pose. On the other hand, the oblique movements of the infantrymen combined with fallen men and horses who lie parallel to the relief ground produce an effect similar to the west panel. The two perspectives are combined very effectively to accommodate an abnormally large number of figures who are caught up in a jumbled mass of confused actions. These actions prove to be quite systematic upon close examination. Consequently, the Orange reliefs by crowding all the available field with figures offer a different formula for spatiality than we have at St. Rémy. Although the rendition of this space is not completely

realistic, it is fairly convincing. There is no change in scale to denote perspective, but dramatically foreshortened horses and men enhance the depth of the composition.

Like the St. Rémy artist, the creator of the Orange reliefs used the contour groove to set off his figures from each other and to maintain the integrity of their outlines across visible masonry courses. The grooves emphasize the plasticity and three-dimensionality of the figures. In my opinion it is the same use of the groove that we find at St. Rémy. The grooves are used in a constant system to define figures and set them off from their backdrop. They are not used intermittently to highlight only a few elements, such as legs and arms, or to create staccato patterns on garments. Therefore, the Orange groove is pictorial and not decorative like the grooves on Severan and later monuments.⁸

There are other more specific similarities between the two sets of reliefs as well. The horses in the Orange reliefs are rendered in almost exactly the same manner as the horses at St. Rémy. Because their manes, tails, and faces are so similar, the two sets of horses are virtually interchangeable. Certain other figures also find parallels in both the St. Rémy panels and the Palestrina fragment. In the north Orange relief, the horseman who bears down against the central nude who is seen from the rear is very much like St. Remy N5. Occupying the central lower fore-

ground in the south Orange relief is a defensive warrior on a fallen horse; ~~he~~ turns back to his left to strike at his adversary. This motif is found somewhat modified in the central foreground of the Palestrina fragment as well. To the right of this first Orange motif is a warrior who is falling from his fallen horse; he recalls the ambitious pose of N6. Finally, the mounted horseman seen from the rear just above the falling warrior is identical to N4. Also, the drilling of the eyes of the Orange figures is mirrored by St. Rémy figures N5, E10-11, W6, and by the various horses.

These similarities to the St. Rémy panels and the Palestrina fragment together with the overall pictorialism of the Orange reliefs are not insignificant because they seem to me to be indications of an early Imperial date. The dating of the arch at Orange has been a controversial problem. In the major publication of the monument G. Charles-Picard and P.-M. Duval conclude on the basis of the architectural, sculptural, and epigraphical evidence that the arch should date ca. 26/27 A.D., during the reign of Tiberius.⁹ However, Mingazzini argues that the analogies between the Orange reliefs and the Arch of Septimius Severus in the Roman Forum and second century battle sarcophagi indicate a Severan date.¹⁰ After studying the attic reliefs, I must agree with Charles-Picard and Duval that the sculptural decoration of this particular part of the monument should date in the early first century A.D.

Although the St. Rémy panels, the Orange reliefs, and the battle sarcophagi reflect some of the same Hellenistic pictorial sources, the artistic traditions of St. Rémy and Orange undergo quite a bit of modification in the battle sarcophagi, and the analogies there are really not so clear as Mingazzini would have them.¹¹

A Claudian Relief

It is difficult to say much about the next chronological set of reliefs. These reliefs once decorated the arch of Claudius that was built in Rome ca. 51/2 A.D. Now several Renaissance drawings of a fragment of the decoration (Figs. 26 and 27)¹² are all that remain. From this limited evidence, we can tell that depth was indicated by superimposed rows of figures, overlapping figures, and possibly oblique movement. A comparison of the drawings in Figures 26 and 27 indicates discrepancies in the artists' interpretations or angles of view, so we can not be sure to what extent the pictorial traditions of the St. Rémy panels were maintained. Certainly the fallen figure seems nicely foreshortened and lies along the groundline rather than being ~~an~~ insertion in the scene. Beyond these few statements, we can deduce little more about the nature of the compositions. Nevertheless, it is clear that this monument was an important transitional link between the St. Rémy panels and the great Trajanic frieze.

Fig. 26. Fragmentary relief from Arch of
Claudius, Rome. Renaissance drawing.

(Castagnoli, BullComm, 1942, p. 63, Fig. 6.)

Fig. 27. Fragmentary relief from Arch of
Claudius, Rome. Renaissance drawing.

(Castagnoli, BullComm, 1942, p. 63, Fig. 7.)



(Cod. Vat. Lat. 3439, f. 65).



(P. Jacques, *Album* f. 29).

Trajanic Reliefs

Before looking at the grand pictorial traditions as they are interpreted in the great Trajanic frieze, we must examine another Trajanic monument and the different pictorial tradition that it represents. The column of Trajan was erected in Rome around 113 A.D. to commemorate Trajan's victories over the Dacians. It is a commentary on those campaigns that is filled with realistic details of armament and ethnography. A number of battles from both campaigns are depicted,¹³ but we shall look at only one representative scene which happens to belong to the second Dacian war (Illus. 19). In this scene we see a full-scale infantry battle set in rocky terrain. The Roman forces, who are positioned in front of a hill or mountain, clearly have the upper hand over the barbarians, who are mostly fallen or on their knees about to receive the death blow. On top of the mountain, other Dacians are in great consternation over the defeat of their troops. Landscape elements are used to create an effective outdoor setting.

There are a large number of figures in the scene, and its subject matter certainly fits Nicias' requirements,¹⁴ but it is not a grand-style scene. It is instead a documentary narrative that makes no attempt to create an actual space in which the figures can move. The artist fills the "foreground" of the scene with figures who are shown in basically linear, or isocephalic, arrangement. There are some overlappings and some deviations from the

isocephaly, but there is no attempt to suggest depth by a consistent arrangement of figures one behind the other. We are able to see the Dacians atop the mountain because the artist has chosen the "bird's-eye" perspective to display them. One is to accept that they are looking down from a high vantage point, but no artistic devices realistically suggest their position; for example, there is no variance in scale between these figures and the warriors below them.

This monument reflects a documentary or narrative pictorial tradition rather than a monumental, heroic, "grand" tradition. We must expect certain differences in rendition because the scenes on the column are arranged in a continuous narrative and are of much smaller size than the panels and friezes we have been examining. They are designed as an official, commemorative, public statement of the Dacian wars.¹⁵ The almost cartographic quality of the compositions suggests that they may reflect the pictorial traditions of Roman triumphal paintings, but because we have only literary evidence for the appearance of these paintings, it is impossible to say how much could be adapted directly from such a source and how much is introduced from elsewhere.¹⁶ This problem is a complex and much debated subject and does not concern us directly, but it at least should be mentioned that the column probably does reflect some heritage from pictorial triumphal representations.

In sheer size and impressiveness, the great Trajanic frieze (Illus. 20-23) is the antithesis of the scenes from the column and is perhaps the "grandest" example we have of the grand pictorial tradition. There are four extant panels preserved on the Arch of Constantine in Rome. They originally came from some other public monument, probably erected ca. 106/7 A.D. (perhaps in the Forum of Trajan). The total preserved length of the frieze is 18.28 meters; it is 2.98 meters high, and the figures are larger than life-size.¹⁷ The scenes represent an adventus (Illus. 20), a pitched battle with the Dacians (Illus. 21), the final victory over the Dacians (Illus. 22), and their submission (Illus. 23). Hamberg accurately describes its dramatic and heroic political statement as "a demonstration of virtus Augusti, gloria exercitus, victoria Romanorum."¹⁸

Unlike the column the frieze is not meant as a realistic, or documentary, commentary, but rather as an idealistic expression of political thought and policies. The scenes are typical, generic episodes rather than factual events chosen to provide a continuous narrative.¹⁹ In fact, the compositions are combinations of motifs from various historical paintings whose traditions go back to the grand battle pictures of the Hellenistic period.²⁰ Like the Mantua and Palestrina fragments, the Trajanic frieze was a continuous presentation, but of more individualized episodes. It was probably set somewhat above eye-level, perhaps in a portico like the Telephus frieze.

Just like the west and east panels at St. Rémy, the Trajanic frieze is densely packed with men and horses. However, the system of perspective in the frieze is more sophisticated than the perspective of the panels; the frieze utilizes both the tiered arrangement of the panels and the realistically receding rows of figures one behind the other that characterizes the Alexander mosaic. In the adventus scene (Illus. 20), for example, the heads of the figures immediately behind the emperor's group are slightly lower than the heads in the foreground group; these figures are also logically smaller in scale because they are deeper in the background. However, the rest of the crowd behind the emperor is indicated by several heads that are higher than the foreground group. If we postulate bodies for these heads, the arrangement of the figures in the far background resembles the tiered system of the St. Rémy panels. The Trajanic artist uses a number of these "unattached" profile heads, worked in very low relief, to create the impression of a dense crowd in the various episodes. Also in the background are a few trees and huts that suggest the setting of the scenes. This technique is comparable to the limited use of landscape elements in the south panel at St. Rémy and in the Alexander mosaic.

Also comparable to St. Rémy is the groundline system in the great frieze. The St. Rémy artist suggests a realistic groundline in the north and west panels in two different ways. In the north panel, although they move

in and out of the background, all the figures stand along the baseline of the panel. The figures in the west panel, however, stand on varied groundlines that include the baseline of the panel and painted terrain; still, the positions of all the figures are possible in real space. On the other hand, in the east panel and the Trajanic frieze the artists have chosen to sacrifice a realistic groundline system in order to create a greater illusion of depth. The spectators E10 and E11 are very much like the "unattached" profile heads in the Trajanic frieze. Neither spectators nor heads are essential to the scene, but both are effective devices for conveying an impression of actual space in which the more important figures move. Also, depending on the effects of lighting and painting, the viewer of the original great frieze might have had the impression that these "unattached" heads were worked more in the round than they seem now. If so, this effect would recall the "drawing" of figures such as E10 and E11.

The movements of the various figures and the foreshortening of many of them also create greater depth in both the St. Rémy panels and the Trajanic frieze. Parallel and oblique movements are combined effectively in both monuments. The overall impression is more flamboyant in the Trajanic frieze, partially because of the density of the composition and also because of the depth of the carving. Perhaps the most outstanding example of foreshortening and oblique movement and the depth they combine to

create in the Trajanic frieze is the horse and barbarian rider falling in front of the victorious emperor (Illus. 22). The spectator has the distinct feeling that had the artist chosen a moment later in the fall, the group would actually be tumbling out of the composition.

In both the east panel at St. Rémy and in the Trajanic frieze the major emphasis is on the human beings who are involved in the various actions that are depicted. The north and west panels seem to be focused more on the overall action than on any one figure; no hero presents himself in the west panel, and one has to look closely to decide that N2 is the probable hero in that composition. These panels are comparable to the action of the battle and victory episodes (Illus. 21 and 22) from the great frieze. However, all the panels and the episodes of the great frieze emphasize the human element; even when the spectator's eye is caught first by the overall action, there are individual motifs highlighted compositionally so that the viewer's attention is ultimately attracted to them.

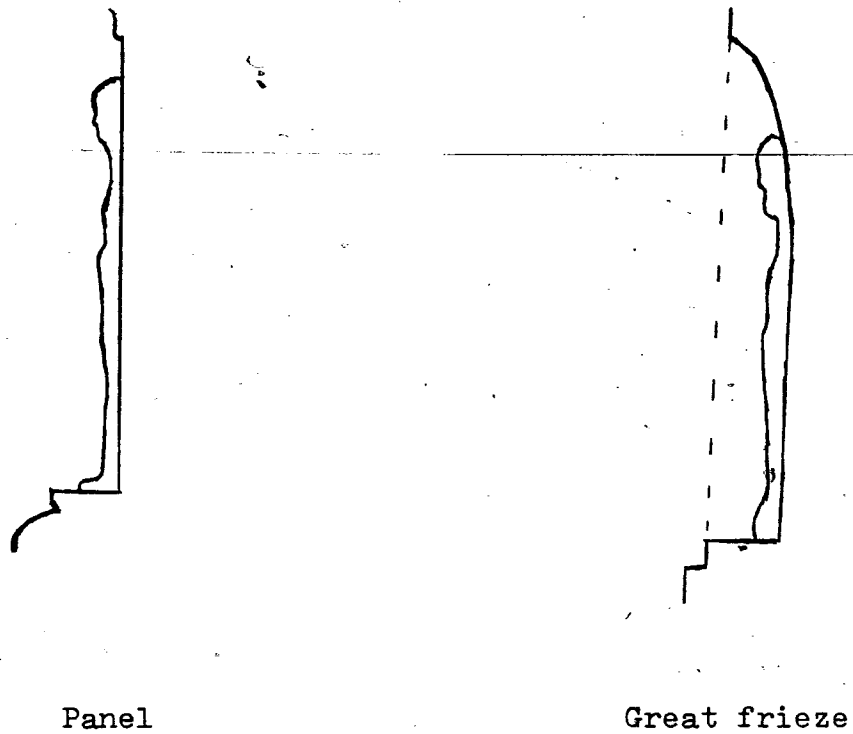
Several similarities exist between the east panel and the great frieze in this regard. The Trajanic horses and Troilus' horse are very small in relation to the human figures around them, and in this way attention is focused on the human participants. Personification plays a role in both compositions. In the east panel, locale is suggested by the river god E1 and the impending success of the hero E8 by the Victory E7; Lasa E3 establishes the funerary

implications of the scene. Trajan in the adventus scene similarly is being crowned by Victory after his successful campaign, and he is being escorted to the city gate by Virtus or Roma. The personifications in the frieze are part of a conceptual political statement, whereas in the east panel they are part of a funerary symbolism. However, in each case the personifications help set the locale and the tone of the scenes.

When a particular hero such as the emperor or Achilles E8 is depicted, his heroic superiority is made obvious in various ways. E8 is thrust into the foreground and is one of the few nude warriors in the scene. His chlamys swirls dramatically behind him, and his body is outlined against his shield. Trajan in the victory episode (Illus. 22) is also accentuated by his swirling cloak. Furthermore, the Dacians fall in a wave before his irresistible onslaught. In the adventus (Illus. 20) Trajan is emphasized by the divine figures who accompany him; he also stands in an elliptical niche of figures who gaze toward him. The emperor and the deities occupy the foreground, and the emperor's human companions are clustered in the background and so are not fully visible. This elliptical arrangement also characterizes the proclamation episode of the east panel. E2, E4, and E5 stand behind E3 and direct their attention toward her as she reads from her rotulus. The grouping is not so formal as the Trajanic assembly, but the basic emphasis is the same.

In spite of these similarities, the Trajanic frieze achieves a greater illusionary spatiality than do the St. Rémy panels. The secret of this success lies in the physical structure of the reliefs. At St. Rémy the panels are essentially flat planes. The courses of stone were originally even with the pilasters before they were cut away in varying depths around the figures. Consequently, the artist was restricted in his depiction of actual space by the finite, architectonic masonry wall that constitutes his relief ground. However, the relief ground of the Trajanic frieze recedes slightly and so presents a concave profile. It is a "hollow" relief whose figures are worked behind an imaginary optical surface in front of the relief (Fig. 28).²¹ An illusionary space is thus created while the figures are being worked to various depths. By using this hollow relief, the Trajanic artist has succeeded in breaking the tectonic bonds that hampered the St. Rémy artist. He is no longer restricted by a finite structural backdrop but has instead an actual deep space in which to work to create an illusion of even deeper space. In this respect, the hollow relief comes as close to the effects of painting as relief-sculpture can.²² The figures are placed behind an imaginary frontal plane so they are set in actual space, thus accomplishing to some degree the illusion of depth that painting creates with perspective.

We have seen the grand pictorial tradition reach



Panel

Great frieze

Fig. 28. Profiles of a St. Rémy panel
and the great Trajanic frieze.

its culmination in the great Trajanic frieze. Its basic characteristics remain the same that we saw in the Alexander mosaic and the St. Rémy panels, despite various modifications made over the years to satisfy aesthetic and architectural requirements. Representations in the grand style are consistently distinguished by a large number of figures arranged to indicate depth and frequently engaged in foreshortened or oblique motions. Abbreviated landscape may be indicated by "props" such as trees or may be omitted entirely, but the heroic quality of the action is always clear. This grand pictorial tradition existed along with a documentary tradition that may reflect triumphal paintings and that is exemplified by the scenes on the column of Trajan. Structurally, the greatest success in achieving pictorial spatiality occurs when the hollow relief is used. Its invention solved a number of problems that defeated the St. Rémy artist and allowed the Trajanic sculptor to create an accurate rendition of actual space that closely approaches the effect of painting.



NOTES

¹See above, pp. 144f.

²D. E. Strong, "The Mantua Relief -- A Note," BSR, 30 (1962), pp. 28-30; A. Levi, Palazzo Ducale di Mantova, no. 167.

³Theodor Kraus, Das römische Weltreich, Bd. II Propyläen Kunstgeschichte, II (Berlin: Propyläen Verlag, 1967), p. 224, museum no. 99, Taf. 481b.

⁴Strong, "Mantua Relief," p. 29.

⁵Ibid.

⁶See above, pp. 165ff.

⁷Amy, L'Arc d'Orange, I, pp. 117ff.; see below, pp. 198ff.

⁸See above, pp. 170f.

⁹Amy, L'Arc d'Orange, p. 157.

¹⁰Paolino Mingazzini, "La datazione dell'Arco di Orange," RömMitt, 75 (1968), pp. 163-167 and "Sulla datazione di alcuni monumenti comunemente assegnati ad età Augustea," ArchCl, 9 (1957), pp. 193-205. Emeline Richardson would also date the arch to the Severan period.

¹¹A few sarcophagi display a spatiality similar to the Orange concept, but most sarcophagi that have a comparably large number of figures (e.g., the Ludovisi sarcophagus in the Terme) have given up any pretense of a realistic groundline system. Instead, they assemble a variety of sculptural figures into whatever space actually exists. Foreshortened poses and oblique movements are suppressed, and often the background figures are staggered artificially to emphasize certain outstanding sculptural motifs. Several of the earlier battle sarcophagi (e.g., the Ammendola sarcophagus in the Museo Capitolino) are characterized by a plausible tiered perspective, oblique movement, and foreshortened poses; in short, they adhere fairly closely to the St. Rémy interpretation of these pictorial idioms.

However, even in this early series, "unattached" heads in low relief are put in the background to enhance the crowdedness of the compositions. I think it is very important that the Orange reliefs do not use this suggestive technique. As in the St. Rémy panels, the volume of each figure is clearly defined and set off by a groove; every figure is fully "drawn" within a pictorially unified composition rather than being only "sketched" or suggested in an accessory position in the far background. Consequently, the Orange reliefs seem more closely akin to the St. Rémy panels than to the battle sarcophagi.

¹²F. Castagnoli, "Due Archi Trionfali della Via Flaminia presso Piazza Sciara," BullComm, LXX (1942), pp. 57-82, especially pp. 55-73.

¹³Lehmann-Hartleben, Taf. 14 (scene XXIV), 17 (XXIX/XXX, XXXI), 21 (XXXVIII), 22 (XLI), 30 (LXIV), 33 (LXX), 34 (LXXII), 43 (XCIV), 44 (~~XCV~~), 53 (CXII), 54 (CXIII), 55 (CXV/CXVI), 62 (CXXXIV), 66 (CXLII/CXLIII/CXLIV), 70 (CXLIX/CL), pp. 88-108.

¹⁴See above, pp. 135f.

¹⁵Lehmann-Hartleben, p. 89.

¹⁶Koeppel, "Grand Pictorial Tradition," pp. 10-11; Lehmann-Hartleben, pp. 40ff., 101ff.

¹⁷Massimo Pallottino, "Il grande fregio di Traiano," BullComm, LXVI (1938 [1939]), p. 23.

¹⁸Per Gustaf Hamberg, Studies in Roman Imperial Art with Special Reference to the State Reliefs of the Second Century (Copenhagen: Ejnar Munksgaard, 1945), p. 170.

¹⁹Koeppel, "Grand Pictorial Tradition," p. 12.

²⁰Ibid., pp. 8, 13; Ranuccio Bianchi-Bandinelli, "Il Maestro delle impresse di Traiano," Storicità dell'arte classica, Vol. I (2nd ed.; Firenze: Electa Editrice, 1950), p. 235. Alexander the Great actually did lead the charge into battle as he is shown doing in the Alexander mosaic.

²¹Koeppel, "Grand Pictorial Tradition," pp. 26-27; Pallottino, "Il grande fregio," p. 23 where he gives the maximum projection of the relief as 0.3 meter.

²²Koeppel, "Grand Pictorial Tradition," p. 27.

CONCLUSION

Architectural and epigraphical evidence suggest a date in the late first century B.C., probably between the years 30 and 25, for the construction of the mausoleum of the Julii at St. Rémy. Hellenistic sources provided the inspiration for much of the sculptural decoration, including the four large relief panels. Both the north and west panels are generic battle scenes, but the east and south panels reflect two mythological cycles. These panels show two episodes each from the Troilus and the Meleager legends. Precedents for including two episodes within a single composition and for a tiered composition as an adaptation of a specific painting are offered by several series of Etruscan funerary urns. Urns also substantiate the iconography of the east panel as a scene of the death of Troilus at the hands of Achilles. The similarity of the Etruscan urns and the St. Rémy panels to certain South Italian vases suggests the strong possibility that a South Italian cycle of paintings may underlie the Troilus scene. In order to emphasize the funerary significance of the mythological scenes in both the south and east panels, the St. Rémy artist juxtaposed a moment of great virtus and a moment of somber finality.

Specific motifs in the various panels suggest that the inspiration for the compositions comes mainly from pictorial sources that can not date earlier than the end of the fourth century B.C. The boar in the south panel is evidenced on a vase in Trieste that is dated ca. 330, and the foreshortened horse and rider seen from the rear in the north panel do not appear in painting before ca. 300-250 B.C. The tiered composition of the west panel in particular is also apparent in late fourth and third century vases. Furthermore, certain motifs come from later sources. The fallen horseman N6 can not date earlier than the middle or more probably the late third century B.C. Seated prisoner E15 certainly reflects a second century Pergamene influence, and the quiet group E2, E4, and E5 is analogous to provincial funerary sculpture of the first centuries B.C. and A.D. Most of the armament confirms the Hellenistic date for the pictorial sources of the panels. The only possible exceptions are the horned helmets of N1 and W7 and the unusual lances of W12 and W14; however, these examples have been shown to reflect much older traditions.

The battle scenes in the St. Rémy panels belong to the "grand pictorial" tradition. This style of representation flourished in the Hellenistic period with such monumental tableaux as the painted original of the Alexander mosaic. These panels exemplify the grand tradition in having a large number of figures engaged in heroic action, as the painter Nicias recommended. Depth is realis-

tically suggested by oblique movement, sometimes together with a tiered perspective (as in the east and west panels) or along a single groundline (as in the north panel). Abbreviated landscape, such as we find in the Alexander mosaic, is depicted only in the south panel. There is no variation in scale to suggest a system of perspective. The contour grooves and the actual painting of the panels completed the megalographic effect. Finally, the architectural setting of the panels emphasizes their pictoriality. Like panel paintings, they are set somewhat above eye-level within frames of pilasters and garlands.

A similar pictorialism characterizes several early Imperial reliefs, although not always to the same degree that we have in the St. Rémy panels. In addition, another pictorial tradition also existed during this period, and it can be seen in the documentary style of the column of Trajan. This tradition has an entirely different system of perspective and spatiality. The grand style reaches its culmination in the great Trajanic frieze. Here we have the same abbreviated landscape, dense compositions, and heroic actions that we find at St. Rémy, but certain important innovations have also been made. The presence of divinities accentuates the heroic qualities of the scene; certain figures are worked in low relief behind the main figures to create the impression of a large crowd occupying a space deep in the background. Frequently, the position of these figures would not be possible in real space.

Finally, the artist uses the "hollow" relief so that he can convincingly depict the space within which his figures move.

Most of the early Imperial reliefs were set high above eye-level. The Mantua and Palestrina fragments were parts of a continuous frieze, and this architectural use necessitated some changes from the St. Rémy treatment. Although the Orange reliefs are high up, they closely resemble the panel nature of the St. Rémy compositions. They, too, have no architectural function to perform since the attic is the crowning member of the arch. It is also probable that the great Trajanic frieze in its original setting was in a position free of architectonic lines of stress because the illusionary quality of the hollow relief structure is not well suited to a supporting function. We may assume, as a result, that the frieze may have been set within a portico like the Telephus frieze from Pergamon.

Because of these differences in architectural setting and in ideological purpose as well, none of the early Imperial reliefs is as complete and straightforward in its pictoriality as the St. Rémy panels. St. Rémy stands very close to its Hellenistic pictorial precedents, and while its artistic traditions continue into the early Empire, the modifications made there are beginning to show their effects. After the reign of Trajan, the pictorial traditions are gradually replaced by a formal set of standards that are derived from a sculptural heritage, and one ceases to find

purely pictorial idioms translated into relief sculpture
in stone.

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ILLUSTRATIONS

Illus. 1. Mausoleum of the Julii and arch at St. Rémy.

(Rolland, Le Mausolée, Pl. 34.)