Chapter 7

The Roman fate of Thespiai
(171 BC – fourth century AD)

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The literary sources for the late Hellenistic and Imperial Periods are scarce, scanty, and scattered in respect of the broader historical picture, offering many more lacunae than continuous narratives. We have bits and pieces from Polybius and Livy, an extract from Pausanias about the Achaian War, a few allusions here and there in Cicero. On the other hand, the two books on Boeotia by Strabo (ix) and Pausanias (ix) are full of interesting information about landscapes, topography and toponyms. To these one should add the works by the Boeotian Plutarch, especially the Erotikos, which is set in the Valley of the Muses. Overall, the partial nature of the literary evidence makes the epigraphical material all the more indispensable.

The total number of inscriptions for Thespiai is one of the highest in Boeotia (more than 1300), but this is not necessarily a direct reflection of the expansion and wealth of the city. That we have so many Thesopian inscriptions is first and foremost the result of the ‘excavation’ by a member of the French school of Athens, Paul Jamot, who dismantled the Kastro at the end of the nineteenth century. A by-product of their inclusion in the Kastro is that for a lot of documents we know where they were found, but not where they were originally erected. This affects our understanding of the spatial organization of inscriptions in the city and the outer sanctuaries. But I shall still be referring both to inscriptions dealing with the Valley of the Muses and inscriptions concerning the urban centre (astu): the city is as much a whole for historians as it is for archaeologists.

This abundant corpus, as Robin Osborne has already mentioned (Chapter 6), has been recently published in an electronic version by the Maison de l’Orient méditerranéen in Lyon, and I shall use the numbering of this temporary opus (IThesp); but the chronology of many inscriptions in this corpus is either too vague (‘III-II a.C.’ is a very common feature), or inaccurate.1 One example will suffice. Roesch (1982: 399) considered that the Boeotians did not use their regional dialect after 171 bc, which has proved to be mistaken: the dialect is still in use in the region down to the middle or even second half of the second century bc. Vagueness in chronology especially affects the funerary material. Tombstones are very numerous, about 900 in total for the whole history of Thespiai, but the dates are so poorly established that the material is hardly usable, so it will not be touched on here.

What will be done here is to glance through this remarkably dense material, pointing out the main dossiers in accordance with the following theme: what is Roman about Roman Thespiai? I shall focus on three main points:

– Thespiai in the aftermath of the Third Macedonian War and its subsequent history during the late Hellenistic period
– Thespiai, the Roman power and its representatives
– Thespiai and its élites: Italians, Romans and Romanized Greeks

Thespiai in the aftermath of the Third Macedonian War (after 168 bc)

The behaviour of the Thespians during the Third Macedonian War (171–168 bc) had consequences. This period witnessed the fierce and consistent opposition to the Romans on the part of three cities (Haliartos, Koroneia and Thisbe) (Müller: 1996a). But in the other Boeotian cities we can see no clear ‘pro-Roman’ group: Thebes was more or less on the Roman side, along with probably a few other poleis, including Thespiai. Kreusis, the port of Thespiai (see Pernin 2011: 308–14) was used at least three times by the Romans to get into Boeotian territory, during the Second and Third
There was no longer federal administration of soldiers ready for enrolment, especially in terms of young koinon means that it had a population able to support the territorial framework of this koinon, Thespiai, like Thebes and Tanagra, had held a whole one for itself, which is complete, shows 28 names in the mid-second century bc, even though some of the lists are much shorter than their predecessors (Etienne and Knoepfler 1976: 203 and n. 688). In fact, any catalogue in which there is no mention of a federal archon and no patronymic adjective (e.g. ITesp 108) could post-date 171, since the presence of the regional dialect is no longer a relevant chronological criterion (Müller 2005: 97–8).

The biggest consequence of the Third Macedonian War for Boeotia was the dissolution of the koinon, the Confederacy. In this Hellenistic koinon, Thespiai had been quite powerful: as Knoepfler has shown (Knoepfler 2002, with a summary in Müller 2001a: 261–3), out of the seven districts (telè) forming the territorial framework of this koinon Thespiai, like Thebes and Tanagra, had held a whole one for itself, which means that it had a population able to support the demands of the koinon, especially in terms of young soldiers ready for enrolment.

In turn, the consequences of the dissolution are multiple:

- There was no longer a federal government or magistrates. There was to be no revival of the koinon before, at least, the end of the Mithridatic War; and in my view, later still, at the end of the first century bc (Müller 2014). When it did reappear, Thespiai was not directly involved (it concerned mainly Lebadeia and Koroneia). After 171, we know only about local and civic magistrates. The civic organs include the synedrion, the council, which is the new name of the boule after 167 – providing a reliable chronological landmark for epigraphical documents (Müller 2005: 114–6) – and probably implies a different way of recruiting the councillors, with the introduction of a property qualification (as conceded by Hamon 2007: 87), which anticipates the measures taken for Greece by Mummius after 146, according to Pausanias (vii. 16. 7–10). Although not many Thespian decrees are preserved after 171, there is a fragmentary one (ITesp 41) mentioning synedroi (councillors) and concerning the election of sitônai (commissaries for grain) during an archèresiè (the assembly for the election of magistrates). This decree, which may have been a measure taken against a food crisis, would fit nicely in the years 170–150 bc, as the Boeotians seem greatly concerned with such matters after the Third Macedonian War.²

- There was no longer federal administration of justice, which explains why the cities had to appeal to foreign judges: in Thespiai, we know of one such judge coming from Troizen at a date just before 140/39 bc (IG IF, 971: see Müller 2013: 272–3 on this topic).

- There was no longer a federal army; but the local, civic armies did not disappear, as is shown by the catalogues of conscripts: see Plassart 1946: 482–7 on the Thespian catalogues. There are at least 12 such catalogues in the new corpus (ITesp 109–120) dating from the second century bc to the first century ad, with numbers of names that are not negligible (for instance ITesp 113, which is complete, shows 28 names in the mid-second century bc), even though some of the lists are much shorter than their predecessors (Etienne and Knoepfler 1976: 203 and n. 688). In fact, any catalogue in which there is no mention of a federal archon and no patronymic adjective (e.g. ITesp 108) could post-date 171, since the presence of the regional dialect is no longer a relevant chronological criterion (Müller 2005: 97–8).

- There was no longer an overall territorial organization with intermediary structures and networks. Life was now based on cities, kata polin as Polybius says (xxviii. 1). Yet there may have been some trace of such an organization, what I have called a ‘federal memory’ (Müller 2014), visible in the apologia of an agonothetes (festival organizer) of the Basilæia in Lebadeia in the mid-first century bc: here we see that the designation of his successor will be in the hands of the people of two telè: that of the Thespians and that of the Plataeans (Nouveau Choix 2005: n°22, B, 36–7).

In the Achaean War of 146 bc, Thespian behaviour is again not very clear. Thanks to Cicero (Verr. ii. 4. 4), we learn that Mummius had taken all the statues from the city, except for the marble Eros made by Praxiteles for Phryne or Glykera in the fourth century bc.²³ Among the statues stolen were those of the Muses and also, mentioned not by Cicero but by Dio Chrysostom (xxxvii. 42), a statue of Philip II that he had reinscribed as being of Zeus, so that he could resell it at a better price! The theft of statues from a wealthy sanctuary should not always be seen as a punishment; certainly when, later on, Gaius stole the Eros from the city (Pausanias ix. 27. 3), Thespiai was not on bad terms with the Emperor. More interesting is the fact that Mummius, at Thespiai as at Thebes and Tanagra, at least once took the liberty of re-dedicating some statues under his own name (ITesp 396: see Knoepfler 1991: 270–1 on the re-use of bases in Boeotia). The practice was certainly not a novelty in Greece, but this almost systematic application of the process is no chance affair and must reveal an ideological appropriation...
of the bases and, at the same time, of the space that they occupy.\(^4\)

It is a real historical problem to know what should or should not be inferred from such a gesture: it seems probable that Thespiai, like most Boeotian cities, had stood with the Thebans and the Achaeans against the Romans (cf. Knoepfler 1991: 269), which would imply that Thespiai was among the cities that were placed ‘\textit{sub imperium populi Romani dictionemque}, ‘under the rule and jurisdiction of the Roman people’, as Cicero (\textit{Verr.} ii. 1. 55) notes for those \textit{poleis} that had supported the Achaeans. But there is no certainty about this and especially, there is no evidence whatever of a province of Achaia in existence already at that time; the mention of a Roman governor of Achaia having been appointed from 145 ‘down to my own time’ by Pausanias (vii. 16. 7) is an obvious mistake (see Plutarch, \textit{Cimon} 2.1). The only possibility, according to the \textit{communis opinio}, would have been that these parts of Greece that had rebelled against Rome during the Achaean War would have been made subject to the governor of Macedonia. But, as Gruen (1984: 524) has shown, it is difficult to imagine a patchwork system where some bits and pieces of Greece would have been under the authority of the Romans, while their neighbours would have remained free. It might be better to think of an informal control over Greece by the governors of Macedonia (Fournier 2010: 8).

The next step occurs during the Mithridatic war. At this time, contrary to its earlier behaviour, Thespiai stood clearly against Rome’s enemy. As Appian (\textit{Mithridateios} 29) relates, during the winter of 88/87 bc Archelaos, Mithridates’ general, managed to overcome the reluctance of the Boeotians and made them his allies, with one notorious exception: the Thespians alone resisted the Pontic army before the arrival of Sulla. Archelaos besieged the city, but without success. The city dedicated two statues, one of Sulla (\textit{IThesp} 397) \textit{as autokrator} (\textit{imperator}) after his victory in Chaironeia in 86 bc; the other of Quintus Braetius Sura, \textit{legatus} of the governor of Macedonia (\textit{IThesp} 34), who had been sent against the Mithridatic troops. This heroic conduct is probably the reason why Thespiai was granted the status of \textit{liberum oppidum}, ‘free city’ (Pliny, \textit{NH} iv. 7. 25). At any rate, there is no way of demonstrating that this privilege could have been granted before Sulla, as a few historians have implied (Plassart 1926: 438; Accame 1946: 199; Bernhardt 1971), believing that the province of Achaia had been established in 146 bc and that this was implicated in the free status (that is, by Thespiai’s exclusion from the province). The definition of such a ‘freedom’ is problematic: the one thing we really know is that such a status, as attested in Pliny, concerns only two cities in Boeotia, at least for the Augustan period: Thespiai and Tanagra. Roesch (1965: 73) held that Caesar was responsible for the award of this status, but the author of the grant, for the reasons already mentioned, must surely have been Sulla.

If Sulla was responsible for the grant of freedom, this would fit well with the fact that the Thespians showed gratitude to Sulla by establishing, probably after 86, the new athletic competition of the \textit{Erotideia} (on this festival, see Manieri 2009: 341–6). The cult of Eros is well attested from the Classical period onwards in the town itself, but the competition appears only much later. The first local agonistic catalogue (of \textit{winning competitors}) is to be dated around 60 bc (\textit{IThesp} 186), but the earliest mention of this competition is in an Athenian decree (\textit{IG} II, 1054), dated after 86 bc by Knoepfler (1997: 36–7). It gives its title as being the \textit{Erotideia kai Rhômaia}, which must mean that it bore the double name from the beginning. The other catalogues (\textit{IThesp} 187–193) are mostly of imperial date and record only athletic games, which fits both Plutarch’s essay \textit{On Love} and Pausanias’ testimony (ix. 31. 3), when the latter says that, thanks to both the \textit{Museia} and \textit{Erotideia} (which took place at different times), there were prizes not only for musicians but also for athletes. Ideologically, the connexion of the \textit{Erotideia} with Sulla, who in Greek contexts styled himself Epaphroditos, fits well with the \textit{imperator’s} wish to establish a link to Venus-Aphrodite: Eros is the servant of the goddess and was worshipped in her sanctuary at Thespiai.

The Sullan period was a flourishing one also for the \textit{Museia}.\(^5\) After 171 and the disappearance of the \textit{koinon}, they were still celebrated as a musical festival that was penteteric (every four years) and stephanitic (with prizes in the form of a simple wreath). The Thespians organized the festival, now without any federal support, but with the deep involvement of the companies of artists, the \textit{technitai}, who were taking part in \textit{agônes} all over Greece (e.g. \textit{IThesp} 165 and 172). The Sanctuary of the Muses and the \textit{Museia} themselves became a very important space for the Thespians to express their links with the new Roman power, especially after the Mithridatic war. For instance, the crown given to Q. Braetius Sura after 86 bc (\textit{IThesp} 34), already mentioned, was to be proclaimed in the theatre, thus in the Valley of the Muses, during the festivals, including the \textit{Museia}, organized by the Thespians. Finally, Sulla did something else for the Thespian Sanctuary of the Muses, as related by Pausanias (ix. 30): he re-dedicated there a statue of Dionysos by Myron that he had taken from Orchomenos; as Pausanias writes, this was ‘worshipping the gods with other people’s incense’. As has been seen with
Mummius, this was quite a common practice and should not be over-interpreted.

As for the province, Achaia seems to have had a governor once in 81 bc (RDGE 105–11, no. 18, l. 110–111); but the most conspicuous attempt to reduce the freedom of the civitates liberae came between 58 and 55 when L. Calpurnius Piso (consul in 58), was given the province of Macedonia by a plebiscite of the tribune Clodius, the famous Lex Clodia de provinciis consularibus, and the limits of the province were extended far beyond Macedonia and those Greek territories that had been under the surveillance of the proconsul since 146. It was extended to free cities including Athens, and will therefore certainly have included Thespiai and Tanagra. The first real attempt to create a province of Achaia, however, was Caesar’s in 46–44 bc. Caesar sent Ser. Sulpicius Rufus and then M. Acilius Caninus as governors of Achaia, as is made clear in Cicero’s correspondence (Fam. vi. 6. 10; vii. 30. 3; xiii. 17–28; xiii. 50). To the former, Cicero wrote in 46 a letter of recommendation for one of his friends (Cicero, Fam. xiii. 22), Titus Manlius ‘qui negotiatur Thespiis’, ‘who is doing some business in Thespiai’. This Sulpicius certainly visited Boeotia, ‘ut (...) reliquam(que) juris dictionem absolvere(t)’ (‘to discharge his other judicial duties’: Cicero, Fam. iv. 12 [31 May, 45 bc]), but we have no proof that Thespiai was itself placed under the authority of the governor, just as we do not know much about Thespiai’s fate under Augustus, when he finally set up a senatorial province of Achaia in 27 bc (Dio liii. 12).

We then reach the end of the Hellenistic period with Strabo, who gives quite a precise account of Thespiai and its territory in his own time (ix. 2. 25), although his testimony has not always struck historians as highly reliable (Knoepfler 1997: 23, is among those who think that Strabo knows little of Hellenistic Boeotia). The geographer enumerates in order the town itself, the port (i.e. Kreusis), and the citadel of Askra. There follows a geographical description of the westward extension of Helikon as far as Phokis, and the calculation of the distances between Kreusis and Askra. Junius Silanus (PIR I 830), for whose wife Crispina and mother Sempronia the Thespians erected around 34–30 bc an arc-shaped monument (IThesp 400 and 401). The Thespians are known to be the only ones, apart from the Tanagraeans, to engage as a body of citizens in a relationship of patrocinium (patronage) with Roman promagistrates, among whom one can identify Caesar in 46 (IThesp 420; MRR II 293 and MRR III 107; Eilers 2002: C25), Lucius Caninius Gallus (IThesp 399; Eilers 2002: C24), contemporary of Cicero and perhaps praetor of Achaia, and Marcus Licinius Crassus (IThesp 403; PIR II 3 L 186; Eilers 2002: C26), consul in 30 bc and proconsul of Macedonia and Achaia in 29.

Of all these patrons, one is more prominent than others, although he is the patron not of the community but of an individual, a unique case in Boeotia: Titus Statilius Taurus. Here, the biggest problem is

Thespiai and the representatives of Rome

From the second half of the first century bc, Thespiai seems therefore the most ‘Romanized’ of all Boeotian cities. A good example of the links established with the Roman power is the last Thespian decree of the late Hellenistic period (IThesp 35, last third of the first century bc?), in honour of a proconsul Futius Longus (Brill’s New Pauly, s.v. Futius (2)), proposed by a Polyratides son of Anthemion, a character belonging to a family closely linked to the new rulers (see below). This Roman promagistrate is said ‘to have been informed in Rome about our patris by those who take care of us’, which tells a lot about the close relationship between Thespiai and the Roman power, even if we can only make assumptions about the identity of those taking care of the city’s interests. We know of other Roman promagistrates honoured by Thespiai in the Late Hellenistic Period (in other words, the late Roman Republic), including for instance the quaestor Marcus Junius Silanus (PIR II 1 830), for whose wife Crispina and mother Sempronia the Thespians erected around 34–30 bc an arc-shaped monument (IThesp 400 and 401). The Thespians are known to be the only ones, apart from the Tanagraeans, to engage as a body of citizens in a relationship of patrocinium (patronage) with Roman promagistrates, among whom one can identify Caesar in 46 (IThesp 420; MRR II 293 and MRR III 107; Eilers 2002: C25), Lucius Caninius Gallus (IThesp 399; Eilers 2002: C24), contemporary of Cicero and perhaps praetor of Achaia, and Marcus Licinius Crassus (IThesp 403; PIR II 3 L 186; Eilers 2002: C26), consul in 30 bc and proconsul of Macedonia and Achaia in 29.
to establish which member of the family is involved: our man is most probably the consul suffect of 37 bc and ordinary consul in 26 bc (MRK 2, 422; PIReii.2, 318–23, no. 853; Thériault 2009), commander of Octavian’s land forces at Actium, a role that may explain his standing in Thespiai, rather than one of two brothers who were consuls in AD 11 and 16 (PIReii.2, nos. 851 and 855), much less known than the great Taurus. He is the patron of a Thespian already mentioned, Polykratides, son of Anthemiôn (IThesp 412), who belongs to the most prominent local family. He, or another Taurus, is also the patron of four freedmen with Roman onomastic formulae (IThesp 425). Finally the wife of a Taurus, Cornelia, is given a statue by the city (IThesp 413). But the most striking feature about Taurus is that he receives a cult: nine little cippi bearing the inscription Theou Taurou provide evidence for this cult (IThesp 72–80). According to Roesch (1982: 181 and n. 180), they are not altars (for which this would be an excessive number), but horoi (boundaries) for a sanctuary. There is also an agôn (competition) called the ‘writing of an enkômion for Taurus’ during the Mouseia, around AD 20 (IThesp 174), and the same Polykratides appears to be the priest of his cult (IThesp 412).

That leads to my second point: that the Thespians are the champions in Boeotia of the cult of Rome and, later on, of the civic version of the imperial cult in Boeotia (see Kantirea (2007), passim). It is not possible to cite all the inscriptions, but the cult of Rome appears in the agonistic catalogues of the Erōtideia kai Rhômaia, through the existence of an archiereus (chief priest) (Lysandros son of Polykratides: IThesp 374), and through the dedication of buildings (IThesp 426–7). The climax of the cult is reached between 20 bc and AD 20, and is associated with the very important local family of the Phileinoi (as one could call them, from the cognomen born by members of the family: see below).

As for the imperial cult, one must consider this alongside the celebration of the festivals, both the Erōtideia and the Mouseia (Manieri 2009: 313–433). After a decline during Augustan times, the latter competition flourished again during the Imperial period, when some eminent members of local circles took on the role of agonothetes, organizer of the festival: the importance of the position is visible in the fact that the agonothetes is mentioned before the eponymous archôn himself in some agonistic catalogues of the second half of the second century AD (IThesp 176; 178; 184). But one of the most striking facts is that the Erōtideia were originally associated with the Rhômaia, then with the Kaisareia; while the Mouseia were progressively linked with the Sebasteia, the Traianeia and the Hadrianeia, depending on the period (IThesp 358, first century AD: Mouseia Sebasteia and Erōtideia Kaisareia; IThesp 177, second half of the second century AD: megalà Traianeia Hadrianeia Sebastôia Mouseia).

Another manifestation of Thespiai’s relationship with the Emperors is the dedication of buildings: two stôai (porticoes) and perhaps a bouleuterion (council house), which are neither reused nor associated with another god, and which were probably built in the town itself. The first stôa was dedicated to the genos Sebastôn (IThesp 427). The second stôa and the bouleuterion were for the theoi Sebástoi and the oikôs Sebastôn (IThesp 426).

Beside the imperial cult, one must also mention the dedication of statues of Emperors. It should be noted that 40 per cent of the documents concerning Emperors in Boeotia come from Thespiai. They cover a huge time-span, from Augustus to Valentinian at the very end of the fourth century AD (IThesp 421–52), with special prominence for Hadrian (5 dedications: IThesp 433–7): the Emperor probably visited the city during the year 125, organized an Imperial hunt on Helikon, perhaps took part in the local contests, and took the time to have an epigram engraved in honour of Eros, alluding to his beloved Antinoós (IThesp 270). Such a concentration of documents gives us some idea of the spatial renewal of the place from the Imperial period onwards. Judging by the find-spots of all these inscriptions, the two main places in which they were put up were the Sanctuary of the Muses, the Mouseion, and the agora of the city: we have to imagine these locations crowded with statues. As already mentioned, Augustus himself had his own bronze statue in the Thespian Mouseion (IThesp 421), but the city is one of the rare Boeotian poleis to have erected ‘dynastic monuments’, like the huge curved base in honour of Augustus’s family (IThesp 422–3) that was placed there between 17 and 12 bc. That base supported six statues: of Livia, wife of Augustus, of Agrippa, his
wife Julia (Augustus’ daughter), and their daughter Agrippina the Elder, and finally of Gaius and Lucius Caesar, the adopted sons of Augustus. This monument was obviously linked with cult of the Domus Augusta (Hurlet 1997: 440–1). Another very large monument is the base related to Emperors of the fourth century AD (IThesp 448–50) that was probably erected on the agora, since the pieces were found in the Kastro. This base was probably originally dedicated to the Muses and was then reused, first for Constantine, then for his sons, and then for Valentinian and Valens: each statue would replace the other.

The most intense phase of dedication and consecration in general is, however, the Augustan one. This is a very dynamic period for the city, in contrast with other Boeotian poleis. Slightly later, around the middle of the first century AD, the Thespians even had a copy of the famous Eros made with an epigram written on it by a wealthy poetess from Thessalonike, Herennia Procula (IThesp 271): that copy could have been either a replacement for the missing statue (taken away by Nero: so Gutzwiller 2004: 387) or a miniature of it (Knoepfler 2006: n°205). According to the epigraphic evidence, there is also a great deal of wealth in this city during the first two centuries AD, which could be linked one way or another to the fact that Thespiai maintained its freedom: under Hadrian, in AD 125, we know of P. Pactumeius Clemens, legatus divi Hadriani Athenis Thespiis Plateis item in Thessalia, ‘at Athens, Thespiai and Plataia as well as in Thessaly’ (CIL viii 7059), who is a corrector in charge of the free cities (Fournier 2010: 392 n. 648; 480–1). This culminates, as a famous decree records (IThesp 37), in the participation of the young people of the city in a military expedition under Marcus Aurelius around AD 170 against either the Costoboci or, more probably, the Germans, a war for which enormous levies were necessary (Jones 1971). This decree gives them, and their parents while they are away, the right to receive distributions and honours of bouleutic rank, at a time when the boulê (the Council) has been reduced to the equivalent of an order,9 and the real political power lies in the hands of a few people, including the prótoi (‘first men’) of the city mentioned in the text, even though the demos is still associated in the decision with the boulê and the magistrates (archontes).

The people: Greek Romans and Roman Greeks

The first point under this heading concerns individuals and communities from Rome and Italy installed in Boeotia (Müller 2002). The major phase of settlement of Italians or Romans in Thespiai is between 50 BC and AD 30, as in the rest of Boeotia, although the presence of Italians is sporadically attested in other cities well before the middle of the first century BC. One must underline the fact that there is a link between the names of the negociatores (large-scale businessmen) attested on Delos at the end of the second and the beginning of the first century BC, and those attested in Thespiai after the middle of the first century BC; it is probable that some of them moved to Boeotia after the fall of Delos.

The first negociator we know about in our city has already been mentioned: Titus Manlius, recommended by Cicero to Ser. Sulpicius Rufus in 46 BC (Fam. xiii. 22). We cannot tell what kind of business he was involved in, nor whether he was actually living in Thespiai. In all likelihood, he did not reside there, as the city was surely insufficient for a man whom Cicero describes as a bonus vir (of high standing). Titus Manlius probably had freedmen working for him. Later, under Tiberius, one can probably identify some of his family in Corinth (Spawforth 1996: 172). Soon after this episode, one can talk of a real community of negociatores established in Thespiai. In two dedications (IThesp 352 and 373), dating to the last third of the first century BC, we find the phrase Rhômaioi hoi pragmateuomenoi en Thespiais, a translation of the Latin: Romani qui negotiantur in Thespiis. But the most important evidence for this community is the Latin inscription dated to December AD 14 (IThesp 425), listing a series of 19 people, most of whom are Romans. This inscription is a dedication, probably of an altar, and should be connected to the deification of Augustus. In terms of business, what is interesting in this inscription is that the individuals are in groups of two or three from the same family, bearing the same nomen. That could indicate that they form little family businesses where the freedmen and probably the slaves act for their patron, whether resident or not. In this list two groups especially attract attention: the Statilii and the Castricii.

The nomen Statilius is linked with the famous Statilii Tauri about whom we have already spoken: the four people bearing this name in the Latin inscription (IThesp 425) are all freedmen of a Statilius Taurus. That suggests that they may have chosen to settle down in Thespiai while visiting the city with their patron. The nomen Castricius is the second prominent group; it is especially well attested in Boeotia, always in Thespiai, with two exceptions. The family seems to be organized around a free-born Aulus Castricius Auli filius Modestus. This nomen is well attested in Rome, in Campania (around Puteoli, Pompei, Naples and Capua), and in the eastern Mediterranean, especially in Delos in the first century BC, but also in Asia Minor. In Cicero’s writings, bearers of the name seem
to specialize in lending money. This might have been the case in Thespiai too. But their negotium could also be connected with the geographical situation of Thespiai, which had a good port, Kreusis, often used by Roman commanders. In any case, the phrase Rhômaitoi hoï pragmateuomenoi en Thespias certainly means that these people had a special status among other foreign residents, one that could be useful in case of a judicial problem with the local Greeks and allowed them to appeal to the Roman governor (Fournier 2010: 314–18). There is a probable link between this community and an agoranomos (clerk of the market) whose name, Ingenuus, is recorded on a measure clay for liquids that shows a Hermes in a small stamped medallion (Schachter and Marchand 2012: 295–9, dated to the ‘Early Imperial Period’). They also had their own gymnasium, built for them (IThesp 373) by a member of one of the leading local families, Polykratides. The Romans appear here as having their own private place of training, but also as dependent on the generosity of the local Greek euergetes.

This gymnasium might well be identified with another, referred to in a list of men as the ‘upper gymnasium’ (IThesp 136), where three people named archontes are seen directing the institution. One interesting problem is to know why this gymnasium is called the ‘upper’ one; it was perhaps situated in the later extension of the city (see Chapter 4, p. 183). Probably also from one of the Thespian gymnasia come different lists of names, including Roman names, from the end of the first century bc and beginning of the first century ad, which can be called ‘ephebic lists’, and are the later avatar of the military catalogues. I will give only two examples, one written on eight different blocks (IThesp 237–39) and a fourth in an agonistic catalogue of the second century ad (IThesp 192). Spawforth (1995) has shown that the patron Lucius Vibullius belonged to the well-known colonial family of the L. Vibullii, established in Corinth, who might have acquired their citizenship from L. Vibullius Rufus, a praefectus for Pompey during the civil war of 49–48 bc (MRR II 271). The main difficulty lies in identifying the kind of economic business the Vibullii were undertaking in Boeotia: Spawforth suggested that it could be linked with the trading of fish, because this early Imperial dedication is also made at the village of Hyle; this is not, however, the Hyle linked with the lakes Kopais and Iliki (former Kephises), but is to be located in the south-western vicinity of Thespiai (Schachter 2007: 374).

Relations between Thespiai and Corinth are even better attested in the second century ad. A not negligible number of Roman citizens from Corinth are present in the agonistic catalogues of the Erôtideia and Mouseia. These competitions boomed in the second and early third centuries ad. At some point during the second century, both festivals turned into thematic competitions, in which the winners were given money prizes instead of a leaf-crown. This was a device to attract the big stars, contrary to any previous agonistic rules! (Strasser 2003: 271–3). The links between Thespiai and Corinth are not so surprising, as the Isthmian and the Thespian competitions have quite a similar profile. Some of the victors even have a double ethnic: they are said to be Corinthian and Thespian.

The second point under this heading concerns the Greek elites integrated in the civitas Romana, a phenomenon that completely overlaps the previous point in terms of chronology. The phenomenon is visible through a certain type of gentilicial (or middle) names (Müller 1996c), nomina that are taken either from eminent Roman generals, or from imperial gentilia.

In the first centuries bc and ad, before the principate of Claudius, very few Greeks get Roman citizenship. One of these freshly Romanized individuals is a limenarchos of Kreusis, Thespiai’s harbour, around the beginning of the first century ad: Dekmos Stertinios Eisiôn (IThesp 266 & 426). In Thespiai, we can establish a link between Marcus Licinius Crassus, honoured with a statue just after 29 bc (IThesp 403) and the presence of a man bearing the same nomen in the ephetic list of the ‘upper gymnasium’ (IThesp 136); there may also be a relationship between two Markoi Antonioi who appear as archontes in the same list, and the name of the famous triumvir. But nothing can be held for sure here. Some of the nomina (Vipsanii, Pompeii, Cornelii) are still present in the second century ad, which is
merely a sign of the transmission of the names through different branches of the families. For the early period (first century BC and first half of the first century AD), however, the leading Greek families display neither the duo nor tria nomina of Roman form; on the contrary, they seem to prize other Greek citizenships more. A really striking feature is that even the members of those families who establish firm and precocious links with the Romans, e.g. the Phileinoi, do not acquire the civitas Romana until quite a late date, in fact under the Flavians. Generally speaking, from the time of Claudius until Caracalla’s edict giving citizenship to all free men in the Empire (AD 212), each of the imperial gentilia are abundantly represented, with the exception of the Ulpii. Most frequently represented here are the Flavii (27) and the Aurelii (12). The latter nomen, unlike that of the Flavii, presents no special profile in Thespiae. One could explain this by a particularly generous policy on the part of the Flavian emperors; but in fact the most honoured emperors in Thespiae are not the Flavii, but the Julio-Claudians. The large number of bearers of this nomen is mostly due to the transmission of citizenship within prominent families.

Let us look now more closely at a particular family already mentioned: the Flavii Phileinoi. There are three important phases in the history of this family. The first falls between the first century BC and the 70s of the first century AD: during this period, the most important character is Polykratides son of Anthemiôn, who is close to the Romans and a strong link between the community of negotiatores and the city. He is the one who had Statilius Taurus as a patron. The second step comes in the acquisition of Roman citizenship by Mondôn, father of Phileinos, the friend of Plutarch; at that time, the family was prominent in Thespiae and in Boeotia at large. The most important family member is Titos Flavios Phileinos, Plutarch’s friend, who lived at the end of the first and the beginning of the second century AD. As we can see from Plutarch’s writings and especially the Dialogue on the Pythia’s oracles (394e), he was a member of his circle. Finally, and this is the third step, the first member of the family to enter the senatorial order is another Titos Flavios Phileinos, at the end of the second century AD: he is said in the sources to be kratistos and lamprotatos (‘highest and most illustrious’). His career took him far beyond his original city, mostly to the East: he was a quaestor in Asia, a tribune of the plebs, a praetor, a legate of the proconsul of Cyprus and a proconsul in Lycia-Pamphylia some time after AD 180. With this Phileinos, the family definitely gets beyond the bounds of Boeotia. This is shown by the marriage of his daughter Flavia Phileina with Markos Aurelios Olympiodoros, who is a descendant of the

Notes

1 Some effort has been devoted, mainly by D. Knoepfler but also by myself, to correcting some of the major chronological points in respect of Boeotian inscriptions, but these improvements have not been recorded in the online corpus. So the dates given there should not be trusted without further checking.

2 There are examples of this at Chorsiai, not far from Thespiae: cf. the Chorsieian decree (Migeotte 1984: n°10), which should be dated after 171 (see most recently Müller 2011b: 353).

3 Exempted, according to Cicero, ‘because it was a dedication’: ‘ille L. Mummius, cum Thespiadas (…) ceteraque profana ex illo oppido signa tolleret, hunc marmorem Cupidinem, quod erat consecratus, non attiguit’. Knoepfler 1997 has argued that, contrary to what Cicero says, Mummius had in fact stolen this statue, although
Pausanias writes that Gaius was the first to steal it, before Claudius gave it back and Nero stole it again. I am not completely convinced by this argument, resting as it does mostly on a text of Strabo (ix. 2. 25), who uses the past tense to describe the situation in Thespiai and therefore should refer to a situation around the mid-second century BC.

4 See Shear 2007 for parallel examples in Athens, although the context there is argued to be different in that, for the Romans (and the Athenians bestowing honours), the reuse of bases was a way of suggesting that ‘the Romans were, in fact, Athenians of some sort’, that they had ‘Roman fortunes’, but were ‘Greek characters’. In this case, anyway, it is the Athenians themselves who are granting the honours. On statues and bases, see most recently Ma 2013.

5 On the Mouseia, see Manieri 2009: 313–40 and 347–423. For the most recently discovered catalogue of the Late Hellenistic Period: Schachter and Marchand 2012: 287–92.


7 This is also the case with Salganeus, a chôrion in Tanagra’s territory (ix. 2. 9). In each case, the word could even designate a fortified location used as a defensive outpost on the territory, but without excluding the possibility of a small settlement at the same location.

8 The date here proposed derives from the stemma that can be established for the family.

9 According to Hamon (2001: xx), this is a phenomenon that starts in Late Hellenistic times, mostly from the first century BC on, and grows during the Imperial Period.

10 Kalliontzis 2011: 316–22, who also provides (322–7) a concise synthesis of all these late Hellenistic and Early Imperial monuments.