Two Unpublished Magical Amulets in Ankara

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Introduction

From earliest times, the great majority of protective amulets (phylacteries) actually applied in the Graeco-Roman world, mainly for healing specific ailments but also for protection against unspecified dangers, were made of perishable or degradable substances such as herbs or animal-parts, which have not survived.¹ In the Archaic and Classical periods in Greece, however, some, especially those for pregnant or nursing women, children and other endangered groups such as sex-workers and epileptics, were made of durable substances, including shells, bone, leather, clay or glass beads, or metal.² The aim here was always implicit, its recognition depending upon the type of non-verbal consensus typically found in small-scale communities. At all times, however, ritualised utterances might be employed, by themselves or in addition to gestures, such as spitting into one’s chest, for the same purpose to allay an immediate danger.³ With the hesitant spread of literacy in the Greek world, more formal ritualised utterances, such as the Getty hexameters, probably from Selinous (Sicily) and analogous documents from Himera and Epizephyrian Locri, or the Phalasarna text from Crete, intended to protect groups, property or farms, might by the later fifth and fourth century BCE, even be inscribed on lead.⁴

¹ Martini 1977; Scarborough 1986; Gaillard-Seux 1998a; Ducourthial 2003; Faraone 2010; Bonet 2014.
² Gaillard-Seux 1998b; Dasen 2003. Commonly employed substantives include: περίαμμα, περίαπτον, φυλακτήριον (first attested in the early Empire), προβασκάνιον, amuletum, fascinum/-us, ligaturum (post-Classic). The most usual way of referring to the social use of such objects, however, was by means of a verb, e.g. περιάπτω, προσδῶ, περιδεσμῶ/εύω, φέρω (especially of stones), (ad)alligare (often as a past participle passive), affigere, or simply porto, habeo, gero ...: Gordon 2019, 699. There have been attempts to distinguish between amulets and phylacteries, but the terms are used here as synonyms.
³ Faraone 2009.
⁴ Hexameters: Faraone – Obbink 2013; Himera: SEG 50 (2000) 1001; Locri: SEG 49 (1999) 1360; Phalasarna: SEG 42 (1992) 818 (mid-4th- mid-3rd cent. BCE). On the development of the Ephesia grammata, Bernabé Pajares 2013.

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1. Martini 1977; Scarborough 1986; Gaillard-Seux 1998a; Ducourthial 2003; Faraone 2010; Bonet 2014.
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In the Hellenistic, but more especially the Roman period, however, new sources of information, increased personal wealth, especially in cities, and intensified craft-specialisation prompted extensive recourse, not merely to more durable substances, including valuable ones such as precious metals and semi-precious stones, but also to the use of writing as a means of defining intentions and amplifying claims. In other words, as C. A. Faraone has recently made clear, it was the media signifying the desire for protection that changed more or less radically in this period, mainly thanks to the spread of scriptural literacy and the desire to communicate the intention of such objects as a social act. A further development was a tendency to simplify rituals of protection, which the inscribed objects often simply replaced. Perhaps even more important than the mere increase in the media available was the development of more or less detailed written recipes, of the kind that survive in Pliny’s *Natural History*, the Greek magical papyri, the *Lithika*-tradition, the *Cyranides*, or the late-antique medical writers, and their collection into compendia or collections, which served to communicate the relevant knowledge to an extent and with an accuracy rarely achieved in the world of Archaic and Classical cities and villages.

Faraone’s insistence on the interrelationship of materiality and literacy in driving the expansion of amuletic forms is extremely valuable. By implication, the need to acquire knowledge of a range of potential media and especially access to literacy played into the hands of ritual specialists, who found in this form of materiality an ideal means of signalling their superior expertise with regard to ritual communication with the other world. The production of textual phylacteries on precious metals such a gold and silver sheet is an excellent illustration of the experimental dynamism of such claims by such specialists, a development which at the same time offered wealthier clients an investment that fitted their own sense of their social status. Conceptually, however, we can distinguish the two trajectories. On the one hand, as we see from the impressive numbers of Christian textual amulets on papyrus and parchment, a tradition that continues well into the medieval period, the text, especially if already sanctioned elsewhere in the discursive field, might take decisive precedence over the material base. On the other, the materiality of the base may be accorded a major role in establishing the authority sought by a specific amuletic tradition. To these we may add a third form of communication, of major importance in the present context, the expressive use of iconography.

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5 Faraone 2018; also Kotansky 1991.
6 On the *Lithika* literature, see Hopfner 1926; Halleux 1970-71; Nagy 2012, 85-87. Extracts from the text ascribed to Socrates and Dionysius, *Orphei lithika kai kerygmata*, are translated in Faraone 2018, 274-75. After the conquest of the Achaemenid Empire by Alexander, the Babylonian science of stones had a direct influence upon the Greek tradition of *Lithika*, through Sudines (*šum-iddin*) and Zachalias, and an indirect one thanks to the numerous ‘Magian’ books of *mirabilia* known to us mainly through Pliny Hist. Nat. 36: Halleux – Schamp 1985, xiii-xxiv.
7 E.g. the development of the ‘vanishing act’ on amuletic gems (progressive subtraction of the letters of a magical name or word in order to indicate a visual imperative): Faraone 2013.
8 Kotansky 1994; 2019.
9 De Bruyn 2010; 2017; medieval: Skemer 2006; 2015.
10 In general, see Frankfurter 2019; specifically, on amuletic stones: Zwierlein-Diehl 1992, 41-49; Mastrocinque 2011; Dasen – Nagy 2019, 410-411.
The tradition that most perfectly combines all three of these features is that of ‘magical amulets’, the tradition to which the two amulets here presented belong. This is an exclusively modern term defined structurally by material, shape and engraving, and formally by the co-presence of image, text and unrecuperable signs (charaktêres).\(^{11}\) The category is however polythetic, inasmuch as one or two of these criteria may be absent: for example, the second case here concerns a gem that lacks an image but has appropriate structural features and two of the three formal criteria. In historical terms, the genre represents a fusion of the Hellenistic Greek glyptic tradition in jewellery, based on the intaglio, and the weighty tradition of amulet-production, largely for the protection of mummies, in Pharaonic Egypt.\(^{12}\) The great majority of these amulets were intended to be worn on the body as ring-stones or as pendants. It is estimated that at least 5000, if not more, examples of this type of magical amulet are currently held in museums around the world.\(^{13}\) The tradition was clearly created in late-Hellenistic Egypt but reached its full development only in the second-third century CE, and evidently spread from there to glyptic centres in the eastern Mediterranean and perhaps also in the West.\(^{14}\) As far as one can tell from museum catalogues, which are not very reliable as regards true provenances (since the great majority of known examples have always derived from the antiquities market), relatively few such amulets have been found in the area of modern Turkey,\(^{15}\) although it is quite likely that many of the items that came onto the European antiquities market in the late nineteenth century actually derived from the illegal plundering of tombs in western Turkey at the time of the ‘Myrrhine craze’ of the 1880s. Generally speaking, the images engraved on the stones are of two types: traditional or semi-traditional Greek or Egyptian divine images, such as Zeus, Herakles, Aphrodite, Isis, Sarapis and Harpocrates, and new schemes that can sometimes be traced to Egyptian theological and astronomical sources.\(^{16}\) Major exceptions are the Anguipede scheme, as in the first case here, and the Mounted Rider motif, especially Solomon, which is evidently Judeo-Syrian, if ultimately based on a Classical Greek model.\(^{17}\) A major feature of the genre is its dynamic capacity for innovation and variation, drawing upon the transculturality of the contemporary magical tradition, with its various ‘dialects’.\(^{18}\) In the early days of learned study, in the Early Modern period, such amuletic gems were called ‘Basilidian’, for the Gnostic thinker Basilides, later

\(^{11}\) Nagy 2012, 206-210; 2015, 87-91; Dasen – Nagy 2019, 407. Charaktêres reject the limitation of script to a fixed set of forms (signifiants) but claim to retain a communicative intention, in that they supposedly forge a direct linguistic link with the Other World.

\(^{12}\) Fusion: Zwierlein-Diehl 2007, 210-212; Egypt: Müller-Winkler 1987.

\(^{13}\) The best overview is now to be gained through The Campbell Bonner Gem Database (Cbd): www2.szepmuveszeti.hu/talismans/, which currently carries almost 4800 gems with brief commentary.

\(^{14}\) A further well-known problem concerns post-antique efforts at continuing or amplifying the ancient tradition.

\(^{15}\) For example, the catalogue of the Yüksal Erimtan collection contains only two magical gems in our sense (Konuk – Arslan 2000, 190-91 nos. 166, 167 = Cbd 1149, 1150), the thousands of Zeugma seals likewise only two (very unusually, so far as we know, used as seals): Önal 2010 = Cbd 1573, 1574 (1574 is known from two impressions: Nagy 2019, 205, n. 183 with further references).

\(^{16}\) E.g. Bonner 1950; Nagy 2002a.

\(^{17}\) Cf. e.g. Philipp 1986; Zwierlein-Diehl 1992; Michel 2001; 2004; Mastrocinque 2014.

\(^{18}\) Nagy 2015, 214-15.
'Gnostic'; though there have been sporadic attempts to revive this term,¹⁹ it is adequate neither to the range of applications of these amulets nor to the diverse theological inspirations they draw upon.²⁰

The amulets

Both amulets published here are held by museum-collections in Ankara, but in neither case is the provenance known.²¹

1. Anguipede amulet with invocation of the names of God on the reverse (Fig. 1)

Erimtan Archeology and Arts Museum, Ankara.

Inv. No. 1232. Dimensions: 40 x 21 x 4 mm.

Material: Heliotrope (green jasper with red veining). Profile F4 (Henig-Whiting).

Original pendant setting in silver. On the reverse, a deep scratch partly obliterates the first letter of the inscription. Date: second or third century CE. Proposed no. in CBd: 4773.

Fig. 1

a) Obverse (Fig. 1a): Frontal view of the cock-headed Anguipede facing right and wearing a cuirass ('Muskelpanzer'), holding a long whip in his right hand, and shield in his left. The lower trunk is concealed by a tunic covering military pteryges, while the snake-legs incline in opposite directions.²² The shield is inscribed with the name ia/w (Iăw), the god of Israel.²³ The figure is

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¹⁹ Mastrocinque 2002; 2004; 2007 (more recently, however, he seems to have stopped using this term); Kotansky 2006, 69-70.

²⁰ Nagy 2012, 88-89; Dasen – Nagy 2019, 434-35.

²¹ Thanks are due to both Museums for permission to publish these items and for providing the photos.

²² For a general description of the scheme and its variants, see Nagy 2019, 189-191.
surrounded by seven stars (the seven ancient planets), indicating heaven, and characterise the
Anguipede as kosmokrator (master of the universe). The cutting is relatively skilled and the
details carefully delineated.

b) The reverse (Fig. 1b and 2) carries an inscription in Greek consisting simply, as so often, of
three common names of the God of Israel, found in various combinations in such magical amu-
lets:

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[Ε?]ιῶ,
Σαβαώ,
Ἀδωνή.
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The cutter has begun the list too far to the right and therefore had to squeeze the W of IAW into
the corner. He seems also to have begun the word with an E (?), but then partly erased it. 25 Ἀδωνή for Ἀδωναί is excessively rare, found only, so far as we know, in Mastrocinque no.214
(an astrological talisman), but cf. Delatte 1927, 474 l.26 Ἀδωναί (D. accents Ἀδωναί), from the
‘Magical Treatise of Solomon’ contained in Cod. Par. 2419 (f.218 verso), XV cent.

Commentary

a) Obverse. The origins of the Anguipede scheme have always provoked discussion. Almost two
decades ago, Árpád Nagy, combining a number of earlier suggestions, proposed that it is an
iconic rebus (a pictogram) representing one name of the Hebrew god on the basis of the Hebrew
stem ṣbr. Depending on the vowels inserted, this stem can mean a cockerel, the male body, a
warrior, the (snake-legged) Giants, and the adjective mighty (gvurah), yielding the name The

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23 Another gem (brown glass) in the Yüksel Erimtan collection also shows the Anguipede with his
shield inscribed IAΩ (CBd 1149). There are numerous examples of the shield carrying the same legend,
see e.g. CBd nos. 42, 119, 587, 593, 594, 601, 620, 624, 841, 1201, 1368, 1947, 2336, 2475, 2477, 2481, 2545,
2738, 2742, 3146, 3486. No. 2735 (old engraving) has aiw/ai in the shield, cf. 2742 (aiw); 119 (iaew); 3482
(iaw); 1734 and 2625 have iaw in the field round the Anguipede; 1647 has φρη in the shield, i.e. Φρη,
the later Greek name of the Egyptian sun-god Re (cf. Nagy 2019, 198). Nagy 2019, 193 found 161 exam-
ples of iaw written on the shield; CBd lists 197 examples of iaw on the shield, in the field or on the reverse
of cock-headed Anguipede amulets.

24 Cf. CBd 589, 993, 1453, 1758, 2477, 2740; 2475 and 3488 have just one star, 1369 two.

25 The form EIAW is very occasionally found on magical amulets, e.g. CBd 415; EWAI: 2172, cf. PGM
13a 2 (Byzantine, Christian). Variations on the name, though not this one, are extremely common; Nagy
2019, 196 n.112. The surviving traces do not however readily suggest any Greek letter, and the treatment
of the surviving serif is noticeably different from any of the others in the text, however we explain the fact
Mighty One (ha-gvurah). This solution has been disputed, but Nagy has recently published an important defence of his claim, based on a fairly complete statistical survey of the 708 examples in the Campbell-Bonner database, as against the 362 listed by Simone Michel in 2004. His explanation that the Anguipede represents the God of Israel can now surely be accepted as the most plausible account. Nevertheless, this is does not necessarily mean that the scheme was not also capable of inspiring divergent individual evocations. The wide scatter of the 87 more or less-established provenances (only three examples, all of them late-antique, have certainly been found in Egypt) suggests that individual items may well have been produced all over the Empire wherever there was a glyptic workshop. In only 54 cases does the specialist indicate the intended purpose of the amulet, sometimes for healing but also for many others.

b) Reverse. The writing on the reverse comprises three names of the God of Israel: Ιάω (Iaô = Yahweh/Yahuda); Σαβαω (= Sabaô(th)), Άδωναί (=Adônai). A fair minority (67) of Anguipede amulets carry just the iconographic scheme and the names of God, as here. We can find no parallel among them to this collocation on the reverse. In the few cases in which all three names appear on Anguipede gems, they are found in the field of the obverse, accompanied by other names such as Abrasax or Semesilamp(s), or they are distributed between the field on the obverse and the reverse, or a combination of these. The identical grouping to our case on the reverse is however found on a very small number of other types, and also occurs in the magical papyri, though again often complemented by other names, especially Abrasax.

2. Chalcedony amulet requesting protection from danger (Fig. 3)

Museum of Anatolian Civilizations, Ankara.
Inv. 35-301-97. Dimensions: 42 x 37 x 4 mm.
Material: brownish-yellow chalcedony (cf. CBd 1712). Profile A4 (Henig-Whiting).
Date: second or third century CE. Slight irregularities on the rim where the stone was removed from its setting.

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26 Nagy 2002.
27 E.g. by Bohak 2008, 197-198.
28 Nagy 2019; Michel 2004, 239-249 + others mentioned elsewhere.
29 Nagy 2019, 203-207. Twenty-six of them (23%) were found in the Judeo-Syrian area.
30 Nagy 2019, 200.
31 CBd 605: Adwnai, Iaw, Sabawθ.
32 E.g. CBd 587 (field: Iaw, Σαβαωωο; rev. Adwnai; Semesilamps); 3488 (this order, but Michael and the seven vowels added).
33 CBd 594 (field: Iaw, Sabaw; rev. Abrasax; Adwnai).
34 CBd 414; 1831; PGM IV 1485; VIII 96, also 'Christian': 21.29; complemented: e.g. PGM III 76, VII 220-21; XII 285; XXXVI 350.
The obverse contains six lines of Greek and an additional line containing three rather unimaginative *charaktêres*.

There are at least two possible ways of resolving this text:

1) Γαῖα (καὶ or τε) Ἡ(λιος), σ/ώσατε ἀπ/ὸ παντὸς κι/{ι}νδύνου Διο/ν ὃν ἔτεκε/ν Χρυσηΐς, tr. “Earth and sun (?), save from all danger Dion whom Chryseis bore”, or

2) Γαῖα {η} σ|ώσατε ἀπ|ὸ παντὸς κ|ινδύνου Δίο|ν ὃν ἔτεκε|ν Χρυσηΐς, “Earth, save (pl.) Dion son of Chryseis from every danger”.

As regards the final ‘letter’ of l.3, the photo makes clear that the supposed Ι is not a mistake or even a letter, since it is too far away from the preceding Κ to be considered as such, and not properly aligned. It is rather to be understood as damage caused by the gouging of the stone out of the ring that once held it, or as a slip of the wheel. It would therefore be best not to print [ι] in the text but ignore it.

**Commentary**

Ll.1-2: The first two lines present several difficulties. An appeal to Earth in a protective amulet would be extremely unusual. Jaime Curbera suggested (pers. comm.) to one of the authors that the following Η might stand for Ἡλιος. This would be more convincing if one could cite parallels both for such an abbreviation and for the omission of καὶ or τε. On the other hand, the suggestion does raise the possibility that the appeal is based on oath- or asseverative formulae, which often combine sun and earth,

35 E.g. *Iliad* 3, 276-78, 19, 258-59; Aesch. *Supp.* 890-94; Sept. 16-20; Eur. *Hipp.* 601; *Electr.* 867; *IG* II/III² 12568/9 (Athens, 160-175 CE); E. Bernand, *I. métriques de l’Égypte* (1969) 175. 9-10.

36 Cf. already Cumont 1923; Nilsson 1962, 508-09 etc.
appropriation. Note the predominantly poetic form Gaia, attested by numerous verse funerar-
ies, but unusual in normal invocatory contexts. Note however that the P in Χρυσηΐς (l.6) is
quite similar to the first letter of the text, which likewise has a small transverse bar at the angle of
the Π.
The great advantage of reading (καὶ) Ἦ(λιε), however, is that it would explain the plural form
σώσατε. An alternative hypothesis runs as follows. It seems clear from the very poor mise-en-
page that the cutter was either illiterate or knew virtually no Greek, and must have been copying
from a text, presumably written out in a single line in front of him, so that he had to decide him-
self on the word-division. Given the word σώσατε, this original text must have appealed to at
least two deities. Because the surface available here was so small and the cutter was using the
wheel (‘Flachperlzeiger’), it was necessary for this commission to shorten the text. The supervi-
sor of the workshop erased part of the original text, but unfortunately forgot both to erase H and
to change σ|ώσατε to σώσον. The H might thus originally have been the first letter of an alterna-
tive name of Gaia (ἡ καί ...), or of Ἦλιε followed by the name of another divinity common in
such contexts, such as Selene, Ouranos, rivers or water-sources.

Ll. 2-4: A further hint at a written antigraph is the manner in which the wish for protection is
expressed, which recalls e.g. the recipe/amulet P.Mich. inv. 193 = PGrMag LXXI.6-8: ... φύλαξόν
μοι ἀπὸ παντὸς κακοῦ πράγματος, δὲν ἔτεκεν ἡ δίνα.

As for the reference to protection from danger, the text seems to imply a deliberate syncopation
of a fuller catalogue of wishes, such as that found in Cyranides 1.7 ll. 115-20, extolling the effica-
cy of amulets based on the plant ἔρρυγος or ἔρρυγιον in ensuring success and protection: ὁ γὰρ
φορῶν τοῦτο τὸ φυλακτήριον ἔξει ἀγαθὰ ὡς ὃν προσδοκᾶ ἀπὸ τοῦ θεοῦ, καὶ ἄσται ἐνίμιος
πανταχοῦ, νικῶν ἐν πᾶσιν ἔργοις καὶ λόγοις, ῥυόμενος ἀπὸ παντὸς κινδύνου καὶ διαμόνω καὶ
φαρμακείας καὶ πάσης κακουργίας, καὶ ἀπλῶς εἰπείν, πάντα τὰ κακὰ ἀποστρέφει, πάντα δὲ τὰ
ἄγαθα προξενεῖ. Another verbal parallel is offered by [Hipp.] Ἐρμηνεία, Lex. 1: ... καὶ
φυλακτήριον ἐστὶν παντὸς κακοῦ, κινδύνου, πολέμου, θαλάττης, μαγιῶν. The ‘Orphic’ Lith.
kerygm. 20.19-23 offers a similar promise: Ἐκ τε τὰς πολεμίως καὶ μάχης ἀβλαβῆ τὸν φοροῦντα
dιαφυλάττεσθαι καὶ μακρὰν δὲ τινι κατ’ ἔρημον πορείαν, καὶ φυλακτήριον εἶναι καὶ
παντὸς κακοῦ ἀποτρόπαιον, καὶ κινδύνους δὲ διαδιδράσκει ληστῶν. Analogous formulae in the
Graeco-Egyptian formularies are almost always directed against malign spirits or their manifes-
tations; general protection against danger seems to be characteristic rather of the lithic tradition.

Ll. 4-6: The name Dios is common in central and eastern Asia Minor (LGPN Vc, 122). Chryseis,
derived from the Greek word for gold, occurs on an inscription from Neoclaudiopolis in

37 CBd lists no magical amulet addressed to Gè or Gaia, and Gaia is never invoked in the extant magi-
cal papyri.
38 Cf. the Athenian cult of Gè Themis (IG II/III2 5130.9-10; more loosely, Diod. Sic. 3.2.1; Plut. Quaest.
conviv. 704b9-10.
39 This might justify reading Παῖα, which would turn the text into an invocation of Rhea/Mêter, who is
addressed in Hymn. Orph. 14.12-14 as σωτήριος, and asked to ensure the votaries’ prosperity and protect
them from illness. Preisendanz’ Index indeed lists Ποιή as a divine name, but the text at PGM VII 385
prints ποιή as a vox magica. We therefore doubt that this reading can be admitted here.
40 Cf. Nilsson 1967, 141-142.
Paphlagonia (LGPN Vc, 451). It of course alludes to the daughter of Chryses in the Iliad, who was taken as part of his booty by Agamemnon.41

L. 5-6: The specification of the client’s mother is a clear reference to a standard practice of Graeco-Egyptian magic. Even though the address to Gaia implies a quite different, non-Egyptian religious context, the author of the text, both by using this device and by resort to the (banal) charaktêres, has tried to increase the illocutionary force of the amulet, no doubt to compensate for the fact that there is no image on what might have been the recto, either because the client could not afford to pay more or because the workshop disposed of no appropriate model designs.

L.7: The charaktêres.

The second and third of these are among the most frequent forms of these signs.42 Δ is rather less common but still among the 32 basal signs in this system. Magical amulets carrying only charaktêres (excluding Chnoubis-signs and KKK) on one face are not uncommon, but are outnumbered by combinations of voces and charaktêres (or vowel signs).43 But a mere set of three common items suggests that the composer of this amulet was no great expert.

Conclusion

The two magical amulets published here constitute a small addition to the rather small number of such items known to have originated in Roman Asia Minor, even though the precise provenances are not known for certain. The Anguipede heliotrope, though a fine example, is not in itself very significant, since it belongs to by far the largest single type of these amuletic gems. The aniconic chalcedony, on the other hand, despite its poor handling and mise-en-page, is more interesting, in that it apparently appeals to a poetic Gaia not otherwise known as a mighty protector from danger, except in cases of distress, where invocations usually also appeal to a range of other ‘elemental’ deities – a tradition that is, as Franz Cumont pointed out, rather well evidenced in Asia Minor – and seems to belong to a tradition of appeals for help against danger known not from the magical papyri but from the Lithic tradition represented especially by the Cyranides. At the same time, the author attempted to gain further authority by displaying awareness of the Graeco-Egyptian magical tradition identifying individuals by the mother rather than, as in the real world, the father.

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41 Iliad 1.369, 439 etc.
42 Gordon 2014, 257-272.
43 A small selection: CBd 58, 105, 338, 363, 389, 816, 975, 3928, 4017. The incidence of these in museum collections varies directly in proportion to the iterest in these signs of the original collectors. On the Chnoubis type, see Dasen – Nagy 2014.
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Öz

C.A. Faraone’ın muskalar üzerine son dönemlerde yaptığı çalışmalar bu tür eserlerin Yunan ve Roma Dönemlerinde hem kişileri hem de grupları çeşitli kötülüklerle karşı korumadaki stratejik öneminini işaret etmektedir. Yarı değerli taşlar üzerine kazılan ve kültürler arası güç gösterisini de vurgulama amacı taşıyan bu sihirli imgeler öncelikli olarak Geç Hellenistik dönem Mısır’ında ortaya çıkılsa da asıl güçlü yayılımını Doğu Akdeniz dünyasında Roma Dönemi’nde kazanmıştır. Bu çalışmada biri Anadolu Medeniyetleri Müzesi’nde diğeri ise Erimtan Arkeoloji ve Sanat Müzesi’nde yer alan iki sihirli amulet ele alınmaktadır. Birinci örneğin ön yüzde literatürde kafalı Anguipede olarak adlandırılan figürün iyi bir örneği bulunur. Aynı nesnenin arka yüzünde ise bu eserlerde sıkılaşılan Yahudi tanrılarının üç ismi bulunur: “Iao, Sabao, Adonai”. İkinci amulet herhangi bir ikonografi sunmamakla birlikte içerik olarak ilginç bir Grekçe yazita sahiptir: “Yeryüzü ve güneş (?), Chryseis’in dünyaya getirdiği Dion’u tüm tehlike- den korusunlar”. Söz konusu yazıt üç sihirli karakter ile sonlanmaktadır. Yazıt, tanrıça Gaia’nın bu nesneyi taşıyan kişiyi kötülüklerden koruma sına vurgu yapmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın iki önemli sonucu bulunmaktadır. Bunlardan biri Arpad M. Nagy tarafınd an organize edilen Campbell Bonner Database’nin dijital veri tabanına önemli bir katkı sunmaktadır. Çalışmanın diğer önemli sonucu ise söz konusu amuletlerin Türkiye’de daha fazla tanınmasına katkı sağlamaktır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Muska, Sihirli Gmeler, Anguipede (Abrasax), Gaia, Roma Dönemi.

Two Unpublished Magical Amulets in Ankara

Abstract

The recent synthesis of Roman-period amulets by C.A. Faraone has highlighted the significance of such artefacts in strategies of personal and group protection and healing throughout Greek and Roman antiquity. A specific group of such amulets, on semi-precious stones engraved with images, intercultural words of power, and special signs, was created in late-Hellenistic Egypt, but spread into the eastern Mediterranean mainly in the Roman period. This paper publishes two such magical amulets, one in the Museum of Anatolian Civilizations and the other in the Erimtan Museum of Archaeology and Art, both in Ankara. The first carries a fine example of the cock-headed Anguiped figure on the obverse, and, on the reverse, three of the Judaic names of God most commonly found on amulets in this tradition. The second gem offers no iconography but an interesting Greek inscription, followed by three special signs, appealing to the goddess Gaia (Earth) to protect the wearer. The paper has two main aims: to contribute to the aim of completing the digital Campbell Bonner Magical Gems database, organised by Á.M. Nagy in Budapest, which has taken the study of these gems to a new level, and to make these amuletic gems better known in Turkey.

Keywords: Amulet, Magical Gems, Anguipede, Gaia, Roman Period.