

festival], and at the national theatre a significant tableau was displayed which represented the *Sokols* releasing the spirit of the Slav from the fetters imposed by German influence.

Yet, curiously enough, political athletics is really a German invention. It was Friedrich Wilhelm Jahn, the *Turnvater*, as he is known to all Germans, who in the hour of Prussia's deepest degradation, following the disaster of Jena, hit upon gymnastic training as a means of bringing about his country's physical and spiritual rehabilitation. The enormous success of the *Turner* idea, with the part which it played in the overthrow of the Napoleonic domination, and in the later democratic movement within Germany, is well known. Our own country can show no parallel to the historical *Turnvereine*; but the advent of the college athlete into politics, most often as the guardian of the purity of the ballot in one of the Tammany districts, together with such phenomena as the election of a Milwaukee county judge on his star record as a halfback, is not a bad sign.

A COLLEGE UTOPIA: A FANTASY.

In commenting on the gift of several millions of dollars to Swarthmore on condition of abandoning intercollegiate contests in athletics, a correspondent has urged acceptance of the money, on the ground that some college should deliberately try the experiment of favoring scholarship as against athletics. The institution, he admits, "might lose popularity for a time," but he thinks that in the long run it might "attract the class of students which is most desirable." This revolutionary suggestion is worth more detailed consideration. We are aware that the great majority of our colleges must, as our correspondent says, "conform more or less to popular sentiment"; that the president, the faculty, and the trustees do not dare run counter to the feelings of the undergraduates and those noisy and half-baked young graduates who yell for the athletic teams and who are supposed to voice "alumni opinion." Yet we can conceive of a college—of course as an abstract ideal, impossible of realization—in which the authorities estimate the tumult and the shouting at their exact value, and steadily pursue the true aims of education. This academic Utopia, a mere dream, we shall describe more fully, fortified by President Woodrow Wilson's recent declaration that the world needs more dreamers. This conception of ours, we may add, is by no means original. It has been seriously presented in private conversation by an eminent educator, whose name we withhold in order to save him from ridicule.

For a site we should choose some city or town in New England, because traditions of culture there are so old and

well-established that an institution singly devoted to it may be less likely to excite hostility than elsewhere. Boston and its suburbs are out of the question; for Harvard already has a long start and overshadows everything. New Haven is also impossible: people there would not tolerate a college that was indifferent to the activities to which the Yale of to-day owes its chief distinction. The college which we have in mind might be built on the ruins, say, of Bowdoin, or of Dartmouth, Brown, Amherst, Williams, Trinity, or Wesleyan. Each of these colleges has a considerable "plant" which might, under certain conditions, be utilized for higher education.

The first of these conditions is a strong faculty. At present our smaller colleges are constantly raided by the larger, which offer higher salaries, better equipped libraries and laboratories, and in general wider opportunities for fame and usefulness. Every small college has a few able men who, because of inertia, loyalty, or social ties, are not to be tempted away; but in general the more promising members are steadily drained off. In order to hold them, the small college should pay salaries of \$5,000 or \$6,000, so that its teachers might buy books, might attend the annual meetings of scientific and literary associations, and might go to Europe in summer, to visit the Bodleian, the Bibliothèque Nationale, and the principal art galleries. Moreover, the professors should not be overburdened with teaching, but should have a fair chance for scholarly research and production. To maintain a large faculty on these terms would be impracticable; and accordingly the college would be forced to the plan which has had such admirable results in the Canadian colleges—the plan of giving comparatively few courses, and giving those well. This would mean cutting off most of the feebly conducted graduate work—leaving that to a real university—and concentrating energy and ability on the important courses in classics, modern languages, philosophy, history, economics, mathematics, and the sciences. The college would not be so big on paper, but its product might be far more completely finished. If a faculty made up of men of intellectual distinction could be held together for a generation we should have an institution unique in its kind—a Johns Hopkins for undergraduates.

That would, of course, imply a body of ambitious students, and a code of discipline based on that ambition. We would by no means bar athletics, college journalism, glee clubs, and social gatherings. All these have their place in a scheme of education; but they are, after all, subsidiary to the main issue. Such a college as we have sketched might lift from the shoulders of its teachers a great burden by sweeping away all committees on football, glee-club con-

certs, and junior promenades, and by telling the students to play and sing and dance as they pleased within the limits of good behavior. And with this further proviso: that no athlete or singer or any other student should receive the slightest favor in the way of extra absences or postponement of recitations or examinations. If any college faculty should maintain a fairly strict standard of scholarship, inevitably the social, athletic, and other activities would be subordinated to their proper place. As matters are now, the amount of study done by the average undergraduate is, as a Harvard committee reported in 1905, "discreditably small." Almost any man fit to go without a keeper can, with fair application, get through almost any college. But the place we have in mind is intended for youth of intelligence and aspiration. The rest, who constitute the bulk, can betake themselves to other colleges, where, to borrow a phrase from President Wilson, the authorities "put down the standard of entrance requirements to get men in, and then put down the standard of instruction to keep them in."

Our ideal college we have spoken of as a mere dream—and yet with the backing of a few millions from some one who can distinguish between genuine and imaginary discipline of the mind, one at least of the smaller New England colleges might translate the vision into reality. The college would definitely cease to compete with the others in athletics or in mere numbers. It would content itself with small but picked classes. It would educate them instead of allowing them to idle through four years. Such an enterprise would attract to its faculty scholars of the first rank, who are sick and tired of adapting their instruction to the requirements of football players and other incompetents, and of resisting appeals from the athletic committee to give the shortstop "one more chance." Such an enterprise would also appeal to youth who are worth teaching. If there were money to carry the undertaking through the period of depression, the panic occasioned by a sudden change of policy, it might accomplish great results.

*THE ROMANS IN ISTRIA AND DALMATIA.—I.

AUGUSTUS AND THE DISCOVERIES AT SALONA.

We generally associate this capital of Roman Dalmatia with the name of that distinguished Dalmatian, the Emperor Diocletian, greatest politician since Augustus. He was born at Salona, and when he abdicated in 305 A. D. returned here to live as a private citizen and grow cabbages in the magnificent castle villa which he built near by, in which the mediæval town of Spalato now nestles. Salona

*Other articles in this series appeared in the issues of the *Nation* for May 30, August 8, and September 5.

steadily grew until in the fourth and fifth centuries it was one of the largest cities of the Roman world, half as large as Constantinople; but if the scholars who have haughtily curled the lip at any references to the Roman Salona because they think it a city of the decadence, were to study its ruins without preconception, especially as they are now being laid bare, they would find reason to revise their opinion and recognize a large nucleus of the Augustan age and some remains even of the earlier Greek city, so well described in Dio's history of the civil war. I shall confine myself to the early Salona of Cæsar and Augustus and its share in the Augustan scheme.

Salona's history is Greek in its beginnings. The Greek colonists had crept up the coast line, settling on the islands. From the mother-colony on the island of Issa, the cities of Tragurion (modern Traù) and Epetion had been founded, and from them Salona, only a few miles southeast of Tragurion. The road connecting Salona with Tragurion, called the Via Muntta, with its Cyclopean retaining wall, is the oldest known Dalmatian road. The acropolis of the Greek Salona can still be traced; its walls, built perhaps at the time of the wars of the close of the third century B. C., between the Illyrians and the Romans, were then unprovided with towers, and Dio's text shows that temporary wooden towers were added for defensive purposes in the civil war. Already in 119 B. C. the consul Cecilius Metellus, in conducting his campaign against the Dalmatians, had made his winter quarters at Salona, showing its importance as a military centre. Still, in the vicissitudes of war, Salona fell into the power of the native Dalmatian forces and had to be captured several times by the Romans: in 78 B. C. by Casconius, in 39 by Asinius Pollio, and in 33 by Augustus himself.

After the battle of Philippi in 42, Augustus had received Illyria as part of his share of the West, and it was in the course of the campaigns of his lieutenant, Pollio, to subject it that Salona was delivered from the hostile Dalmatian occupants in 39 B. C. It was either then or toward 33 that Augustus raised it to the rank of a colony under the name of Iulia Martia Salona, and added a Roman city by the side of the Greek, with a wall surrounding the whole and connected with that of the Greek acropolis. Even thus enlarged, the city was relatively small. How it afterwards grew is marked by two successive additional systems of fortifications, one under Marcus Aurelius, in 176, when the army threw up walls to defend the city against the threatened irruption of the Marcomannian hordes, and another in the fourth and fifth centuries, when new bulwarks of exceptional strength and extent were built against the Goths by the Christian emperors.

Of the Augustan city there are almost certainly three relics, and probably others will appear during further excavations. They are: (1) the Porta Cæsarea and part of the walls; (2) the Amphitheatre; (3) the Aqueduct. In the present muddle of the city's topography, when nobody seems to have a tenable hypothesis as to what was the early and what the later portion of the ancient city, I think these landmarks may give the clue. The excavations

are now in full swing and of unusual interest, though so modestly done that they receive scant attention. The excavator is the indefatigable Monsignor Francesco Bulic, who is the guardian of Dalmatia's archaeological interests and has done so much to save Diocletian's palace at Spalato from disintegration and is still busy freeing it from modern accretions. Salona was practically unique in the completeness of the preservation of the ancient city not only throughout the Middle Ages, but even, except for the destruction of the wars of the thirteenth century, through the Renaissance. The great Christian basilicas subsisted by the side of the hardly injured theatre, amphitheatre, and walls of Roman times. In the seventeenth century, however, the Venetians decreed the final demolition of the old city to prevent its use by the Turks! The Venetians, as usual, laid sacrilegious hands on all its splendid buildings, for use in modern structures, even in Venice itself.

Modern excavations were carried on under Lanza (1821-1827) and Carrara (1842-1850), who uncovered parts of the theatre, the Porta Cæsarea, the Porta Andetria, the wall circuit, the amphitheatre, and a small part of the Christian antiquities. In 1874 excavations were resumed and had been continued intermittently and with small means before Bulic's energy found a better way. Until recently the chief results have been the uncovering of an imposing group of Early Christian monuments of all sorts belonging to the age when Salona had grown to be a metropolis. The greatest known open-air Christian cemetery with its multitude of stone sarcophagi and inscriptions was found, with a large basilica as its centre. This, of course, was outside the city walls; then there was uncovered the episcopal basilica within the city, with all its annexes—baptistry, confirmation hall, episcopal palace, and hospice. There is no group of Christian antiquities outside of Rome and Ravenna that carries one back so thoroughly to the high tide of the Christian life of the fourth and fifth centuries. We see here the very cemetery from which the bodies of the Dalmatian bishops and martyrs were taken in 640 to Rome to be buried in the Lateran Chapel of S. Venanzio on account of the barbarian invasion that threatened the existence of the Dalmatian cities.

But now the earlier ruins are claiming renewed attention, and this summer, as well as last autumn, the main centre of work has been the city gate called Porta Cæsarea, a structure already partly cleared in Carrara's excavations of 1849, but soon reentered without thorough investigation. During the past season the east face and part of the passage were freed, and several fragments of an Augustan inscription were found, as well as so many parts of the memberment that I hope to be able to reconstruct the design of this important structure. Far from being a work of the decadence of Roman art, this gate can now be proved to be in the style of the other large Augustan gates at Nîmes, Turin, Aosta, and Verona, most of which I have described in other articles. It is a small fortress with a central court. The gateways themselves are triple on each face, and the outside, or east face is flanked by two large projecting circular towers, which

have caused great confusion in the minds of archaeologists because they were separate from the walls in construction, were used as aqueduct reservoirs, and projected into the interior of the city. But what became the interior in the time of Marcus Aurelius, when the new and larger wall circuit was erected to enclose the east suburb, had been the exterior in the time of Augustus, when the city was less than half its later size. The city had expanded eastward in these two centuries of *pax romana*, when the old Augustan practice of fortifying the colonies had been totally abandoned. It was only when the great onslaught of the Marcomanni and Quadi came in 169 that it was necessary to reclassify this northern bulwark of the empire, enclosing the suburbs. The army itself has left inscribed records of how and when it did this work. In the new circuit the place of the old Porta Cæsarea was taken, much farther eastward, by the gate, of which a part still remains, called Porta Andetria, through which the principal highway, the Via Gabiniana, entered the city. The new wall followed the line of the Augustan (or Cæsarian?) aqueduct, which had ended by hiding itself in the bowels of that part of the primitive Augustan wall stretching on both sides of the Porta Cæsarea, whose great defensive towers henceforth served merely as reservoirs, and the gate itself merely as a spectacular access to the acropolis from the interior of the city.

As for the aqueduct, which was connected both with the Porta Cæsarea and the amphitheatre, its lead pipes bear the significant names of the makers, Julius Eucarpus and Caius Julius Xantus, proof enough, in the mere use of the name Julius, of the Augustan age for its original construction, which is of superb masonry of early type. Not enough can be seen of the theatre or the public Thermæ for me to offer any conjecture as to their age, but the excavations may soon provide more data.

Fragments of the dedicatory inscriptions of the Porta Cæsarea have come to light, some in the excavations of Carrara (1849) and many more during the past years. It had long been known that the gate was restored under the Emperor Constantius, between 337 and 350, by his governor of Dalmatia, Flavius Rufinus Sarmentius, but I should judge that the restoration was a slight one, affecting perhaps only the upper section. What is far more important than this late inscription in small letters is the finding of numerous fragments, mostly minute, of characteristic, large Augustan characters from the original dedication. I shall not attempt to reconstruct it now, because new fragments are appearing, and in any case it would not be fair to Monsignor Bulic, but I can safely reproduce enough of the letters to prove their Augustan character: IMP [Cæsar, divi. f. A] VG [usto po] NTI [fici max] MO [t] RIB [p] O [t] I. I am expecting shortly to return to Salona, when the gate is entirely cleared, and in the passageway and in the west side more of the Augustan inscription recovered. The entire structure is in good-sized, carefully cut, blocks of stone; the mouldings are simple, the Corinthian capitals of excellent *facture*, the proportions quite imposing.

It is with considerable diffidence that I

venture to claim the amphitheatre for the reign of Augustus. It was in 1850 that the excavation was begun, and the digging went in some parts to a depth of over twenty feet. Its major axis is 65 m., its minor 47 m., which makes it slightly larger than that of Pompeii. The probability is that the seats were entirely of wood; their ashes were found by the excavators. Monsignor Bulic asked me to consider carefully the style of the amphitheatre. No inscription has been found that would give any clue to its age. It stands at the west end of the primitive part of the city, and is so small that it was evidently planned for a city of quite limited area, certainly far smaller than Salona had become in the age of the Antonines, as we are constrained to judge from the area enclosed in the walls of Marcus Aurelius. This indication of an early date would be inconclusive if it were not for the primitive style of the arcades, their heavy proportions, and the absence of the tooling or boss-work familiar to us after the time of Claudius. On the other hand, the amphitheatre at Pola is a good example of early Antonine work in this region, perhaps of Trajan's time, and a comparison with its developed forms makes the Augustan age seem exceedingly probable for the amphitheatre of Salona. The majority of critics will be exceedingly skeptical, I know, of so early a date, and loth to recognize here a unique link between the solid pre-Cæsarian type of amphitheatre, as represented by those at Pompeii and perhaps at Sutri, and the open-arched Imperial type of the Claudian and Flavian era, as shown at Capua and the Colosseum. But I think that the work tells its own story to an expert in architectural history.

In another letter I expect to outline the way in which Augustus set about establishing and fortifying Roman colonies at the principal seaports from Aquileia to Thrace, and connecting them by a seaboard highway that reached to Italy; how he founded a few colonies along the main inland natural routes toward the Danube and protected them with military camps. He began his work here in about 40-39 B. C., and gave to it some fifteen years of his attention before he began to concentrate for another fifteen years on the other half of the general scheme of imperial offence and defence in the west—the north Italian scheme which I sketched in my previous articles. But the work was concentrated at first on the northern section, to connect Aquileia with the Danube, and the Illyrian *hinterland* was left largely untouched until the great Dalmatian insurrection under Bato in 6-9 A. D. had shown how dangerous it was to allow the native levies time to come together and prepare while the Roman armies were hampered in their powers of observation and rapid movement. In order to make this impossible in the future, Tiberius, who had himself crushed the rising, which had threatened Italy itself, then carried the early Augustus road scheme practically to completion. In this system there were four main arteries, military or commercial, centering at Salona. The west branch first utilized the old Via Munita to Tragurion and then touched at all the seaports till it reached Aquileia and joined the Italian network and the northwest route to Vindobonum. The second road was that directly

northward by way of Clissa and Andetrium over the mountains. It was called Via Galiniana. The eastern artery passed Via Æquum and the Save to join the future Pannonian road system. At Pons Tiluri it sent out an offshoot into the Balkan fastnesses, while another branch turned southward to old Narona. The least important was the southeast coast road by way of Epetion. The Dalmatian milestone inscriptions indicate that, as we should judge by historic records, very little was done to the Dalmatian roads between Tiberius and Trajan. Vespasian decided to transfer some of the Dalmatian legions northward to Pannonia, and so diminished the military importance of these highways. But under Trajan they became a paramount preoccupation in preparation for his Dacia wars; this is a fact not generally understood, and so interesting a glimpse of Roman politics that I shall leave it for another letter.

A. L. FROTHINGHAM.
Princeton, N. J.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The thirteenth annual volume of "American Book-Prices Current," containing the records for the season of 1906 and 1907, has just been published by Dodd, Mead & Co. A change in type, by which titles are in lower case black-face, and names of authors in capitals, is an improvement. Records are given of 12,700 lots of books and autographs selling at \$3 or over—nearly 2,000 less than in the 1906 volume, but more than in any previous issue. Though rare and high-priced books appeared in many sales, there were few extensive libraries of first editions. One such, indeed, that of Louis M. Dillman of Chicago, is notable. Of collections of Americana, that of ex-Gov. Samuel W. Pennypacker, one of the richest in the country, is preëminent. The small number of books from private or semi-private presses is noticeable. Only 23 items from the Kelmscott Press are included, while the 1901 volume records over two hundred; there are only 14 from the Essex House Press, while the 1902 volume includes 52. Though the very rarest books in the finest condition are increasing in price, inferior copies of commoner books are becoming cheaper. This is notably the case with first editions of American authors. The books of Longfellow, Hawthorne, Lowell, and others which were published after these men became famous, were printed in large numbers and can never become rare. To bring the prices paid five or six years ago, copies would now have to be in pristine condition, exactly as new.

On December 10 the Anderson Auction Company of this city sells a collection, mainly Americana, containing the library of a Western collector. Among the lots are a copy of the Aitken Bible, Philadelphia, R. Aitken, 1782 (the first Bible in the English language printed in America), some leaves mended and repaired; Hubley's "American Revolution," 1805; Filson's Kentucky, London, 1793, with the London map; "History of the Lewis and Clarke Expedition," Philadelphia, 1814, the first edition, edited by Nicholas-Biddle, in boards, uncut; Martin's "History of Louisiana," 1827-29, boards, uncut; Moultrie's "Memoirs of the American Revolution," 1802; Neal's "History of New England," 1720, a presentation copy;

Smith's "History of New Jersey," 1765; and Haywood's "Civil and Political History of Tennessee," 1823. On December 12, the same firm offers some selections from the library of the late Dr. William Egle, State Librarian of Pennsylvania. There are books on New Sweden, by Acrelius, 1759, and Biorck, 1731; McCall's "History of Georgia," 1811-16, a presentation copy; Livingston's "Review of the Military Operations in North America," 1757; Penn's "Further Account of Pennsylvania," 1685; and Louçon's "Narratives of Outrages committed by the Indians," 1803-11.

Macmillan & Co. announce as forthcoming "Suppressed Plates," by George Somes Layard. He discusses in detail the history of some famous suppressed plates; such as the portrait of the Marquis of Steyne, which appeared in a few early copies of "Vanity Fair," some of the cancelled designs of Hogarth, Cruikshank, Keene, and other artists. The volume is to be illustrated with reproductions of a number of plates.

Correspondence.

FRANCIS THOMPSON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The death of Francis Thompson on November 18 will start strange thoughts in the minds of lovers of English poetry. How easily we forget! In the year of the publication of his "Poems," 1893, his was the name most discussed in the gatherings of the literary. Perhaps no poet's first book, not even Swinburne's "Poems and Ballads," had provoked more discussion or been more generally acclaimed. Coventry Patmore, writing in the *Fortnightly*, boldly declared that the level of his achievement was higher than Crashaw's. H. D. Traill likewise aligned him with the classics, and most wonderful of all, the *Edinburgh*, forsaking its tradition, heralded the arrival of a great singer hitherto unknown. Then came stories of the struggle Thompson had made, of the many defeats, how he had taken to the anodyne of Coleridge and De Quincey, how he had been found holding horses in London, and what not. Then there was the fascination of his religion and the rumor of his withdrawal from a hopeless world into a monastery in Wales.

How true all this was we do not know. Yet it is certain that he who had written "The Hound of Heaven" had passed through deep waters. He was no longer young for one publishing a first volume, and the book itself was not large. Its quality, however, was unmistakable. The manner, too, was new, though in a sense it was as old as Donne or Cowley or Crashaw. No nineteenth-century poet's soul had been so uneasy in its body; none had felt such spiritual torture, not even Verlaine in the prison at Mons. Here was a new accent:

I dimly guess what Time in mists confounds;
Yet ever and anon a trumpet sounds
From the hid battlements of Eternity,
Those shaken mists a space unsettle, then
Round the half-glimped turrets slowly wash again;

This surely was authentic. The nineteenth century had not heard many such bursts of song, none ever on such a theme. In the temperament of its maker there was