

ed by the unveiling of statues to two heroes of the old struggles against the Spaniards in Flanders, to remind his subjects of the necessity of active efforts for the perpetuation of the nation's independence. "The life of nations is a perpetual struggle," said he; and liberty must be defended at times by the sword. King Leopold, who is the most prudent of sovereigns—as prudent, certainly, as his father, who was once called the "Nestor of Kings"—must have had very strong reasons for emerging as he did from the constitutional cloud in which he lives, and giving thus an indirect advice to his Chambers on the question of compulsory military service.

The tendency of the times seems to be adverse to small countries, and Belgium is a small country: it takes only little more than an hour to go by rail from the French frontier to Brussels. But the Belgians do not seem at all inclined to cease to be a nation, and they show no desire to be merged in a larger nationality. The same may be said of Switzerland; and, historically speaking, the Swiss have even a better right than the Belgians to preserve the dignity of a separate nation. Few people have not visited the shores of the admirable Lake of Lucerne, and the world-famous spots where the "little Cantons" became the nucleus of Switzerland. At a time when there was no artillery those small Cantons were almost impregnable fortresses, especially the four Cantons which are grouped on the various branches of the Lake, the "Vierwaldstädte." The confederation had its birth in the three primitive Cantons (*Urcantone*), Unterwalden, Uri, and Schwitz. When you are on the Lake, you are always shown the place near the Axenberg, with its little chapel built in 1388, where Tell jumped on the rock from the bark of Gessler; on the other side, at the foot of the Seelisberg, is the famous Grütli. Not far from Flüelen is a fountain with the statue of Tell built on the place where he is supposed to have hit the apple with his arrow. The inexpressible beauty of these shores, the calm of the valleys which open from distance upon distance on the Lake, do not make you think of war; but you are reminded of the preoccupations of the present time by the military road which follows, like a serpent, all the indentations and curves of the Lake. Everything is ready for the transport of an army from the great plain of Switzerland to the mountains, which now, as in old times, would be the strongholds of Swiss liberty.

The Swiss, by a strange contrast, are bound to neutrality, and still they are among the most military races of the world. Their spirit can be well judged by the extraordinary levies which have been made in their country down to very recent times. Before the French Revolution they had in the foreign service twenty-nine regiments, which formed an army of 50,000 men. Twenty thousand of these men were in the pay of the French monarchy, and it has been calculated that the French levies of the thirteen Cantons amounted in three centuries after Louis XI. to 700,000 men. Baron Zurlauben wrote a very valuable history of these Swiss regiments. France kept at all times an ambassador in Berne (though Berne is a small residence), with the special function of seeing to all the details of these levies and to all the articles of the treaties made by France with the Cantons. These Swiss regiments had their own rules, their own discipline; they were commanded by men who belonged to the best families of the Cantons. I have an old friend who saw before the Revolution of 1830 a council of war in a Swiss regiment; the officers formed a circle, and the accused soldier was judged without appeal. The military law of the Swiss was almost Draconian, and their admirable discipline made them a model for all armies.

In our long wars of religion in the sixteenth

century the Swiss regiments played a very important part. They were always on the royal side; they saved the Catholic army at the battle of Dreux; they saved the young King during the famous retreat from Meaux to Paris. Sometimes, however, they refused to fight—it was when they were not paid; at least they waited till they were paid before fighting. The army was a profession for the poor shepherds of the High Alps. After a few years of service they came back with a pension and sometimes a little booty; the officers received titles and pensions.

The French had a proverb, "Pas d'argent, pas de Suisse." Napoleon, for his campaign of 1817, asked the Confederation for a force of 16,000 men. The old monarchy had found its last defenders in the Swiss who were massacred on the steps of the Tuileries. I was visiting a few days ago the beautiful monument of Thorwaldsen at Lucerne. I had seen it often before, but it seemed to me even more beautiful in the morning light, with the azure shining through the branches of the overhanging trees. Time has improved the *cadre* of the dying lion; the trees are larger, the whole scene seems more solemn. Thousands and thousands of travellers pay their homage to this monument; it may have faults in point of art, but it is a thing always to remember, it speaks really to the soul.

The Bourbons, after the Restoration, formed six Swiss regiments, two of which were a part of what was called the Royal Guard. Since 1830 there have been no more Swiss regiments in the French Army; but for many years after that date there were Swiss troops in Naples and in Rome. In 1848 the Federal Constitution formally interdicted the levies in the Cantons, and ever since Switzerland has only been occupied in organizing its own forces and its own defence. In 1847, at the time of the so-called Sonderbund, the thirteen Liberal Cantons were leagued against the seven Cantons of the Sonderbund. The Liberal army had no fewer than 90,000 men, with 74 guns; Neuchâtel and Appenzell took no part in the struggle. The Constitution has always in principle forbidden the existence of a permanent army in the interior of the country; the military forces of the country are there formed by the militia. The Swiss are all good shots and take much pleasure in the *tirs fédéraux*, which are the great festivals of the Confederacy. One of my friends who lives in Geneva told me once that every Genevese was born a watchmaker, a radical, and a carbineer. The mountaineers who are accustomed to hunt the chamois are first-rate shots, and the competition for the prizes is very ardent in these great *tirs*.

All citizens from the age of twenty to the age of forty-four are liable to military service. There is, however, an exemption tax, but it can only be paid under conditions determined by law. The militia compose the active army, or *armée d'élite*; the Federal army (*Bundesauszug*) represents three per cent. of the population, and is composed of the young men between twenty and thirty years; then comes a first reserve of men from thirty to forty years, which forms one and a half per cent. of the population; then another reserve, or Landwehr, which is only called out in time of great national danger. The first two classes can furnish 106,000 men: 83,000 for the infantry (99 battalions of *fusiliers* and 8 of *tirailleurs*); 3,500 for the cavalry (24 squadrons of dragoons and 12 companies of guides); 14,000 men for the artillery (50 batteries); and 3,000 men for the engineers (8 battalions, besides the *pontoniers* and *pionniers*); and there are, besides, the staff, the surgeons, and the troops of the administration. The Landwehr, which has the same *cadres*, with the sole difference that its artillery is only half the artillery of the active army, can contribute as many as 97,000 men. In time of

war, it is therefore expected that Switzerland can bring to the front an army of 203,000 men.

The mobilization of the army would require 9,000 horses. There are in all nine divisions, subdivided into brigades. The militiamen, who are equipped by the Cantons, are placed under the orders of the Cantonal authorities, in the limits admitted by the Federal power, who call the men, dispose of them, furnish their arms, instruct them, and keep the men every year long enough to teach them the manoeuvres and the use of arms. There are several corps of cadets, and the military academy of Thun trains the under-officers and the officers. The officers are appointed by the Federal Council, on the proposition of the Cantons; but the choice of the Commander-in-Chief belongs only to the Federal Assembly, which chooses him from among the Federal Colonels, the highest grade of the officers in the Federal army. Some of these Federal Colonels are very remarkable men, well known in military circles. They travel, see foreign wars and foreign countries, and their reports are read with much interest.

The troops are only paid during the manoeuvres or in time of war. A question which for many years has been a subject of discussion in the Confederacy is this: Ought Switzerland, like all other countries of Europe, to have artificial strongholds and fortified towns? The wars of the French Revolution and the campaign of 1813, during which the Allies invaded the Swiss territory, have proved that the natural ramparts of the Alps are not invulnerable; nevertheless, the Alps are still considered as the natural defence of the country. Military roads cut in various directions would permit the rapid concentration of the army in a first line of defence in the mountains; behind this there is a second line of defence. The Swiss trust in the undoubted courage of their army and in the strategy of their officers. They have done nothing to fortify their frontiers, not even on the line of the Rhine and on the side of Geneva, where those frontiers are the weakest; on the other hand, nothing has been spared in the improvement of the militia, the military education of the officers, and the armament. As it is, the Swiss Army would, in my opinion, be a formidable adversary; and the Swiss may console themselves for having no fortifications by the thought that year after year the progress of artillery makes fortifications useless. They have saved all the money which would have been spent in forts and ramparts; and the time may come when, at little expense, they will find themselves well fortified in the weak parts of the frontier by a few steel cupolas.

PALÆO-ITALIC ARCHÆOLOGY.

PARIS, August 20, 1887.

In the years 1886 and 1887 a citizen of Boston, Mr. Dana Estes, surveyed the opening and clearing of about twenty-four ancient tombs in the immediate vicinity of Belluno (province of Venice). He was fortunate enough to secure possession of the objects discovered, which must now have safely reached the United States. On his way home, Mr. Estes passed through Saint-Germain, and kindly showed me a part of his interesting collection—about one-third, as he told me, the remainder having been directly forwarded to America. These discoveries demand serious attention. They are remarkable and admirably preserved specimens of an archaeological series hitherto little attended to—completely unknown, I venture to state, to most professional scholars out of Italy—the study of which, however, is calculated to throw a quite new and unexpected light on the remotest ages in the Italian peninsula. Very few museums in Europe possess antiquities of that class, and I am almost certain that Mr.

Estes's palæo-Italic collection has been the first to cross the Atlantic. The possessor will undoubtedly take the trouble of publishing the narrative of his discoveries, with select engravings from the most important types; he will thus render a real service to archaeological study by facilitating comparisons between the contents of the Belluno tombs and the spoils of other cemeteries in the valley of the Po.

Meanwhile, and with Mr. Estes's permission, I seize the occasion of a palæo-Italic series having been shipped to America, to summarize our actual knowledge about these curious antiquities, which must be carefully distinguished from the works of Etruscan and of Roman industry. I do not intend to describe what I have seen of Mr. Estes's collection: I must leave to him the honor and the pleasure of doing so. It will suffice for my purpose to say that the entire lot was discovered in cup-shaped tombs, the sides of which are walled with small irregular stones, superposed without any mortar, and covered with a large lid of tufa. Inside each tomb was a vase in earthenware, affecting a form of frequent occurrence in coeval cemeteries, and also some minor urns, in earthenware or in bronze; the principal vase contained the ashes of the deceased, no case of inhumation having been observed. Among the ashes were found different implements, such as large bronze fibulæ or safety-pins, ornamental bronze pendants of various designs, beads of yellow amber and of colored glassware or porcelain, iron spearheads, etc. The fibulæ are peculiarly worthy of attention; they belong to a well-known type, that of Villanova, and are decorated with engravings in the geometrical style. Some of them are ornamented with small bronze rings or glass beads suspended to the brooch, others (and this is a very rare occurrence) have their upper end, where the pin is inserted, shaped in the form of animals, the design of which recalls the primitive engravings and rude figures on the bronze implements from Koban in the Caucasus and from Hallstatt in upper Austria. Similar objects, but of inferior quality, were obtained in 1870 by M. Leicht from tombs discovered in the suburbs of Belluno, and described by the finder in a short pamphlet, 'Avanzi preistorici nel Bellunese' (Belluno, 8vo, 1871). Some archaeologists may fancy that the interest of a discovery is greater when nothing like it has yet occurred. This is an error which even simple dilettanti ought not to share. The chief object of archaeology, as Gerhard and Longpérier often repeated, is to form series, to reveal and define the geographical and chronological limits, both in space and in time, within which the works of the same art or industry are to be encountered. From this point of view, we may say that Mr. Estes's collectanea are specially interesting, because they occupy a definite place in a large sequence of analogous discoveries made not only in the valley of the Po, but in that of the Danube and of the Rhone, on a line which can now be followed uninterruptedly from Hungary to the eastern province of France.

The name of antio- or palæo-Italic archaeology is a happy idea of Count Conestabile, the celebrated Etruscan scholar. Being rather vague, this appellation has the advantage of not prejudicing the obscure question about the race (or the races) to which belonged the people who, previously to the Romans, the Greeks, and the Etruscans, scattered the vestiges of their civilization on Italian ground. The culture of northern Italy, so far as it is neither Etruscan nor Græco-Roman, is also styled Villanova culture, from the name of a necropolis of two hundred tombs discovered in the vicinity of Bologna. Formerly (that is, until about the middle of the present century) archaeologists used the word Etruscan in as wide and much-abused a sense as that of

Pelasgic: everything which seemed in Italy to be neither Greek nor Roman was styled Pelasgic or Etruscan. Recent researches, the results of which were for the first time condensed and tested by public discussion at the International Congress of Bologna in 1871, enable us now to investigate with greater precision the remote periods of Italian archaeology. The principal conclusions which have been obtained and are generally admitted, may be stated as follows:

Firstly, thanks to Bonucci, Capellini, and others, it has been ascertained that Italy, like France and Great Britain, went through a *palæolithic* period, in which the use of metals was unknown. In spite of much dispute and contradiction, it seems certain that the period in question was of less importance in Italy than in England, and especially in France. This is evidently the case for the second part of the palæolithic period, the principal feature of which are the bone-caves with organic deposits. Such caves are by no means rare in Italy, but a great number of them belong to a later epoch, and, as the reindeer does not appear to have passed the Alps, no traces have been found there of the remarkable development of sculpture and engraving on bone and horn which gives so high an interest to the caves of Périgord and of Switzerland.

After the palæolithic period we find, as elsewhere, the neolithic or polished-stone age, when the first metallic implements were introduced in Italy by the rising flood of commerce. In fact, it is now generally acknowledged that the polished stone period cannot be strictly distinguished from the age of metals, but the development of this idea would carry us too far. Archaeologists have not yet come to an understanding about the primitive importers of metal implements: some believe them to have been Phœnicians, others admit a gypsy-like immigration of small metal-working tribes, which, originating in Central Asia or the Altaic region, gradually spread through Europe, following the valleys of the Dnieper, the Danube, and the Po. Two facts, however, are certain: (1) that the bronze implements of the most ancient period afford, from one extremity of Europe to the other, and particularly in Central Europe, a striking similarity in shape and in the composition of metal. As we gradually get nearer to the historical period, the resemblances between implements from different regions are found to diminish—a result which, combined with the discovery of moulds and foundries, goes to prove that the industry of bronze soon became localized in various centres, such as Hallstatt in Austria and Bologna in Italy; (2) that when bronze implements become numerous, the custom of incineration more and more replaces that of inhumation, an evident sign that some change has occurred in the religious ideas and habits of the European communities, perhaps also that a new race of men has entered the scene, not necessarily in large numbers, but with a superior power of assimilation and proselytism. That race may be the Aryans, but this is as yet a mere hypothesis, and is sternly denied by the school of Latham, Penka, and others, who place the birthplace of Aryan civilization in Scandinavia.

If we compare the neolithic period in Italy with the similar period in France, so well known by the methodical investigations of the dolmens of Brittany, we perceive the following discrepancies: (1.) Dolmens are not to be found in Italy; the so-called *Cyclopean* walls of the ancient cities and the *nuraghs* of Sardinia are of a quite different and later character. (2.) The stone implements or celts in jade, jadite, chloromelanite, and other rare or non-European materials—which are frequent in Brittany, where they must have been introduced by commerce, and are also to be found in the lake-dwellings of Switzerland—seem al-

most or completely wanting in Italy. (3.) Northern Italy possesses lake-dwellings similar to those which exist in Switzerland, but they have not been met with in the other parts of ancient Gaul. The lake-dwellings of northern Italy, carefully studied since 1863, must be put on the same line with the so-called *terramare*, the investigation of which began about 1805 and has recently afforded Prof. Helbig the subject of a most interesting book, 'Die Italiker in der Poebene.' The *terramare*, as everybody knows, are accumulations of débris, forming deposits of ammoniacal earth, which the peasants used as manure. They were called cemetery earth, from the belief that they marked the place of Roman *ustrinæ*. A more attentive study of the fragments and implements they contain, enlightened by the discovery of the Swiss lake-dwellings by Keller in 1854, proved that the *terramare* are the remains of very ancient pile-buildings belonging to the earliest age of metal. When the study of these deposits had only just begun, the Swiss archaeologist Morlot compared them to the kitchen-middens of Denmark, another variety of accumulated débris, but dating from the remote palæolithic period, in which the use of metal was still unknown. Although Morlot's parallel has often been repeated, it can no longer be maintained. The *terramare* must be compared to the lake-dwellings, and are, in fact, nothing but artificial lake-dwellings, established in a moorland and wet country, in the interest both of health and of security. This system of pile-building, which has been observed at Castione and elsewhere, would suffice to make a link between the early populations of Switzerland, of northern Italy, and of the Austrian Alps, where other lake-dwellings have been discovered; and this view is quite supported by the similarity of the stone and bronze implements obtained from the *terramare* and from the lakes. It must also be borne in mind that ancient writers have mentioned lake-dwellings in Macedonia and near the Caucasus—that is, on the very road which seems to have been followed by the neolithic and early metallic culture of central Europe.

Another fact which must be insisted upon is that the age of bronze alone, excluding the use of iron, if even such an age may be spoken of, cannot have been of long duration in Italy. Iron implements are already met with in the most ancient cemeteries of Gallia Cisalpina, such as Villanova, Golasecca, and Chiusi. There never existed in the Peninsula, any more than in France, a well-defined and characterized *bronze age*, such as has been so successfully studied since 1830 on the soil of Sweden and of Denmark. No doubt, during the most ancient period, the weapons and personal ornaments were made of bronze, in Italy as well as in France, a preference which may be accounted for by various reasons—the pleasing radiancy of new-melted bronze; the very bad quality of primitive iron; the ugly and destructive effects of rust; perhaps, also, some religious ideas, as expressed in the old Latin inscription, "Ferrum pium esto." But we may safely assert that iron tools were used in Italy as early as ten or eleven centuries B. C. To find similar implements in Sweden, we must go down to the period of the Roman Empire—a proof that an *exclusive* bronze civilization is nothing like the effect of some universal law, but a local fact special to the countries of northern Europe.

The pottery which has been gathered from the *terramare* is particularly instructive. Although very rude and unskilful, it presents the same character as most of the earliest vases found in the cemeteries of the Po valley, and in the oldest tombs in the necropolis of Corneto in Etruria. In the latter necropolis, where there appears a civilization closely connected with the culture of the *terramare*, excavations have recently brought

to light a funeral *hut-urn* of a type which had hitherto only been found in Latium. These urns are probably imitations of the pile-buildings erected by the inhabitants of the *terramare*.

A very ancient tradition, which archaeological discoveries have confirmed, asserts that the Etruscans, who appear to us in the height of their power about the sixth century B. C., were not a homogeneous race, but an amalgam of two different peoples: an Italic population, superior in number, and a Tyrrhenian warlike aristocracy of Oriental origin. That aristocracy introduced into Italy the Etruscan language, a curious monument of which seems to have recently been found at Lemnos, in the northern part of the *Ægean*. No doubt the conquerors also brought with them Oriental works of art, which, together with the models introduced by Phœnician, Carthaginian, and Greek commerce, gave rise to imitations to which Etruscan art owes its peculiar interest and flavor. But Etruscan art, just like the Etruscan people, is not homogeneous. We see the Oriental and Hellenic influences steadily gaining ground, but the primitive stratum of Tuscan industry belongs to a far more ancient period than the Tyrrhenian conquest. If we study the cemeteries of the Villanova type, which are very numerous in Italy northwards from the Apennines, we soon discover that the bronze and iron implements found in these tombs present a most striking uniformity, and that the Oriental elements are very rare or even missing in the most ancient ones. What seems to us Oriental, in those primitive works of industry, recalls the most archaic vases from the *Ægean*, the rude bronzes gathered in the deepest strata at Olympia, and belongs, in consequence, to a period anterior to that of Semitic influence. Thus it has been possible to distinguish two utterly different elements in Etruscan art: (1) a layer or stage which might be called Aryan, which on Italian ground is better styled palæo-Italic, and seems to have been the common property of the people who, more than ten centuries B. C., probably more than fourteen, emigrated towards the west in following the valley of the Danube; (2) a derivative art, imitating the Oriental and the classical Hellenic style, formed under the influence of the steady commercial intercourse between Etruria on the one hand, Greece, Phœnicia, and Carthage on the other. Until quite lately, the latter element was believed to be the whole of Etruscan art, though it is only the more recent and the most superficial part of it. Thus the *Italic* art of Villanova forms a complete contrast with the *Oriental* art of Etruria. However, the culture of Villanova having lasted during many centuries, and the Etruscan power having extended to the north of the Apennines, the Villanovan art experienced, to a large extent, the influence of Hellenized Etruscanism. For that reason it is often difficult to distinguish, in the cemeteries around Bologna and elsewhere, what is Villanovan from what is Etruscan. The fibulæ with figures of animals found at Belluno by Mr. Dana Estes go to prove that the necropolis he has explored belongs to the Etruscanized class, and must rank along with the cemetery of the Certosa near Bologna, while, on the contrary, no Etruscan influence is yet to be traced in the necropolis of Villanova.

Count Conestabile, at the Congress of Bologna in 1871, proposed to distinguish four strata in the primitive ethnology of Italy, not including the period anterior to the use of metals, which is entirely involved in darkness. These immigrants, Conestabile believed, all belong to the Aryan family, but succeeded each other at various epochs and followed different ways. (1) The *Pelasgo-aborigines*, who entered the Peninsula by the Alps; they are identical with the inhabitants of the *terramare*; (2) the *Umbrians* and the

Latins, forming the group which Mommsen calls *Italiote*, who took the same road as their predecessors, and penetrated to the southern end of Italy; (3) and (4) the *Græco-Pelasgi* and the *Tyrrhenian-Pelasgi*, who both arrived in Italy by the sea route.

We are perhaps able to define a little more the second group mentioned by Count Conestabile. It was observed a long time ago that the Italic languages, the best known of which is Latin, closely resemble the Celtic dialect; we also know that the Umbrians were, to say the least, near relations of the Celtic tribes, a result which is partly due to the excavations ordered in 1861 at Città d'Umbria by an American archaeologist, Mr. Alexander Wolf. Now, the Greek writers show that the Celts, at the most ancient period of history, extended over the valley of the Danube, the valley of the Po, and Gaul. Consequently, we are induced to believe that the cemeteries of the Austrian Alps, those of the Po and the Rhone valleys, which yield monuments of very similar civilizations, equally advanced in the industry of metal, are, in reality, Celtic cemeteries. Perhaps the more recent parts of these necropolises should be styled Gaulish and not Celtic, if we admit with M. Bertrand that the Celts belong to a former migration, and that the Gauls, ethnographically connected with the Celts, subdued the Celtic populations about the fifth century B. C., thanks to their knowledge of more powerful iron weapons, and that they continued to live among or over the Celts in the manner of a conquering aristocracy. For our part, we do not hesitate to believe that the necropolis of Belluno, like that of Hallstatt and that of Alaise, near Besançon, is a Celtic, Celto-Gaulish, or Umbrian cemetery, anterior to the seventh century B. C. Celts, Gauls, and Umbrians being only considered as kindred tribes or fractions of the same stock.

Are the Celts of northern Italy the descendants of the lake-dwellers and pile-builders? Probably; but positive proofs are still wanting. We have spoken above of the pottery of Villanova, which seems to be the continuation of the pottery in the *terramare*, but the value of such an argument should not be overrated. The distinction of the Celtic and Gaulish tribes is of much more importance to history than the confusion of the lake-dwellers with the Celts.

Another Celtic tribe, the Belgians, had followed a quite different route from the Celts and Gauls of northern Italy. Instead of advancing towards the west along the valley of the Danube, they crossed the large plains of Poland and northern Germany, then ascended the valley of the Rhine and established themselves on either side of the river, especially in the northeastern part of Gaul, where Cæsar, many centuries later, still recognized them as distinct from the other Gauls. Some groups of Belgian warriors, instead of entering Gaul, made their way to northern Italy, where they joined hands with the Gaulish invaders of Carniola and Helvetia. These were the Gauls who defeated the Romans at the battle of the Allia, after having previously conquered the Etruscans; these were they who became the valorous allies of Hannibal, and remained during centuries in the north of Italy as a perpetual menace to Roman power. An archaeological proof of this was given as early as 1865: in the more recent parts of the Italic cemeteries of Este and Marzabotto, weapons and personal ornaments were discovered absolutely identical with those which had come to light by hundreds in the cemeteries of Cæsar's Belgium, especially in the French province of Champaign. It is the merit of M. A. Bertrand to have shown with good arguments that the Gauls of Brennus did not come from central or western Gaul, but were rather distant relations of the other Celtic tribes established for many centuries past in northern Italy.

So we understand how the Etruscans and Romans could describe the invaders as *novum et invisitatum genus hominum*—a phrase which would be almost absurd if the Celts of northern Italy or southeastern Gaul had been meant.

To conclude: we find in Italy not only Græco-Roman and Etruscan art, but a widely spread and most ancient industry, which can be ascribed with much probability to the Celtic tribes hitherto too much neglected by archaeology. To that Celtic or palæo-Italic art belong the bronze and earthenware antiquities collected by Mr. Dana Estes. The collection he has brought together can easily bear comparison with any similar collection out of Italy. It is therefore sincerely to be hoped that the discoveries made at Belluno, as well as all similar objects belonging to travellers and dilettanti, may be designed and engraved with the necessary care. Much too few of these relics of ancient art have been as yet adequately published, the greater part of Italian provincial monographs being almost unattainable. Science is in want of numerous documents of that kind, well knowing that no series of antiquities better justifies Gerhard's favorite motto: *Monumentorum artis qui unum vidit, nullum vidit; qui mille vidit, unum vidit*.

SALOMON REINACH.

Correspondence.

SILVER COINAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can you state any reason why there should not be going on at this moment an outside coinage of silver at least equal to that of the Government? It is perfectly easy to make an absolute facsimile of the silver dollar—not a counterfeit, but the identical thing, as to weight, fineness, and stamp, so that the severest Government tests could not tell the difference. Suppose there were factories for this purpose in Europe, in Canada, in Mexico, in South America, in Africa, in China, or Japan. Nothing could be easier than to introduce them into this country, unless it is the putting them in circulation after they get here. The cash profit on the transaction would be more than 30 per cent., and what business is there in the world which will pay that profit with so little risk? When we know what the Jews will do in financing, is it unreasonable to suppose that millions of dollars may be thus infused into our currency every year without anybody being the wiser? It seems to me so strange that no more stress is laid on this by the opponents of our silver law, that I should like to ask if there is any weak spot in the reasoning.

ANTI-SILVER.

SEPTEMBER 5.

[Whatever may be said of the reasoning, the fact is that the thing is not done, although the opportunity to do it has been open ever since the passage of our silver law. It has been open equally in France, Germany, and all other countries which have a large silver circulation passing at par with gold, but intrinsically worth much less. The reason why false coining is not carried on must be that the difficulty of getting the coins into circulation and the risk of detection outweigh the profits on the transaction. Coins *exactly* like the genuine cannot be produced in a chimney corner.—ED. NATION.]

TOLSTOI, NIHILISM, AND EDUCATED RUSSIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The writer of the article on the "Russian