Arabic blood in his veins. He loves nature and beauty,—beauty of every sort. In appearance an Italian may resemble a tow-headed Teuton or a swarthy Arab, and the peasants from each section of the peninsula have their own dialects, of which there are over three hundred in Italy. Unless they have been at school and learned the accepted Tuscan dialect, adopted by Dante and now called Italian, an Italian from one section of Italy cannot understand a word of what his fellow-countryman says, coming from an adjoining province.

The Neapolitan may be poor, but if he has sunshine and his beautiful Napoli, he is not very unhappy under conditions that to us would seem very trying. Unfortunately in New York sunshine is much more expensive than in his dear Naples, and many are the trials of sickness and poverty that the poor southern Italian who comes to us has often to suffer. Crowded rooms, hard work, scant food, no knowledge of the language of the country and *so*—so little sunshine in his cramped dwelling place. It is almost a miracle, it seems to me, that most of the Italians get on as well and as rapidly as they do, but they are naturally a cheerful, hopeful race, and are always hoping for better times. Their love of beauty in art has been most beneficial

to them here in America, for in Boston one very important industry which has had an educational effect upon the whole country, and for which Boston has been the centre, is that of making plaster casts of the work of the great sculptors, and this has been developed wholly by Italians.

The southern Italian is simple and straightforward in his nature, and requires but little to give him happiness. His heart is as tender as a child's, and it is only when his hot blood is stirred by some fiery passion that the *rabbia* makes him what the word implies—insane, but have we not in our own land the Kentucky mountaineers' blood feuds, and the race riots in the West and South?

After all, human nature, with few changes, on the outside is not so very different wherever we go, but the Italian nature is wondrously kind, and a Neapolitan, a Florentine, a Sicilian, a Roman or a Bolognese, can all be splendid, true friends, as I well know.

You will say that I am partial; but that is precisely what I am not; because I know the Italians and therefore I can speak without prejudice. Bad Italians there are, of course, but I think we should search in vain for a country where there are no bad specimens. Count Aldrovandi who, by the way, once more proves my firm belief in heredity, is exactly what

one would expect a descendant of one of the most distinguished Italian families to be:—a man of great culture, refinement and charm. He has been most kind in helping me to procure these statements, and I owe him many thanks for his very helpful assistance in my studies and investigations among the Italians here. However, to the incredulous, facts and figures speak volumes in short space. It seems to me that they tell their own story. The Italian Savings Bank of New York City has to-day on deposit $1,059,-369.19. The report shows open accounts to the number of 7,000 and books to the number of 10,844; the average sum on deposit being $170.

As to the much-talked-of Society of the Sicilian Mafia, it is generally believed by the intelligent Italians here that no such organization exists in America, and the authorities at police headquarters scout the idea.

On Manhattan Island there are 23 Roman Catholic churches, which are entirely or in part devoted to the Italians. As one enters these churches one feels the warmth of the Italian enthusiasm in artistic decorations of the altar and the church in general. In the downtown quarter the church has provided a home for the protection of female immigrants. Through the generosity and energy of one of New

York's most fashionable and charitable ladies, Countess Annie Leary, an Italian settlement, known as Miss Leary's Italian Settlement, has been established, where competent teachers give instruction in drawing, painting and many of the higher branches of study.

This work has grown out of the successful enterprise begun by Countess Leary some time ago in the Italian quarter.

Sewing schools were established and Sisters of Charity were sent to teach any among the Italians who might wish to come and learn. Materials were freely furnished, and as may be imagined, the attendance was large.

Once together and the sewing begun, the women were interestingly and almost unconsciously instructed by the Holy Sisters in the precepts of the Roman Catholic faith. Thus did my friend accomplish the difficult and double task of improvement, religious and material.

I must hasten, however, to claim Countess Leary as an American, and to explain that her title was conferred upon her by His Holiness, the late Pope Leo XIII, as an expression of the appreciation of the church for the many and generous works of its charitable daughter.

In the salon of Countess Leary's elegant home

on Fifth Avenue is a large photograph of H. H. Pius X, on which is inscribed the papal blessing and words of commendation and appreciation of the present Pontiff.

There are also four organized Evangelical churches, maintained by the Presbyterian, Methodist, Protestant Episcopal and Baptist denominations. These churches are fairly well attended, but the Italian is by birth and training a Roman Catholic, and a prominent Italian told me that the material aid offered in one way or another by these churches proved to the needy Italian the main attraction to these Protestant missions.—Probably the institution which has done the really most lasting good for the Italians in our country is the Educational School, established in Leonard Street and maintained by the Children's Aid Society. The day sessions are conducted precisely along public school lines, mainly for children who, for various reasons, cannot attend our public schools. A night school is conducted in the same building, which aims primarily at giving instructions in the English language, and there is also a department of Italian instruction, the teacher of which is supported by the Italian Government. Efforts have been made also to establish night schools in some of the Italian labor camps. The trials have met with great success, and

the men showed the greatest eagerness to avail themselves of all possible opportunities to improve their condition, as the following letter shows:

Translation of a Letter from one of the Pupils

"ASPINWALL, PA., BOX 13, Nov. 2, 1905

Illustrious Lady Teacher:

Your gracious letter reached me yesterday, and I could not have received a greater pleasure. Nevertheless I am sorry to read that it will perhaps be impossible to have you here again. My richest hopes are lost? Again I will confide them to you and wish to believe that I shall be put in the right way. For this reason I am about to beg you to let me know if in the city of Pittsburg—a city entirely unknown to me—perhaps there may be some one who could give me some information in regard to our holy religion of which I am ignorant of even the principles.

Certainly in New York there must be churches and some one perhaps of their faculty who would lose a little time on my account.

At present I will not say any more.

The fatigue of the shovel oppresses me and prevents me from continuing.

Awaiting your reply, which I trust to receive, although I beg you to excuse this continual disturbing, I salute you with esteem.

ARISTOTILLE GUERRIERI."

The editor of one of the local Italian papers published in New York, and there are four of them, gives this interesting testimony to the value of this school:

"I landed at Castle Garden," he continued, "with $1.70 in my pocket, and not a friend or relative in America. I never shall forget the strange impression New York made on me that Sunday. At home the people were all in the streets, in their best clothes, enjoying themselves on Sunday. Lower Manhattan, closed, silent, and empty, seemed to me a city of the dead. 'What kind of a country is this?' I muttered to myself. I had come to America to work in the mines, but there did n't seem to be any mines about. I walked up Broadway, my heavy old-country valise in my hand, about as lonesome, homesick, forlorn a boy as could be found on the continent. I did n't know what to do or where to go.

"The best luck that ever happened to me in my life was when I met an Italian, who saw that I was a green immigrant boy and stopped to speak to me. He took me to a decent place to spend the night, and the next day took me to the Italian school of the Children's Aid Society, at No. 156 Leonard Street. The late A. E. Cerqua, who had helped the late C. L. Brace in starting the school, received me and put me in a printing class. I worked in that little print shop during the day, and in the evening I went into the English classes. What would have become of me had it not been for Mr. Cerqua and the Children's Aid Society I don't know. In two days after I landed at Castle Garden I had found good friends and was hard at work learning my trade and studying English.

"There are five or six Italian printing offices in town, including all the most important ones, the proprietors of which were all in that printing class in Leonard Street, with me, twenty-five years ago."

Sig. Frugone is now endeavoring to start a similar school in the uptown settlement, called *Piccola Italia*,

and among the Italians has already raised $3,000 to this end. These societies which work for the good of all the Italians are the sources from which the greatest permanent good to the Italian in America is to come, for the Italian is an Italian to us; but to his fellow countrymen he is a Neapolitano, or Abruzzese, or Calabrese or Genoese, as the case may be, and is very apt to have more prejudices against his foreign neighbor who comes from a province which has never had over-kindly feelings for his *paese* (county) in Italy, than the few people among us who regard the Italian immigrant as undesirable. So far as the Italian is concerned this is unfortunate; from our point of view it is just as well, for assimilation will the sooner be accomplished, and they will all become Americans. The New York colony is composed of persons coming from nearly every province in Italy, and each man feels after the manner of the home sentiment, that his first duty is to his *paesano* (fellow countryman). Thanks to this fellow feeling, what few Italians need help almost invariably receive it from their own people, and rarely from any public charity. You must remember that up to 1870, when the present United Kingdom of Italy was so miraculously formed by the bravery of Victor Emmanuel II, the patriotism of Garibaldi, the

diplomacy of Cavour, and, as has been said, the smile of Queen Margherita, the country had been divided into numerous dukedoms and principalities, among which there existed all sorts of rivalries, resentments and not infrequently a state of open warfare. These old jealousies are sometimes reflected even to-day in the fierce rivalry between two cities or towns in the same province. It is therefore not surprising, that having all these prejudices against all outside his own *paese*, the *Abruzzese* does not hasten to associate himself with the Neapolitan in a common work for the general Italian welfare in America. Therefore the Italian of culture and position must not blame some of my own countrymen who regard, from the prejudice born of ignorance, the Italian immigrant askance, and question the benefit to our country of his coming. We must consider that it costs Italy a goodly sum to rear a young man to the age of eighteen or twenty, and when at that age he comes to us, he becomes here not only a good worker, but a consumer as well. Of the many attributes to recommend the Italian to us, not the least is his almost invariable sobriety and great powers of endurance, both factors in life which mean psychical and physical vigor.

The Italian loves his pleasure, but so little con-

tents him. Sipping an ice or coffee with his friends, a simple game of cards at the house of a friend, listening to a bit of music, a visit to the Art Museum, and he is quite contented.

I recall one afternoon this winter when I was driving in the park, I noticed several Italians digging in the streets near the entrance to the Art Museum. As soon as it was time for them to leave their work they dropped their axes and shovels and went straight into the museum. Had you followed them you would have surely found them before the best masters' paintings, for the Italians have an intuitive sense of beauty, in color and contour. Even the newest immigrant, with his push cart, makes his ware attractive, and arranges his fruit and wares in the most attractive manner. The art sense of the Italians is one of the most valuable contributions that they bring to our new country, because it is one of the qualities that many of our people lack. Almost indefinite instances are cited by teachers in the different schools as proof of this rare artistic sense. Unfortunately, from an inability to speak the language or to start themselves, skilled artisans coming from Italy are often forced to abandon the work for which they are fitted and well trained, and the remark is often heard: "I was a silversmith in Italy, but I have had to

carry pig-iron since I came here"; while another, a decorator, wears out his strength handling beer barrels in a saloon.

Unfortunately, also in many cases, the educated Italian can succeed here only by beginning at the bottom of the ladder, but instead of clamoring against the seeming injustice of Fate, most of the skilled laborers begin literally at the bottom of the ditch, and greatly to the credit of their manhood, accept the situation cheerfully and bravely until they make a way to the place that their talents deserve them to win. This is not altogether a surprising state of affairs, for we have constant and definite demands for unskilled labor, while the educated Italian is bound to meet with difficulties in finding employment for his talents, especially as he is more likely than not ignorant of English.

There are some of our people who judge from picturesque paintings that the Italians are inclined to be beggars, and to those who evince uneasiness in regard to the preponderance in the Italian immigration of illiterate, unskilled labor, we would say, that this is precisely the class, according to charity records, that is most able to care for itself here, while the skilled or professional worker often seems to be at a great disadvantage. Of the sturdy, hard-work-

ing peasants who come to our shores, very few, if any, ask help from public charities. In the immigration of 1903, less than one-half of one per cent. was of the professional class, but five per cent. of the charity cases was of this class.

One problem that has required much study has been the readiness of the Italians to commit their children to some charitable institution. This is sometimes caused by the fact that the father of the family has deserted the wife, leaving her with several small children and little or no means of support, but generally these cases occur where the father and mother have died, and the family must of necessity be broken up. In general, however, the Italian parents are unwilling to give up their children permanently, by adoption or otherwise, though many of the Italians have unfortunately acquired the idea that the commitment of children is a custom of the country of which they may as well take advantage; but more careful regulations of commitments has already checked this evil, and will soon do away completely with this mistaken idea. The Italian parents have many complaints to make, however, of their children, saying that they become unmanageable and "wild" in this country; but the Italian mother among the middle and poorer classes is generally very young,

and nearly as much a child as her children. She plays with them, quarrels with them, indulges them in many ways, and then scolds them with insufficient reason, so an Italian has told me. Italian children, whether born in Italy or here, find America much to their taste. They are quick to adapt themselves to the freedom of the new country, as are their elders, and though many of them could not define the word "Republic" before coming to us here in America, we all know from the glorious history of modern Italy that the love of freedom and spirit of independence are elements inherent in the Italian character.

When the Italian reaches America he breathes the atmosphere created by republican institutions with undisguised pleasure, but in his enthusiasm he sometimes loses sight of the close and narrow distinction between liberty and license; he fails to remember, if he ever knew, that the most sacred rights of liberty lie in the observance by every man of the rights of every other man, and he does not always quite understand that the greatest good for the greatest number is the foundation stone of any great democratic body, and along such lines only can great things be accomplished. But the Italians' mistakes or infringements against municipal laws are almost invariably those of ignorance rather than of wilful disobedience to the law.

With the nervous atmosphere of our climate, and the hopes that the laws of our land make possible, is born in the heart of nearly all the Italians here among us, that distinctive American characteristic, ambition. Decry it if you will, Cæsar did, I know, and yet without it, what would the world become? Desire to "get ahead," a wholesome and worthy wish to attain to something better than present conditions, are other ways of saying the same thing.

In this little letter, which shows all the grace and courtesy inherent in the Italian character, you will see my meaning at a glance.

It was written by a little boy, 12 years old, to a teacher in one of the industrial schools, who had asked for letters containing some information as to the children's parents' condition, etc., in order that she might have a better understanding of her scholars:

"Dear and most gracious Signora A:

My father has been two years in America, and he follows the trade of carpenter and . . . He would like to make of me an honest, industrious boy with at the same time a trade better than his, and he sends me to school so that when I am grown up I may be an educated man and useful to others.

Later I wish to make machines for factories and thus to have better wages than others. Having nothing more to say, I kiss my hand to you, and assure you that I am,

Your, GIULIO."

Similarly in the four Italian schools of the Children's Aid Society in New York, the older children were asked to write their teachers what they wished to do when they grew up. In most every instance the letters showed a decided wish and determination to "get on," either to acquire money, fame or to "help father and mother."

Another instance of the desire among the children to become truly American is their tendency to change their names to American forms, as is seen in the transformation of the charming name of Vincenzo Campobello to Jim Campbell. While patriotic on their part, this seems rather a pity, but it evinces at any rate the right spirit. Surely these elements in our midst can only be good and beneficial.

The young girls show less ambition than the boys, but that is easily explained, for the Italian girl, even more than the average young woman, expects and hopes to be occupied at an early age with the care of her own household. The women of Italy, particularly the women of Abruzzi and Calabria, from which districts come the larger part of the Italian immigration, have been noted for centuries for their skill and handicraft, and it is with delight that I can write you that through the untiring and endless efforts of Signorina Carolina Amari, a lace school, to

be a branch of the Industrie Femminili in Rome, has been established at Richmond House in MacDougal Street, where these Old World hand-works of women are now to be preserved, renewed, and we surely hope ably supported. At least Miss Colgate, who is the chairman of a committee of ladies in New York, who are endeavoring to help on this work, assures me that over $1,500 worth of orders have been given to the school during the past few weeks, since its commencement, which would indicate a definite success for the work in hand. Over the tea-cups in Miss Colgate's beautiful drawing-room, hung with wonderful old mediæval tapestries and seeming like an apartment in one of your old palaces in Italy, Miss Amari explained to me her method of work here. She has been pleasantly received by President and Mrs. Roosevelt, in Washington, and has, I hope, gained an agreeable impression of us Americans; surely she has learned to know of our love of Italy and its people, not only across the seas, but here in our midst.

Men and races must be judged broadly, and if we look at the pages of history, which we are told repeats itself, we must surely feel that the incoming Italian is a distinct benefit to our country. It was the people of that wonderful peninsula who achieved

the greatness of Rome, who carried their civilization and learning to Gaul and Britain. In the Middle Ages, infused with the new and best blood of the Northern Tribes, they established, after many struggles, not only political but religious supremacy in their midst, and they sent their messengers to find and awaken to the world the glories of our own Columbia. To-day, through the trials of blood and battle, they have bought their right to be called one of the great nations of the world.

Surely a people with their glorious heritage must have the seeds of great possibilities, and the fact that the individual holdings of the Italians in savings banks in New York alone is over $15,000,000; that they have $20,000,000 worth of real estate; 10,000 stores owned by Italians, estimated at $7,000,000; $7,500,000 invested in wholesale business, while the property of the Italian colony in New York City is estimated at considerably over $60,000,000, a value much below that of the Italian colonies of St. Louis, San Francisco and Chicago, seems to me adequate proof of these possibilities and their realization; but not to have recourse to sordid figures and dollars alone, let me say that the most remarkable progress is along the spiritual side.

It is estimated that there are more than 50,000

Italian children in the public schools of New York and adjacent cities. One young Italian on record has saved money earned by barbering to take him through Columbia University. Another who borrowed money from a far-seeing and generous professor, took his college course, and repaid his benefactor in full a very short time after leaving college. A third won the fellowship for the American school at Rome, so that an American institution sent the son of an Italian, now "one of us," we are happy to say, to Italy, to perfect his special scholarship. Therefore as the steamship lines (and there are now three excellent Italian lines, of one of which Signor Solari is the well-known inspector) ply back and forth between Italy and America, let us in this country give as kind a welcome to the countrymen of that land which all of us who visit learn to love so well, as we always receive from the ever charming and courteous Italians in Italy.

To my friends in Italy I send the expressions of greatest appreciation, *simpatia* and the sincerest affection, and I beg you to believe me, dear Princess,

Your loving and devoted friend,

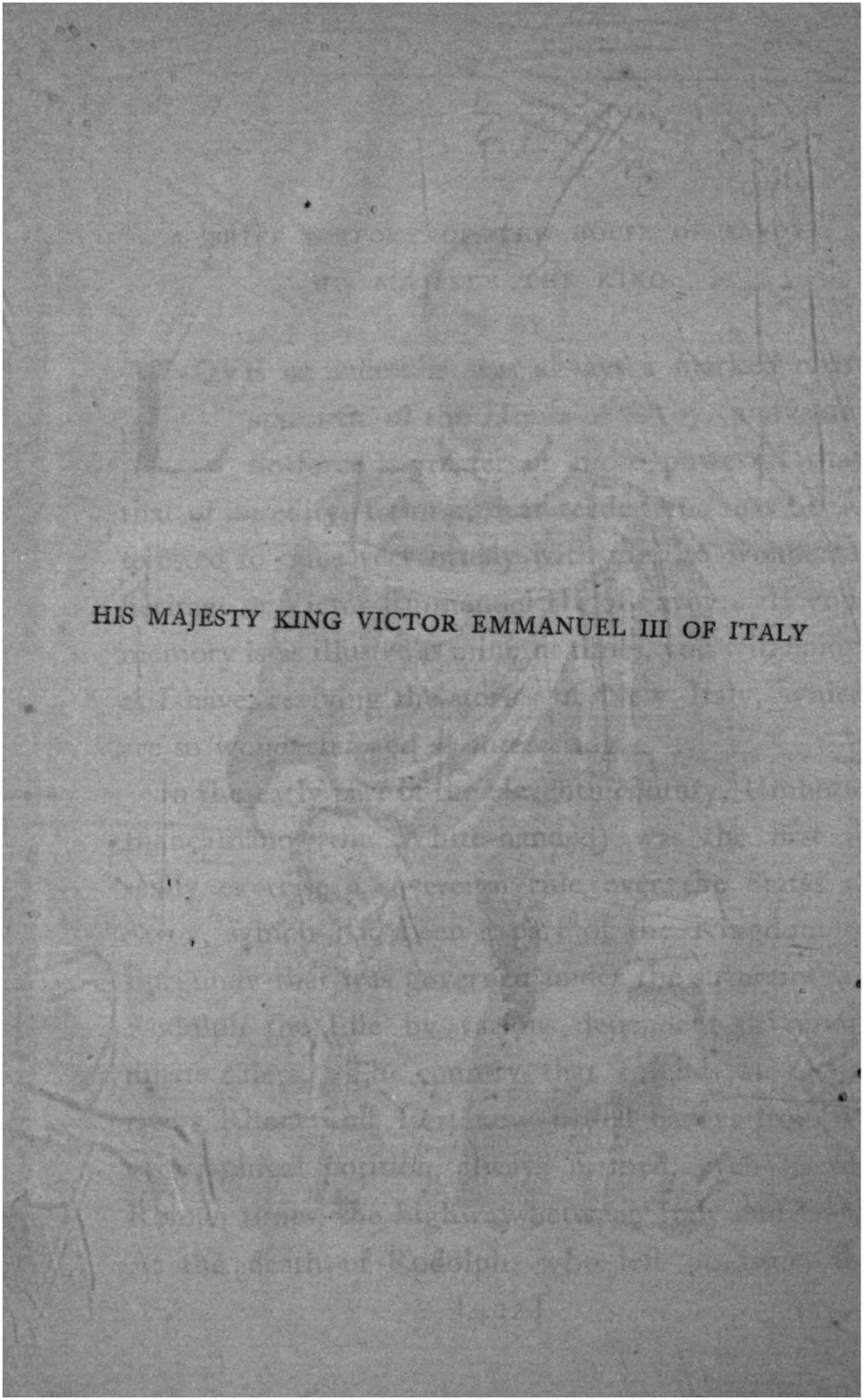
TRYPHOSA BATES BATCHELLER.

L

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE HOUSE OF SAVOY. HIS MAJESTY THE KING.

LOVE of ancestors was always a marked characteristic of the House of Savoy, and since no force is greater or more powerful than that of heredity, I think, dear reader, you may be interested to trace very briefly with me the wonderful heritage of Victor Emmanuel III of Savoy. If your memory is as illusive as mine at times, you will enjoy, as I have, reviving the stories of New Italy, which are so wonderful and so interesting.

In the early part of the eleventh century, Umberto Biancamano (the White-handed) was the first to really exercise a sovereign rule over the States of Savoy, which had been a part of the Kingdom of Burgundy that was governed under the suzerainty of Rudolph the Idle by various dependent or subordinate rulers. The country that extends along the rivers Rhone and Iser, now called Savoy, from its geographical position, always formed, even in old Roman times, the highway between Italy and Gaul, At the death of Rudolph, who left no issue, the



HIS MAJESTY KING VICTOR EMMANUEL III OF ITALY

Kingdom of Burgundy became split up into many principalities. The son of Umberto, Amadeo I, died without issue, and was succeeded by Otho, who married the pious Adelaide, the Princess of Susa and Turin, and through her he gradually extended his domain beyond the Alps into Italy.

The provinces situated on the confines of a kingdom were called marches, and thus the Count who governed and defended them from foreign invasion came to be called a Marquis. Later, however, every ruler who exercised dominion over several countships came also to be called a Marquis, however his dominions might be situated. The valley of Susa was originally a true marquisate, but after Otho of Savoy's marriage to Adelaide the title of Marquis passed over to the Counts of Savoy. A succession of Counts of Savoy follow, and Amedeo III died while returning from the unfortunate second crusade (1147–1149). His successor, Umberto III (called 'the' Saint) was renowned for his many Christian virtues as well as for his great courage. In late years (1838), he was solemnly canonized by the Pope.

The rulers of the House of Savoy maintained the constant struggle not only to hold their present possessions, but to increase their principalities, and in 1340 Amadeo VI, called Count Verde (Green Count),

made his appearance at a solemn tournament held at Chambery, where he first gave proof of his great prowess and dexterity. On this occasion he was clothed entirely in green, a color which from that time he adopted, and was henceforth known as the Green Knight. It was he who instituted the Order of the Collar of Savoy (now known by the name of St. Annunziata), which consists of fifteen knights, in honor of the fifteen mysteries of the Rosary. He was a great warrior, assisted the Popes in maintaining the Eastern Empire, defeated the army of the Visconti family at Milan, and through his diplomacy in settling various strifes in neighboring provinces added greatly to his own territorial possessions. His son, Amadeo VII, Conte Rosso (Red Count), was a worthy descendant of his father, and during his reign Nice came under the government of the House of Savoy.

It was in the year 1416, when the Emperor Sigismund, while passing through Chambery, raised the principality of Savoy to the honor of a dukedom, and Amadeo VIII, nephew of Count Verde, was the first Duke of the title, and assisted, through the advice and instigation of Carmagnola, the Venetians and Florentines to free themselves from the yoke of the Duke of Milan.

Alessandro Manzoni has described this battle of Maclodio in charming verse.

Later Amadeo gave his time and thought to legislation, and completed a codex called *Statuta Subaudiæ*, or Statutes of Savoy. This masterpiece gained for its author the surname of Solomon. He had been fortunate in every enterprise, conqueror over all his enemies, successful in all his undertakings, yet he was not satisfied; he must needs conquer himself. Like Charles V of Spain, he renounced the throne in favor of his son Louis, and passed the rest of his days in the convent of Riparglia, near Geneva, where, clothed as a hermit, he ended his days in solitary devotion. During the reign of his son Louis, the Dukes of Savoy received the title of King of Cyprus, a title which they retained down to the present century.

All through the early part of the fifteenth century, especially during the period when the Popes were in Avignon, European warriors were accustomed, even from distant lands, to descend upon the towns of Italy in order to sack them, and return, enriched with their booty, to their own country. The people of the Peninsula, however,—they can hardly yet be called under the unified name Italians,—learned to form companies to defend themselves from these

incursions, though the adventurers who for the most part formed these bands fought mainly for gold and glory, and for those who offered them the highest pay.

In 1453, the Turkish armies, after capturing Constantinople,—1123 years after Constantine the Great had transferred the seat of empire there, made themselves masters, under the leadership of the mighty warrior Mahomet II, of all Greece, whence they proceeded to descend upon Italy. A Venetian captain, Charles of Montone, by his intrepid bravery, prevented the Turks from crossing the Alps, but the whole country was alarmed, the more so as hurricanes and earthquakes seemed to follow one another in quick succession, carrying disaster in their path. Mahomet dispatched an army to the south of Italy and easily captured the city of Otranto.

Now the Pope became terrified, and fled to France. But the sudden death of Mahomet, from a terrible gangrene, arrested the danger which threatened Italy.

No sooner was the Peninsula free from the terror of foreign invasion, which had also largely put an end to the civil wars, than the arts and sciences began to revive. Many of the Princes of the various States of Italy began to adorn their country with

churches, palaces and libraries (printing had been invented in 1348). Florence now came to surpass all other cities of the Peninsula, and protected, governed and adorned, as it was by Cosmo di Medici and his son, Lorenzo the Magnificent, there gathered here most of the eminent literati, artists and great men of the time.

While Christopher Columbus was winning great glory for Genoa and Italy in the discovery of the New World, Charles VIII of France was marching across Tuscany to Naples, where he seized the throne of Ferdinand I.

Once in Italy the French were not so easily ousted, and a league was formed with the Pope, Venetians, Maximilian I, Emperor of Germany, Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain (Columbus' benefactor) and the Duke of Milan (who now regretted his treacherous invitation to the French to come to Italy) to force Charles' return to France.

Ferdinand was restored as King of Naples, but another incursion followed by Charles' successor, Louis XII, of France, who captured the city of Milan.

Venice had now (1509) become the most powerful republic of Italy, arousing the jealousy of all the other principalities of the Peninsula, and a great

league, called the League of Cambray, was formed by the principal potentates of Europe, including the Emperor of Germany, King of France, King of Spain, Pope Julius II, Dukes of Ferrara, Savoy and others, to diminish if not to crush the increasing power of the Venetians, who were beaten at the battle of Agnadello, though several Lombard cities were obliged to submit to the French rule and the cities of Romagna were forced to open their gates to the former rule of the Pope, while Puglia gave itself up to the Spanish. Thus, jealousy of one of their own principalities had caused several of the Italian dukedoms to fall under something much worse, the rule of the foreigner.

The French abused their rights as the victors, oppressed the conquered to such a degree that the Pope now became alarmed at the French ascendancy in Italy, and joined his old enemy, Venice, in order to drive them out, but it was Maximilian Sforza, Duke of Milan, who, with the aid of Swiss mercenaries, at last succeeded in driving the French entirely from Lombardy, though he was obliged to succumb somewhat later, to Francis I at the famous battle of Marignano (1515), called the Battle of the Giants. After all these sanguinary struggles things in the end were much as before. France remained

master in Lombardy; Ferdinand of Spain held Naples; the Pope controlled the cities of Romagna, and Venice continued to increase its marvelous commerce, the Venetian ships distributing importations from the East throughout Europe.

Lorenzo di Medici, the Magnificent, who had been elected Pope under the name of Leo X (1513), desired peace, happiness and the welfare of Italy. He encouraged artists and learning of all kinds. Under his protection many illustrious men arose, who have made Italy famous by the fruits of their genius, which all the world admires to-day. While many parts of Europe were still crude and ignorant, the great men of Italy, protected by the Pontiff, produced pictures, statues and other works of art, which still serve as models for all nations.

The beginning of the Basilica of St. Peter at Rome had been commenced under Julius II by the Florentine, Bramante. This great work thus begun was continued by Michael Angelo Buonarotti and Raffaele Sanzio.

At this time lived also the painter, poet, geometrician, mechanician and musician, Leonardo da Vinci, who gave to the world works of his great genius, and was the first to carry Italian art into France, where he died.

Charles V of Spain now became Emperor of Germany, ruler of Naples, Sicily, The Netherlands and all New America as far as then discovered, and a fierce struggle arose between this powerful monarch and Francis I of France for the rich dukedom of Lombardy. Poor Italy was again the scene of bloody battles, and at Pavia, in 1525, suffering from the treachery of Charles of Bourbon, the Italians were obliged to resign not only their rights to Lombardy, but to Burgundy, while Charles V gave the dukedom of Milan to Francis Sforza, who had been exiled to France, though a Spanish army was still maintained.

Charles now sent the Bourbon Prince to capture Rome with the pretext that the Pope had refused to grant certain concessions demanded by the Emperor, and the sacking of Rome by the Spanish soldiers under the French leader, who had been first false to his family and country, and was now false to his church, is one of the most frightful pages of history.

The Bourbon Charles now repaired to Florence, where he accomplished the fall of the republic, and reinstated the banished Medici.

Shortly after the fall of the Republic of Florence that of Siena fell likewise. It had twice driven out the Spaniards with great heroism, but at last, after

the death of Strozzi, was obliged to submit to the most humiliating conditions of peace.

During all this long, bloody struggle Piedmont had suffered intensely, and the unfortunate Prince Charles III saw his dominions all pass from his rule, with the exception of Nice and Vercelli, where he finally died of grief. His neighboring province of Genoa had been alternately under French and German rule, but at last, through the bravery of a citizen, Andrew Doria (1529), the republic was wrested from French rule and proclaimed a free state.

Still further complications now arose since Charles V determined to retire from his throne, and enter a monastery, and his empire was divided between his two sons, Phillip II receiving Spain, America, the Low Countries, Burgundy, Sardinia, the two Sicilies and Milan, while Ferdinand V became Emperor of Germany.

Henry II of France, always eager to recover Lombardy, and ever jealous of the grandeur of Spain, profited by the separation, to wage war against Phillip II in Flanders. The Duke of Savoy, Emanuel Filiberto, fighting with the Spanish forces, proved himself a wonderful warrior, performed great feats of valor and succeeded in gaining complete victory over the French at the Battle of St. Quentin (1557). A

statue of this great general is now standing on the Piazza of St. Carlo at Turin.

The Duke of Savoy also took part in the great battle of Lepanto against the Turks (1571), and Marcantonio Colonna commanded galleys in the name of the Pope, by whom he was given a triumphal entry into Rome after the complete defeat of the enemy.

(You will recall I spoke of the chart of this battle in the Colonna Palace.)

While St. Carlo Borromeo, whose great brass statue we have seen at his birth-place, Arona, on the shores of Lago Maggiore, was performing deeds of goodness and benevolence in the plague-fested city of Milan (1576), Venice, under the influence of Sarpi, was disgusted at the intrigues of the Roman Court, and was on the point of following the religious dissension of England and Germany, by separating itself from the Roman See, when the timely intervention of France and the Duke of Savoy brought about a reconciliation with the Pope.

Charles Emanuel of Savoy, surnamed the Great (1580), in consequence of the many things he accomplished, succeeded, though only through many hard-fought battles, in greatly adding to his territorial domains, and while the French were agitated by the

Huguenot wars, seized the opportunity to retake the Marquisate of Saluzzo, and in this way became master of the territory and commanded the passage of the Alps, by which the French were accustomed to enter Italy. He made an effort to drive from his domains the Vaudois, a sect of people who had espoused the doctrines of the Reformation, but at length, though he defined the limits of their abode with great severity, he ceased to persecute them.

Just at this time Ariosto's "Orlando Furioso" and Tasso's "Geruseleme Liberata" were being read, while Galileo was discovering the pendulum, inventing the telescope and proving, by his great book, Copernicus' theory that the earth revolved around the sun.

Italy had become in a certain way Spanish; the Spanish Viceroy governed Lombardy, Sicily, Sardinia and Naples, and Spanish influence exerted itself upon many of the other States. Even to-day many Spanish customs still exist in Italy, which have come down from that epoch.

Attacked by Spain, Savoy allied itself with France, and in the battle at Casale, where the Spanish were badly defeated, the Spanish General Leganez, full of disgust, sent the French General, allied with the Piedmontese, the following message:

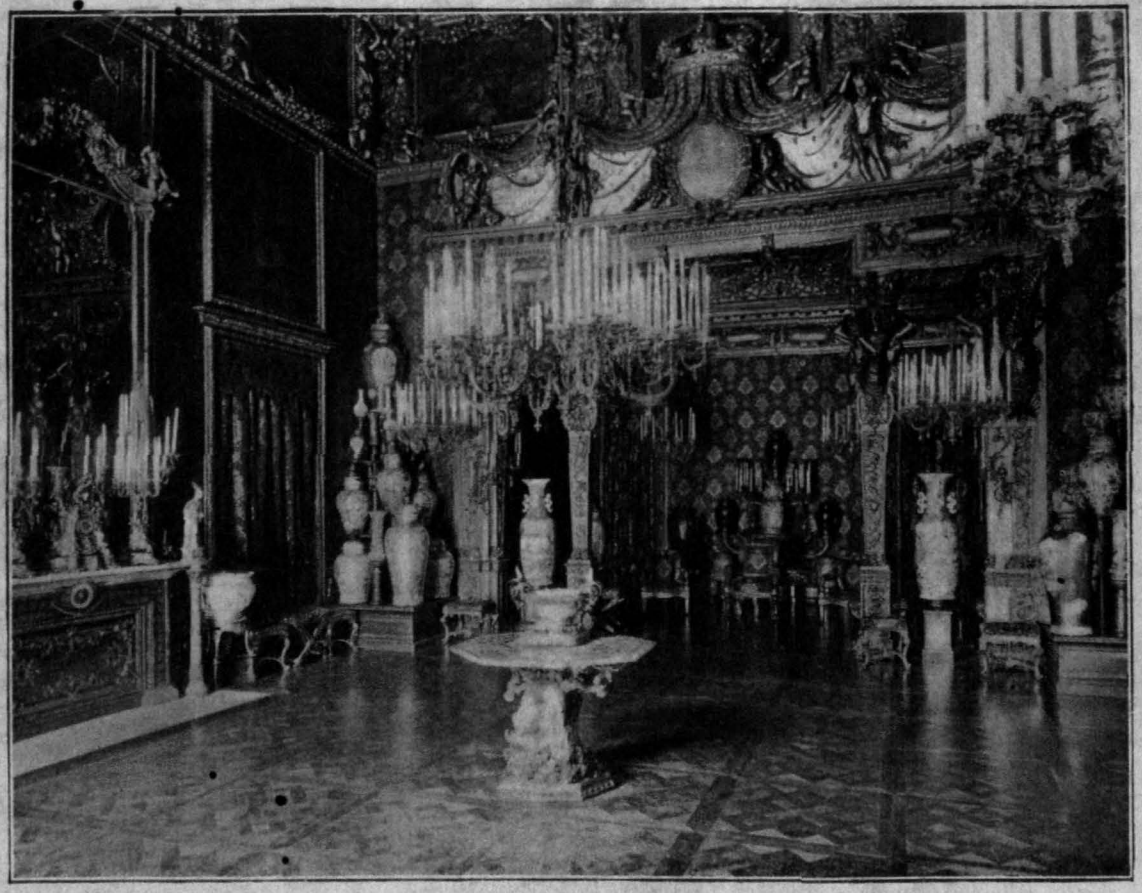
"If I were the King of France I would have your head cut off for having risked the battle with so small a force."

"And I," answered Artour, the French General, "had I the honor to be the King of Spain, would have the Marquis Leganez decapitated for allowing himself to be beaten by a mere handful of men."

Later, about 1665, during the war of the Spanish Succession, when it was found that Victor Amadeo II of Savoy had sided not with France but with Germany, a numerous army of French and Spaniards attacked his States. Savoy, Nice, Susa, Aosta, Ivrea and Vercelli unfortunately fell into the hands of the enemy, who then turned on Turin, which they besieged, but after a fierce struggle, Victor Amadeo, aided by the Austrian General, Prince Eugene, completely defeated the French, drove them out of Turin, and Piedmont rose again from its ruins. At the end of the war of the Spanish Succession by the Treaty of Rastadt, Spain was conceded to Philip V, nephew of Louis XIV of France, while Lombardy, Naples and Sardinia were united with Austria, and for over one hundred years France and Spain lost all their influence in Italy, the whole Peninsula becoming virtually Austrian.

By the victory of Turin and the Treaty of Rastadt, the States of Victor Amedeo were greatly enlarged, and he was the first of the Dukes of Savoy to

INTERIOR OF THE ROYAL PALACE AT TURIN



bear the title of the King of Sicily, though he soon exchanged Sicily for Sardinia with the Emperor of Germany, and the Dukes of Savoy have ever since been known as the Kings of Sardinia.

During the reign of the son of Victor Amedeo II, all Europe was stirred by the Polish war, and the War of the Succession of Austria (1731).

In regard to the choice of a King for Poland (Polish Kings were elected by the people), Austria and Russia took sides against France and Spain. The theatre of war was for the most part in Italy, and the King of Sardinia was forced in a measure to take part in order to preserve his own States. At the treaty of peace, signed after two years' fighting, it was decided that Charles Bourbon of Spain should be recognized King of Naples and Sicily, and he was the first to assume the title of King of the Two Sicilies.

The Austrian Succession of Maria Theresa was upheld by the King of Sardinia and England, and opposed by France and Spain, and a nine years' war ensued. At length the powerful army of Austrians and Piedmontese succeeded in driving out the French and Spanish forces, and Italy enjoyed several years of much-needed peace.

In 1799 the French Revolution startled the world, and the great Napoleon appears upon the Italian

scene. On his entrance to Italy he found the country divided in this wise: Piedmont belonged to the House of Savoy which had taken the title of King of Sardinia. Lombardy was under the Emperor of Germany; the two republics of Genoa and Venice continued to exist, but in degenerate form; in the two Sicilies and the Dukedom of Parma, Princes who were descended from the Spanish Bourbons, were still reigning; Lucca was a republic; Tuscany was ruled by a Grand Duke, brother of the Emperor of Austria; Rome and the Romagna formed the States of the Church, in whose midst was the little Republic of San Marino.

What Napoleon accomplished in Italy and the marvelous way in which he placed Italy under French rule in an incredibly short space of time, is quite familiar to all.

After the battle of Marengo (1800) all further thought of opposition to Napoleon vanished, and even the Pope did exactly as bidden. But once Emperor, Napoleon made the great mistake of placing on the conquered thrones members of his family, utterly inadequate, many of them, for their positions, and who became not only annoying to him, but worked him positive mischief.

The King of Sardinia could not hope to with-

stand the French invasion, and Piedmont became for the time, the Sub-Alpine Republic, and Prince Borghese, who had married Pauline Bonaparte, was made Governor. Savoy and Nice were annexed to France. Eliza Bonaparte was given Tuscany; Murat, brother-in-law of Napoleon, was made King of Naples; Louis Bonaparte was made King of Holland, and Lucien was made King of Westphalia.

The great Napoleon did much for Italy in many ways; in the establishment of schools, in the building of wonderful roads and bridges that are used to-day, and he made many other improvements which remain to remind one throughout Italy, and indeed throughout Europe, that, however criticised by his enemies, Napoleon lived and labored for the permanent good of the countries which came under his rule.

After the Congress of Vienna (1815), Italy enjoyed some years of tranquillity, and by virtue of the treaty agreed on at Vienna, the legitimate princes were for the most part restored to their domains, and pristine forms of government established.

Sardinia, Piedmont, Savoy and Novara were restored to their former King, Genoa being also added to his dominions. The countries belonging to Venice and Lombardy were made over to Austria under the name of the Lombardo-Venetian King-

dom. The Neapolitan and Tuscan States were restored to their former sovereigns; the Pope again took possession of his Roman States. The dukedoms of Reggio, Modena and Mirandola were given to Francis, Duke of Austria, while those of Parma, Piacenza and Guastella were given to Marie Louise, wife of Napoleon.

After this, Italy enjoyed some years of tranquillity, and then followed the disastrous revolutions in Sicily and Naples against King Ferdinand, that were put down eventually by Austrian arms. The Pope issued an edict at this time (1820) in which he stated that if the people of Italy must be so afflicted by the scourge of war, he, as an essentially pacific ruler, intended to preserve perfect neutrality toward all nations. In this way Rome was preserved for the time from disasters of war.

In Piedmont, however, the revolutionary spirit became intense, and Victor Emmanuel I, hearing that many of the cities had joined the rebels, abdicated in favor of his brother, Carlo Felice, then living at Modena, meanwhile appointing his cousin, Charles Albert, regent. The much-demanded Constitution, similar to the Spanish Constitution exacted in Naples, was insisted on by the populace, and finally granted, but its life was shorter even than that at

Naples; the Austrian General in Milan was called upon for assistance, and the Austrians, marching on Turin, entered the city without resistance and the whole revolution collapsed.

Instead of liberating Piedmont and Naples, and forming a united Italy, the revolutionists had thus far only succeeded in adding one more citadel, Alessandria, to be occupied by the Austrians. Nevertheless the spirit of the revolution still remained and there was in the secret societies, or Carbonari, a definite plan to unite all Italy into one republic, to remove the Pope from Rome, and to drive all the Kings of Italy from their thrones.

In 1846 Pius IX was elected to the Pontifical seat, and his first act was to grant a general amnesty. He promoted many other reforms, which were received with great applause and admiration, and the revolutionists seized this opportunity of toleration to spread anew throughout Italy the tempting idea of making it one united land, and driving out the Austrian tyrants from Lombardy. The cry soon arose on every hand, "Long live Italy, long live Pio Nono, and death to the Austrians!" The Milanese were the first to take arms against the Austrians, but in the beginning of the War of Independence the Milanese would have fared sadly indeed, had it not

been for the help given them by Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, who, at the death of Carlo Felice had ascended the throne. Under the bad leadership of General Ramorino, the Piedmontese suffered a fearful defeat at Novara, and Charles Albert, broken-hearted at the loss of the battle, spoke to the assembled chiefs of his army in this wise:

"As I can this day neither save Italy nor die as a soldier, my obligation to my country is ended. I can no longer render service to my subjects, to whose happiness I have devoted eighteen years of my life, and therefore I lay down my crown, and place it on the head of my son and successor. I am no longer King. Your King is now my son Victor Emmanuel II."

And what a King and what a son!

After the battle of Novara, Piedmont had to pay 1,200,000 francs to Austria as the price of peace, and poor Charles Albert, oppressed with grief at his fallen fortunes, died in 1849.

In Rome also affairs were becoming desperate, and the assassination of Count Rossi, President of the Pope's Ministry, and a man who exerted his best influences and great ability for the reorganization of the States of Italy, brought consternation to every one. At the time of his death he had opened negotiations with Naples, Florence and Turin, hoping

thus to form a basis for a national federation of the Italian States. The revolutionists saw that the establishment of law and order and a new Italy, under Papal rule, would but ill meet their cherished hopes of a great, independent republic; Count Rossi paid the price of their disapproval with his life.

After the murder of Count Rossi, things went from bad to worse; the revolutionists besieged the Vatican, removed the guards and pointed cannon at the entrance. Pio Nono in disguise escaped from the Vatican at night, and, aided by Count Spauro, joined Cardinal Antonelli at Gaeta. General confusion followed, the Papal adherents were terrified, the indifferent were astounded, but the revolutionists were filled with exultation, and immediately took the preliminary steps towards the proclaiming of a republic, by establishing a provisional government, which was called a *Junta*. The leading men of the Papal Government nearly all relinquished their posts; the Chambers and Municipal Body resigned, and, under the leadership of Joseph Galletti of Bologna, the following decree was issued February 9, 1849: "The Papacy has fallen *de facto* and *de jure* from being the head of the Roman States. The National Government will now take the glorious name of Roman Republic."

Spain, France, Portugal, Austria and Naples, all came forward now to restore the Pope to his condition of independence and dignity.

Piedmont and Tuscany, on account of internal dissensions, refused to join the league of the Catholic powers. Having tried all pacific means in vain, the allied powers now determined to intervene by force of arms, in order to restore Pius IX to his throne.

The French were the first on the scene, the Austrians advancing by way of Lombardy and Tuscany.

In the midst of the general hostilities, Giuseppe Garibaldi, the bold and courageous man who was afterwards to prove himself one of the real liberators of Italy, appeared on the scene; a man of action, obedient in supreme emergencies to the inspiration of his own genius, he came forward now with fifteen hundred picked men to the aid of the Republican party. He was received with enthusiasm by the then heads of the government, and fierce fighting now ensued against the French, who only succeeded in entering the city after repeated assaults, and order was at last restored by the French General Oudinot. Order had also been restored in Piedmont, where Victor Emmanuel had become King, and the Grand Duke Leopold had again control over Tuscany.

The French, after having re-established the Pope

on his throne, returned in part to their own country, leaving, however, a garrison in Rome, sufficient to quell any disorders that might afterwards arise. The Austrians maintained garrisons in Lombardy, also a close watch on the Papal States, and for some ten years Italy was at peace.

Piedmont, during this time, under the reign of Victor Emmanuel, and under the guidance of her greatest statesman, Cavour, continued steadily forward, consolidating her power and extending her influence.

With the most consummate tact and diplomatic daring, Cavour made an alliance between Piedmont and France, always placing Piedmont in the light of one of the great European powers. To justify these assumptions, Piedmont sent 20,000 men under General La Marmora to the Crimea in the war with France and England against Russia, and those soldiers distinguished themselves at the victory of the allies over the Russians on the river Tchernaya, and reaped their full glory and benefit therefrom.

After the disastrous battle against the Austrians at Novara in 1849, an armistice rather than a real peace had been concluded, and fierce animosities remained on each side. Austria began to make powerful armaments in the Lombardo-Venetian territory, and Pied-

mont, seeing war threatened, began to arm herself in opposition; meanwhile the idea of a United Italy steadily gained ground throughout the peninsula.

Cavour's diplomacy with Emperor Napoleon III was remarkable. His frequent journeyings back and forth from Piedmont to France, his cleverly laid plans, which he still more cleverly succeeded in executing, are all well-known matters of history. Napoleon III provoked a rupture with Austria, and on Piedmont's refusing to disarm generally, war was formally declared on April 26th, 1859. The French troops with Napoleon III at their head, and led by the best generals in France, at once poured into Piedmont by way of Genoa and Mont Cenis.

The first real battle was at Montebello near Casteggio, where the Austrians were worsted. Another battle followed at Palestro, where the allies led by Victor Emmanuel, displayed great courage, and at the battle of Magenta, on the fourth of June the Austrians were completely routed.

After these successes Victor Emmanuel and Emperor Napoleon III made a triumphal entry into Milan on January 8th. More victories followed, but the decisive battle was fought at Solferino where the fighting line extended ten miles, and where 500,000 men were under arms. The Emperor Napoleon, the

King of Sardinia, and the Emperor of Austria commanded their respective armies in person, and it was indeed such a battle as reminded one of the days of Aëtius and Attila. The glory or disgrace of France and Piedmont hung in the balance.

The fighting began at four in the morning on June 24th, and lasted till late the next afternoon, when, favored by a violent storm, the allies assailed the enemy with so much vehemence and courage that after tremendous fighting the victory was theirs. The enemy retired across the Mincio, to an impregnable position in a plain defended by the four fortresses of Mantua, Peschiera, Verona, and Legnano.

It seemed most hazardous to attempt to attack those fortresses and run the risk of losing all that had been already gained; therefore the preliminaries of peace were signed at Villafranca and peace concluded at Zurich. This peace was, however, far from satisfactory to Piedmont, for, as the price of the assistance from Napoleon III, they were obliged to cede to France Savoy and Nice. Thus, while it gave Lombardy to the King of Sardinia, it was far from freeing Italy from foreign domination from sea to sea.

This treaty of Villafranca was a fearful blow and disappointment to the hopes and aspirations of the Italian people, for they saw the brightest chance that

had ever occurred since the old Roman times, of a free and united country, suddenly vanish before them, and they knew themselves to be in almost the same condition as they were before the war began. Venetia was still in the hands of the Austrians; but though the States of Southern Italy were to remain under the rule of the Pope, Piacenza, Parma, from which Marie Louise had taken flight, Modena, Massa, Carrara and Tuscany, having driven out the Grand Duke from Florence, and Bologna under Marquis d'Azeglio, declared themselves in favor of annexation under the rule of the King of Sardinia.

The stipulation in the Villafranca treaty that forbade a foreign army to enter any of the Italian States for the sake of carrying out the provisions of the treaty, made it possible for the Piedmontese government with Rattazzi at the head, to quietly pursue their purpose of annexation, assimilate the laws and institutions of all the different States, so that the political world of Europe should regard the annexation of these States to Piedmont as a *fait accompli*.

Cavour now came forward again, and with the extraordinary sagacity with which he was endowed, added to his wonderful belief in the justice and ultimate success of his cause, he brought over France and England to his views.

He pointed out the impossibility of forcing the population of Central Italy to receive again the reactionary governments which they had expelled from their respective capitals, unless by military force; a plebiscite was resorted to in the various States which were annexed, and a large majority in all but Tuscany declared itself. It seemed very unjust that Savoy and Nice, which had been the cradle of the dynasty of Piedmont, should be separated from the now so much desired United Italy, but both provinces by a majority of votes decided for annexation to France.

Victor Emmanuel is said to have declared when obliged to submit to this decision, "If Austria were not on my heels, by the Almighty, I would not have yielded Nice and Savoy to France,—not if I had been obliged to march an army in their defense."

The new Parliament, with members chosen from Lombardy, Tuscany and the other annexed States, now opened at Turin. The King, in his opening speech, said: "Italy is no longer an open field for the ambition of foreigners; from this time it belongs to the Italians themselves. We shall have many obstacles to surmount; but upheld by public opinion and by the affection of the people, I will not allow any of our rights to be violated or diminished. Attached

as my ancestors have always been to the Catholic faith and the Pope, nevertheless if the ecclesiastical authority will have recourse to arms for its temporal interests, I would find in my conscience and in the traditions of my family the force necessary to maintain our civil liberties as well as my own authority intact, and shall have to answer for this only to my own people and to God."

It was only natural that Southern Italy and Sicily should catch the enthusiasm for unification. The revolutionary spirit was the more increased by the galling tyranny of the police officers of the new King, Francesco II, especially in Sicily, where, although there were revolts and several attempts at insurrection, there was not the widespread revolution that the exaggerated reports spread throughout Italy.

In 1860 Garibaldi, gaining the secret sympathy of the King of Sardinia, now determined to seize the opportunity to aid the Sicilian insurgents, who were driven from their homes by cruelty of government officials, and had retired in small bands to the mountains, where they lived perforce after the manner of brigands.

Embarking from Genoa, Garibaldi, who had gathered around him many of his old companions of the

"red shirt," landed in Sicily, put himself at the head of the revolutionary movement, and having worsted the royal troops in a small encounter, determined to march on Palermo, of which Garibaldi, after much fighting, took possession, and quickly became master of the entire island.

He then crossed the straits of Messina with his ever-increasing army, and soon Calabria, Puglia, and the Abruzzi opened their gates before him as a conqueror. All Naples was in confusion. The King fled, and Garibaldi, trusting to the magic of his name, left behind him the main body of his army, and entered Naples with only a half dozen friends and supporters, amidst the universal cheers of the whole population.

Then the Kingdom of Naples, which had lasted more than eight hundred years, now fell almost without striking a blow, under the prestige of a popular leader, aided by the enthusiasm which had been created by the party of action in favor of a free and united Italy.

The Pope, alarmed, endeavored to raise up an army to maintain and increase his temporal power. Victor Emmanuel saw that the entrance of the foreign army was alike dangerous to Sardinia and the other States of Italy, and at once organized an

army in two divisions, one under General Cialdini, which passed along the Adriatic shores, while the other under Generals Faute and Della Rocca occupied the valley of the Tiber.

Garibaldi meantime gave battle once more against the royal troops, and won a victory on the banks of the Volturno, whence he now entered Gaeta.

He was now sole dictator of Naples. He established many reforms, instituted schools, expelled the Jesuits, and proclaimed general religious liberty. The Republican party, which had previously been led by Mazzini, and with which Garibaldi felt the greatest sympathy, now tried to prevent the annexation of the two Sicilies to the Kingdom of Victor Emmanuel, preferring to preserve it as a center for republican institutions, from which the policy of a united Italian Republic could be later proclaimed.

But Garibaldi was far too wise a man, and too earnest a patriot, to be induced to any hasty adoption of republican institutions, and he fully realized the necessity of following the plebiscite as the only system in deciding the annexation or autonomy of the southern provinces. The result of the plebiscite proclaimed for annexation by a large majority, and the most sanguine hopes of the National party were realized.

Victor Emmanuel now marched to Naples, to render assistance to the forces of Garibaldi, and complete the conquest of the country. All the towns through which he passed greeted their new king with acclamations of joy.

Near Capua the two of the foremost actors in the history of the formation of United Italy met with most cordial greetings, and on the 7th of November the King, accompanied by Garibaldi, made a triumphal entrance into Naples. The result of the plebiscite was brought to Victor Emmanuel the next day, by a deputation inviting him to assume the government of the whole of Southern Italy. Garibaldi wished to keep the dictatorship for a year previous to the formal annexation, but Victor Emmanuel (fearing to compromise the country in the eyes of Catholic Europe by an independent attack on Rome) for many excellent reasons refused, and Garibaldi, considering his work completed, retired to his cottage in Caprera.

Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, was now King of Italy by the grace of God and by the will of the nation. But Rome still remained in the hands of the Pope, and Cavour, with his rare ability, now proceeded to untangle this fast knot in the solution of Italian unity. He declared that Rome was by

right the proper capital of Italy, and maintained the famous doctrine of "a free church in a free state." To reconcile the Catholic powers, he announced his plan to give to the Pope perfect freedom of action in all spiritual matters, while reserving for the Kingdom of Italy the prestige of its ancient capital. This great speech made in the Parliament was the last act of Cavour's wonderful and eventful life, for on the 6th of June he died.

The occupation of Rome was now the question of the moment, and all pacific methods were attempted, always meeting the same reply, "*Non possumus.*" The non-success of pacific efforts excited the party of action to stronger methods of procedure. Garibaldi was soon to the fore once more. "*Roma o morte!*" rang throughout Italy, but the government did not wish to compromise Italy in the eyes of Napoleon, who still continued the occupation of Rome and sent to arrest the most daring revolutionists; Garibaldi returned again to Caprera.

He went now to Sicily, the scene of his former successes, and enrolled many of the Sicilian youths under his banner; but when it became known that his goal was Rome, Victor Emmanuel sent a royal army to watch the progress of events.

Garibaldi nevertheless proceeded, but his reception

this time in Naples was far different from his first. The country was quiet, annexed by its own wish to the government of Victor Emmanuel, and when the government troops opposed his advance, he fired, and after a brief combat, was taken prisoner with all his followers, who were dispersed throughout Italy. The Italian troops were not allowed to cross the borders of the Papal States, and the boundary lands and frontiers became the haunts of numerous bands of brigands, who, when pursued, took refuge in the Roman territory.

France began to wish to be relieved from the embarrassments which the Roman occupation now occasioned, and an agreement was at last reached between the Italian Government and the French Emperor, that neither army should attack the other, and that the French troops should gradually be removed from Rome; the King was also to transfer his capital to some other convenient locality, and Florence was selected,—en route for Rome, in the minds of many.

When the agreement between the French and Italian governments became known, Cardinal Antonelli, the Pope's Prime Minister, at first remonstrated, and then began to enroli troops.

The Italian Government now signed an offensive

and defensive alliance with Prussia. This brought the question of Venice once more into prominence.

Prussia declared war against Austria in 1866, and Italy, according to the treaty signed in Berlin, did the same. The Italians fought bravely at the battle of Custoza and Villafranca, but though they were worsted by the Austrians in both, their armies remained unbroken. The Prussians meantime marched victoriously on Vienna, and a treaty was soon signed by virtue of which Italy obtained Venice, which, by another plebiscite, was incorporated as a part of the Italian Kingdom.

Now that the Venetian question was plainly settled, and Venetia added to the Kingdom of Italy, the desire for the possession of Rome to become the capital became more ardent than ever. The Holy See offered a firm and unwavering resistance to any interference of civil power; but meantime Napoleon was gradually removing his troops from Rome according to his treaty with Victor Emmanuel, although he insisted that Italy should not depart from her agreement to prevent any hostile force from entering Rome and causing revolution in the Papal city.

No sooner had the French troops left Rome than the revolutionists, headed by Garibaldi, who issued

a proclamation urging the Roman people to revolt, started a secret expedition to invade the Papal State, this against the express wishes and orders of the Government, which arrested Garibaldi and sent him to his home in Caprera. Nevertheless bands of insurgents passed the Papal frontiers, and urged the population to revolt. The Roman Government complained to the French Emperor, who, indignant at what he considered a breach of faith on the part of Italy, prepared to send troops back to Rome, as a protection to the Holy See against invasion.

Garibaldi unwisely endeavored once more to attack Rome, but was defeated by the Papal and French troops, and forced to cross the frontier where he was again arrested. Victor Emmanuel now endeavored to form an alliance between Italy, Austria and France, hoping in this way to come to an amicable settlement of all the outstanding questions, — the Roman first of all. Had Napoleon III yielded to those proposals, his fate would, it is generally thought, have been much less terrible.

The year 1867 closed with the publication of the Dogma of Infallibility.

1870 brought the war between France and Prussia, and the fearful defeats of the French arms are too well known to need mention here. Suffice it to say

that France needed her every soldier, and all French troops were now withdrawn from Rome; though Victor Emmanuel had too much respect for his compact with Napoleon to take advantage of his misfortunes to enter Rome by force of arms; but after the catastrophe at Sedan, which was followed by the deposition of the Emperor, and the proclamation of the French Republic, there was nothing which forced him to observe a treaty with a power that now ceased to exist. England and France encouraged the occupation of Rome by Victor Emmanuel. Spain had her own revolution to look after. Austria had been defeated (and lost Venice), and was not in a position to dictate or open strife anew. Moreover since the publication of the Dogma of Infallibility of the Pope, a great change had taken place in the minds of the people as to the advisability of the Pope's having temporal power.

Victor Emmanuel once more had recourse to diplomacy and the ways of peace, but all efforts on his part to persuade Pius IX to come to an agreement met with the same dogged obstinacy. Accordingly an army of fifty thousand men under General Cadorna was marched across the frontier into the Papal territory.

The inhabitants welcomed them as deliverers rather

than as invaders, and on the twentieth of September (1870), the army arrived under the walls of the city, and with but a slight struggle and a few shots at the Porta Pia, a breach was made in the walls, and the national army entered Rome amidst the enthusiastic acclamations of the people.

At first the Pope meditated flight, but no friendly country was near him. He therefore shut himself up in the Vatican, where, according to the tradition established by him, the Popes are to-day the prisoners of the King of Italy

Directly after the occupation of Rome, a plebiscite was taken to determine the wishes of the Roman people; 40,895 votes were cast for annexation of Rome to the Italian Kingdom, and 96 against it.

On the 9th of October a deputation of citizens, headed by the Duke of Sermoneta, presented themselves before the King, and gave him the result of the plebiscite, formally proclaiming the Pontifical States henceforth annexed to the Kingdom of Italy. Steps were at once taken to transfer the Government to Rome, its natural seat. From that time forth the whole effort of the King and his ministers was to develop the resources of the country, to promote its industries, and extend its relations with foreign countries, reform its finances, organize its army and

navy, and to promote the cause of national education.

Victor Emmanuel (*Il Re Galantuomo*), died on the 9th of January, 1878, receiving, in due form, the absolution of the Church, lamented by a whole nation, whose freedom he had done more than any one to win. A month later Pius IX also died. King Umberto I proved a worthy successor to his gallant father, and his sad death is still fresh in the minds of all lovers of Italy.

King Victor Emmanuel III is surely a worthy, fitting successor to his great progenitors. With such a father as Umberto I, and such a mother as Queen Margherita, it is not surprising that Victor Emmanuel III is a very fine man. Every care was lavished upon his education, and he is one of the first scholars of Europe. He is keenly alive to all the best interests of Italy; has taken an active part in the recent agricultural improvements throughout Italy, especially in the endeavors to drain and improve the Roman Campagna; he has given his patronage and help to the first Italian International Exhibition at Milan, which was opened most brilliantly a short time ago, and in the recent distress following the earthquake in Calabria and the eruption of Vesuvius, His Majesty not only gave most

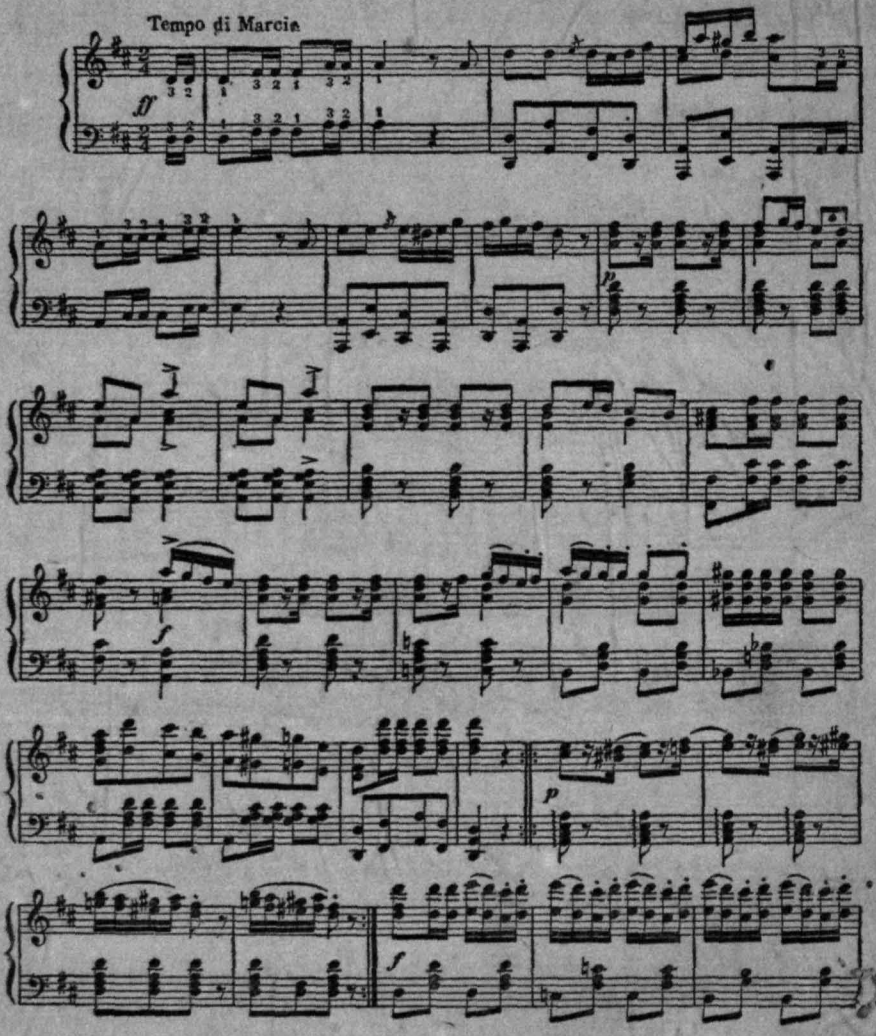
generously to the sufferers, but went himself among them, and both he and the Queen personally gave aid and assistance to those in peril and sorrow.

These personal endeavors of the King and Queen in times of danger to care for the welfare of their people will ever be remembered, and have placed the names of Victor Emmanuel and Elena deep in the hearts of the Italian people. United Italy has had a glorious beginning with such Kings as Victor Emmanuel and Umberto I, and with Victor Emmanuel III, it has the promise of a great and brilliant future.

THE END.

MARCIA REALE
della Casa di Savoia.

G. GABETTI.



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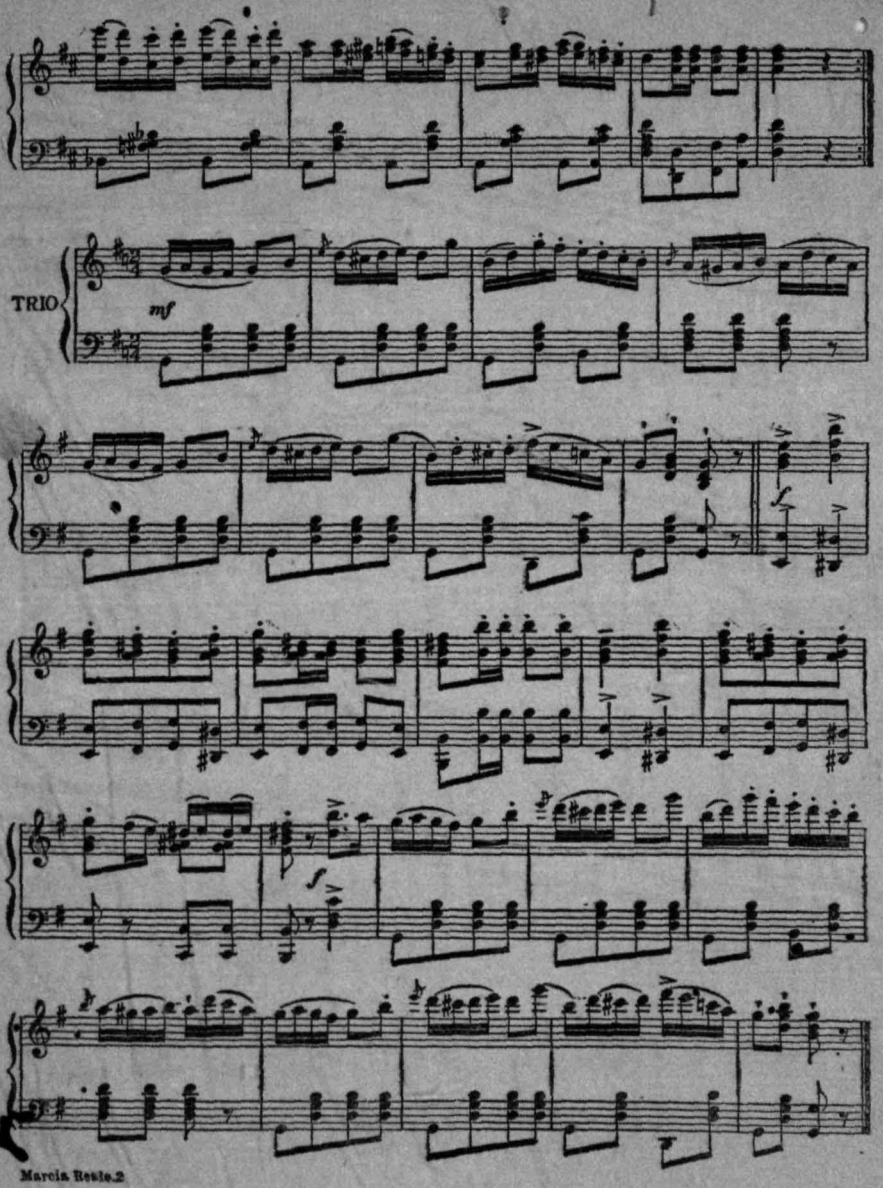
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