boldly protested against their annexation by force and then solemnly withdrew. Bismarck believed that by shrewdly permitting them a degree of home rule their opposition might be gradually undermined. They were granted a Provincial Committee to sit at Strasburg and discuss all bills, which were afterwards submitted to the Reichstag, concerning their domestic and fiscal affairs. Gradually the functions of this committee were enlarged. In 1879 the government of the province was removed from the direction of the chancellor and intrusted to a statthalter or imperial envoy to reside at Strasburg. Marshal Manteuffel, a distinguished soldier and statesman, was appointed to the position. By mild and conciliatory measures he did his utmost to reconcile the people, but in vain. Their aversion was only the more openly expressed. Then followed a policy of violent repression. The chancellor, Caprivi, declared in 1890 that the attempt to foster German feeling having failed, nothing was left but to dig deeper the ditch which separated Alsace-Lorraine from France. Though powerless to resist, the Alsace-Lorrainers have become no less sullen and determined in their anti-German sentiments.

The Culturkampf (1873–1887). — Bismarck, now a prince and chancellor of the empire, had met nothing but success. In the Culturkampf, or civilization fight, he undertook a task beyond his powers, in which he was to encounter his great political defeat. He had unified Germany by merging it under one central power. The Catholic Church in Prussia, as well as all other churches, must pass through the same process of centralization and be merged in and made subordinate to the state. In 1873 the Prussian minister of public worship, Dr. Falk, introduced and succeeded in passing the so-called Falk or May Laws. Ostensibly these laws aimed at securing liberty to the laity, a national and German rather than an ultramontane training to the clergy and protection for the inferior clergy against their superiors. They provided that all theological seminaries should be controlled by the state, that the state should examine all candidates for the priesthood and should furthermore have the right to approve or reject all ecclesiastical appointments. Pope Pius IX remonstrated in an urgent letter to the emperor. The Catholic bishops collectively declared they could not obey these laws. But they

were none the less vigorously enforced by fine, imprisonments and exile. It was religious persecution on an enormous scale in the latter half of the nineteenth century. Within eight years' time the parishes of more than one-fifth of the 8500 Catholic priests in Prussia were vacant, and no successors could be appointed. The perfect union of the Catholic clergy and laity with no weapon but passive resistance won the victory in the end. The May Laws were suspended in 1881 and later on practically repealed. After 1887 all state interference in the administration of the church and in the education of the priesthood was wholly abandoned.

Economic Policy (1878–1890). — Up to 1848 the Zollverein had favored a protective policy. Afterwards in the sixties had followed a system of reciprocity treaties with France, Austria, Great Britain, Italy and other countries showing a marked tendency toward free trade. The national liberals advocated abolition of all duties on raw materials, a policy supposed to enjoy the approval of Prince Bismarck. But in December, 1878, the chancellor sent a communication to the Federal Council, wherein he condemned the existing policy and advocated higher rates as a means to increase the revenues of the state. His will was law. A new tariff was introduced and passed. It placed heavy duties on raw materials and considerably increased the duties on textile goods and other articles already taxed. Subsequently, until his fall in 1890, the tariff was forced higher and higher.

The Triple Alliance (1879–). — Only the principal facts and not all the details are known in reference to the triple alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy. Austria, after the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–1878, whereby she had secured Hertzegovina and Bosnia, was uneasy on the Russian frontier. Neither Austria nor Russia was likely to forget the part the former had played in the Crimean War. So she concluded a secret treaty with Germany in 1879, "an alliance for peace and mutual defence," in case either Power should be attacked by Russia or by some state supported by Russia. Italy, without reason to dread attack, but probably desirous of imperial fellowship and recognition, asked to be admitted to this alliance. Meanwhile, from 1887 to 1890 another secret treaty existed between Germany and Russia which only became known to the world by the revelations of Bismarck in 1896.

Death of Emperor William I (March 9, 1888). — The absolutist policy, with which he began his reign as king of Prussia, had been maintained by him as German emperor and won a magnificent success. The astounding growth of the socialist party was demonstration against a principle rather than against a man. The appreciation of his great achievements had made the sovereign, who was hated and hooted at the beginning of his reign, the idol of his people at the end. His simple and homely ways, his blunt soldierly bearing and his chivalric devotion to his mother's memory won the hearts even of those Germans who were the most hostile to his political principles. His death at the age of ninety-one was received with a consternation of grief. Though Bismarck and Moltke outlived him, it was an anxious question in the minds of many whether the imperial fabric he had built up would survive his departure.

Frederick I (1888). — The Crown Prince Frederick succeeded. He had made a splendid record as a soldier in the Austro-Prussian and Franco-Prussian wars. On several occasions he had shown liberal tendencies, which his marriage with Victoria, crown princess of Great Britain and eldest daughter of Queen Victoria, was supposed to fortify. He had even protested against the Army bill of 1862 and given public expression of his dissent from a subsequent despotic action of the government. But a fatal throat disease had fastened upon him before his accession. It was only as a doomed and speechless invalid that he occupied the throne. His three months' reign is memorable for his spirit of self-forgetfulness and devotion to duty.

Reign of William II (1888–). — William II was twenty-nine years old when he became emperor. His first proclamation was addressed to the army and navy, and he has manifested ever since an almost passionate interest in these branches of the public service. His speech on opening the Reichstag, as well as his first address to the German people, indicated his absolutist policy. Louis XIV himself was in the seventeenth century not a more convinced impersonification of the divine right of kings. "The supreme guardian of law and order," he regards himself as crowned by God, as the anointed elector of the divine will, and as entitled to the unquestioning obedience of his subjects. A wonderful activity or restlessness has been the most prominent characteristic of his reign. No other

European sovereign has been such a constant traveller to foreign lands. No other European sovereign has so interfered not only in all branches of administration, but in all matters relating to public, social and religious life. A ready speaker, there is hardly a topic left untouched in his speeches, and his speeches have been delivered on all occasions. Always the dominant sentiment, whatever the theme, is the doctrine of autocracy.

The first year of his reign was marked by an event of historic significance. In October, 1888, the free cities of Hamburg and Bremen, whose right to remain free ports had been ratified in the imperial constitution of 1871, renounced their special and ancient privileges and completely merged themselves in the common Fatherland. Great pomp attended the ceremony. The emperor came in person to accept their patriotic sacrifice. Except that their sovereignty was represented in the Bundesrath by the side of that of princes, the last vestige of the Hanseatic League had disappeared.

Between the veteran chancellor, who had controlled the helm for almost a generation, and the youthful emperor, eager to exercise his power, there was sure to be friction. The temper of Bismarck, by no means pliable, had not softened with success and age. The chief of the staff, the Count of Waldersee, and other courtiers fostered the growing alienation. The chancellor persisted in a bill which the emperor disapproved. The emperor issued a decree in a sense which the chancellor had always opposed. The chancellor refused to repeat a certain conversation, although urged to do so by the emperor. On March 17, 1890, came a message from the emperor that he was waiting for the chancellor's resignation. The chancellor refused to resign. Then followed a direct order demanding his resignation. Bismarck in his fall did not manifest the self-control he had shown in his powerful days, and filled Germany with his complaints. It was his mistake to believe himself still essential to the state, when his work had been long since done. Yet the emperor might have dealt more gently with the old man, to whom the empire owed its existence and to whom he himself was indebted for his imperial crown. In 1894 the sovereign and the subject were publicly reconciled amid universal rejoicing, and the latter received an ovation from all classes at Berlin. Afterwards he exercised

no further influence upon affairs, but quietly resided at his castle of Friedrichsruhe until his death (July 30, 1898).

A work of immense utility was officially inaugurated in 1891. This was the Baltic Canal. Beginning at Holtenau on the Bay of Kiel, it joins the Elbe fifteen miles from its mouth. Although sixty-one miles in length it requires no locks. By means of this stupendous achievement the German navy can pass from the Baltic through German territory to the North Sea, and is no longer compelled to make the tortuous and dangerous voyage among the Danish islands and through the Cattegat and Skager Rack.

Since 1871 the empire has engaged in no foreign war. But not for a moment has been relaxed the policy which renders Germany, and hence all Europe, a camp of soldiers and which secures only the anxieties and uncertainties of an armed peace. Because of her strategic position and the acknowledged efficiency of her troops, until Germany disarms, none of the other great Powers can afford to do so. In December, 1897, her standing army on a peace establishment comprised 607,000 men. Thus the most vigorous of her population were withdrawn from the ranks of producers. As yet she only begins to show the inevitably destructive consequences of an unnatural militarism. The increase of socialism, which does not so much menace the state as its prevailing military and political system, here finds its cause. German socialism is the appalling protest against inequality and government by the sword. Under William I, Bismarck endeavored to prevent its expansion by restrictive laws and employment of force. William II has been slightly more sagacious because more mild in dealing with it. But all measures to suppress it must be abortive as long as the chief causes remain. In 1872 there were but two socialists in the Reichstag. There were forty-four in 1893 and in 1898 fifty-four. These figures give an unfair indication of their strength, inasmuch as in the cities is the hotbed of socialism, and the cities have a smaller number of deputies in proportion to population than do the rural districts. In 1874 the socialists polled only 340,000 votes. In 1890 they polled 1,427,000; in 1893, 1,786,000; and in 1898, 2,120,000. No other political party could muster so many adherents. The future of Germany is the gravest problem now confronting Europe.

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VIII

ITALY

Condition of the Italian Peninsula in 1850. — The present of Italy was never darker and her outlook upon the future more discouraging than in the summer of 1850. The revolutionary war of 1848, that had swept over the country from the lagoons of Venice to the extremities of Sicily, had receded, and left nothing but defeat and disappointment behind.

Italy at that time comprised the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, the States of the Church, the grand duchy of Tuscany, the duchies of Parma and Modena, the Lombardo-Venetian territory and the kingdom of Piedmont or Sardinia. In the Two Sicilies Ferdinand II, no longer dreading popular outbreak, had suspended the constitution which he had granted, and from his palace in Naples worked his brutal and bloody will without check or hindrance. In the States of the Church, stretching in irregular diagonal across Italy from the Tuscan Sea to the mouths of the Po, Pope Pius IX threw the influence of his exalted office on the side of despotism. Under the influence of Cardinal Antonelli and the protection of French bayonets he ruled as tyrannically as any temporal prince. In Tuscany the Archduke Leopold II, himself the grandson of an Austrian emperor, turned his back upon his brief compromise with the partisans of reform and maintained an Austrian garrison in Florence. In Parma and Modena Charles III and the cruel Francis V, by the aid of Austrian troops, restored an absolute government and terrorized over opposition. Lombardy and Venetia, placed under martial law, were governed from the fortress of Verona by the merciless Radetzki and Haynau, the "hyena of Brescia."

The only exception to the universal darkness was found in Piedmont. In that tiny country of 4,000,000 inhabitants, the "Fundamental Statute," a sort of charter, was still in force. It possessed a dynasty of its own and a

national flag and a national army. Though defeated, it had in two campaigns dared to resist Austria. But the heroic Charles Albert, by failure, had been forced to abdicate and die in exile, leaving his throne to his son, Victor Emmanuel. The young king had borne himself bravely at the battle of Novara. But his queen was an Austrian archduchess, he was unpopular with his subjects and his abilities were a matter of doubt. There was little cohesion or sympathy between the four territories making the kingdom of Piedmont or Sardinia. These were Piedmont proper, buttressed against the Alps and inhabited by a brave and simple people; southern Liguria, with Genoa, a republican centre, ill disposed to the dynasty; Savoy, on the western slope of the Alps, French in language and sentiment; and the island of Sardinia, which remained apart from the life of Europe. Yet in this sparsely populated, ill-connected country the expulsion of the Austrians and the political unification of the peninsula were preparing.

Count Cavour. — In every other respect no two men are more dissimilar than Prince Bismarck and Count Cavour, but they parallel each other in the main purpose of their lives and the magnificence of its accomplishment. Cavour is the Italian Bismarck. Unlike his German prototype he did not live to see his work complete, but he set in motion those forces which were to expel Austria from Italy as Bismarck expelled her from Germany, and to place on the map a kingdom of Italy as Bismarck placed there a German Empire. Himself a less spectacular figure and moving in a more contracted arena, he does not so centre the gaze of mankind. Yet no other statesman of contemporary times is equally worthy to be placed next to the great German.

By birth an aristocrat, always a monarchist, a Catholic but a moderate, Cavour was detested by the extremists of all parties. Prime minister in 1852, he welcomed to Piedmont the political exiles from all over Italy, and thus early caused it to be understood that in his little country was the only refuge of Italian patriotism and liberty.

Piedmont in the Crimean War (1855–1856). — When the Crimean War broke out, Cavour determined that Piedmont should actively participate in the conflict. Great Britain, in need of troops, proposed to subsidize the Piedmontese. Cavour offered to enter the Franco-British alliance, not as a mercenary, but as an equal. His proposal to maintain

an army of 15,000 men in the Crimea as long as the war lasted was gladly accepted. He more than kept his word. At the decisive battle of Tchernaya the discipline of his countrymen and the accuracy of their aim provoked admiration. The timid and hesitating course of Austria during the war had exasperated France and Great Britain. When at the Congress of Paris Cavour, as representative of Piedmont, skilfully drew the attention of the plenipotentiaries to the evils of Austrian rule in Italy and the deplorable state of the peninsula, his words fell upon sympathetic ears. Thus the Italian question was definitely posed. It could not be henceforth forgotten till it received definite solution.

The War of 1859. — At first Cavour had counted on the active assistance of Great Britain. Disappointed in his hopes, he made overtures to Napoleon. In his secret interview with Napoleon at Plombières (July, 1858), the conditions and terms of alliance between France and Piedmont were verbally agreed upon. In April, 1859, Austria made the diplomatic blunder of taking the aggressive and forcing on the war. Victor Emmanuel appealed to his compatriots of the centre and south. For years secret societies had existed over Italy, united under the mystic symbol, *Verdi*, the initials of the words Vittorio Emmanuele Re d'Italia. The French and Piedmontese victories of Montebello and Magenta inspired them to courage and action. Popular risings in Tuscany, Parma and Modena drove out the dukes. The Romagna, the papal territories along the Adriatic, likewise took fire and the papal officials were expelled. The overwhelming victory of Solferino was followed by the sudden peace of Villafranca, agreed upon by Napoleon and Francis Joseph. This treaty seemed to shatter all the hopes of Italian union and independence.

By its terms Lombardy was to be united to Piedmont, and Venetia, still under the rule of Austria, was to be made part of an Italian federation under the presidency of the Pope. This petty gain was trivial compared with what Cavour and the Italians had hoped. The Dukes of Tuscany and Modena were to return to their states. The formidable quadrilateral — Peschiera, Mantua, Verona and Legnago — was retained by Austria. Victor Emmanuel could do nothing but accept the hard conditions as far as he himself and his country were concerned, but he would promise nothing farther. Cavour was broken-hearted. Utterly losing his

self-control, in a bitter two hours' interview, he overwhelmed his sovereign with reproaches and withdrew from the ministry. The definite treaty of Zurich (November 10) confirmed the decisions of Villafranca.

Successful Revolutions. Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi (1859–1865). — The king took possession of Lombardy. For the banished dukes to regain their duchies was more difficult. In August the assemblies of Parma, Modena and Tuscany declared that their former rulers had forfeited all their rights, demanded annexation to Piedmont and recognized Victor Emmanuel as their sovereign. The Romagna did the same. Plebiscites by almost unanimous votes confirmed these acts. The son of Charles Albert had become king of 11,000,000 people. In January, 1860, Cavour again became prime minister.

In Naples Francis II had succeeded his father, Ferdinand II of evil memory. Deaf to the counsels of the French and British cabinets, he resolved to continue the same policy. All Sicily rebelled. Because of diplomatic pressure from abroad, the astute Cavour could not interfere or accept the propositions of the revolutionist Mazzini, but he could allow others to act. Garibaldi, with 1000 resolute men, hurried from Genoa (May 5, 1860) and landed at Marsala in Sicily. He was not a statesman, hardly a general, but only a hero who rushed on in his red shirt sure that others would follow and careless whether they did or not. In three days he stormed Palermo. The battle of Milazzo gave him Messina and the whole island (July 20). He crossed the strait and marched on Naples. Francis II fled from his capital (September 6). The next day Garibaldi entered Naples without opposition and was hailed as a liberator. He was at once accepted as dictator of the Two Sicilies.

But the tempestuous success of the revolution was a danger and menace to Cavour. Mazzini, the republicans of the south and even Garibaldi had no love for the house of Piedmont. They might easily become its foes. Meanwhile the courts of Europe held Cavour responsible for the whirlwind that was unloosed. The government of every European state was unfriendly or openly hostile. The storm that had swept Sicily and Naples was ready to burst on Rome; but Rome was garrisoned by French troops and behind them was the threatening form of Napoleon. A

single false step on the part of Cavour might ruin all that Italy and Piedmont had gained in twelve anxious years. Indecision was fatal. Should Cavour yield to the conservative warnings of Europe, or should he now without reserve head the party of action? There could be no compromise with Garibaldi, who was resolved to proclaim Italian independence from the top of the Quirinal.

The prime minister invited the Pope to disband his foreign army. When Pius IX refused, he ordered the Piedmontese generals to invade the papal states and rescue them from despotism and anarchy. After a brave defence by the French general, De Lamoricière, all the still remaining papal territory on the Adriatic was in the hands of the Piedmontese, but the eternal city was left to the Pope. In a calm and sagacious speech, delivered before the Parliament, but really addressed to the bar of Europe, Cavour declared that he submitted the question of Rome and Venetia to the arbitrament of time. Francis II still resisted feebly, but obstinately. He then retained only a Sicilian citadel and the fortress of Gaeta. A plebiscite in the Two Sicilies and in the papal states of Umbria and the Marches by an almost unanimous vote declared for union with emancipated Italy and for Victor Emmanuel as king.

The monarch and the dictator held their formal but simple first interview near Teano (October 26). The Piedmontese troops and the Garibaldian volunteers threw themselves into each other's arms. Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi galloped to meet each other. As they embraced, the armies shouted, "Long live Victor Emmanuel!" leaving it for Garibaldi to add, "king of Italy!"

All the Italian provinces, except Venetia and the papal territory on the Tuscan Sea, were now united under one flag. The tricolor of green, white and red sheltered them all. On February 18, 1861, the first national parliament assembled at Turin to enact laws for a people of 22,000,000 souls. Then (June 6) Cavour died, worn out by labor and success. He was succeeded by Baron Ricasoli, whom Signor Ratazzi soon replaced. The Roman question was keeping the kingdom in a ferment. Garibaldi resolved to settle it with the sword. Refusing to submit to the orders of the government, with a band of Sicilian volunteers he marched northward through Calabria. Encountered by the royal troops at Aspromonte, his followers were dispersed and he

himself was wounded and made a prisoner. The ignominious necessity of firing upon the liberator forced the Ratazzi ministry from office. In the autumn of 1865 the capital was removed from Turin to Florence.

Alliance with Prussia against Austria (1866). — This alliance was equally advantageous to Prussia and Italy. Thereby Austria was compelled to divide her forces and despatch to the southwest generals and troops sorely needed on her northern frontier. Italy lost rather than gained in military reputation by the reverses of General La Marmora and Admiral Persano at Custozza and Lissa. None the less her assistance had inclined the scale to the side of Prussia. She well deserved her reward in the acquisition of Venetia. Another almost unanimous plebiscite and Victor Emmanuel, on November 7, entered the city of the doges as its king.

Rome the Capital of Italy (1870). — The Italian heart was always turning to Rome. In 1866 Napoleon, according to his promise, withdrew the French garrison, but the Italian government was not free to interfere in the still remaining papal possessions. Garibaldi could not curb his impatience. A third time he marched an army upon Roman territory. In deference to the clerical party in France, Napoleon sent an expedition to support the Pope and Garibaldi was defeated at the battle of Mentana. The French prime minister, Rouher, formally declared, "Italy shall never enter Rome."

Again protected by French soldiers, the Pope felt himself secure, and assembled the Ecumenical Council (1869). Soon came upon France the disasters of the Franco-Prussian war, and she was forced to recall every arm on which she could rely. Her troops quitted Rome. The king, with earnest tenderness, implored the Pope to recognize the inevitable trend of events, and, while relinquishing his temporal sovereignty, to resign himself to that independent and exalted position which the Italians desired him to occupy. The inflexible pontiff declared he would yield only to compulsion. The Italian forces delayed no longer, but occupied the city. By one more plebiscite, this time the last, the life-work of the dead Cavour received its coronation, and the peninsula, reunited, had again the same capital as in the days of Cæsar.

The Last Years of Victor Emmanuel (1870–1878). — The new state at the start was surrounded by peculiar difficulties and dangers. Foremost were those arising from the religious question. The Pope was not merely a dispossessed temporal prince, but the spiritual head of Catholic Christendom. He was bitterly opposed to everything in the new order. He would tolerate no suggestions of compromise. Against the excommunicated government of Victor Emmanuel he threw the whole influence of the Catholic priesthood and appealed for help to the Catholic powers of Europe. The country was covered with monasteries and churches, which had absorbed the material wealth, while the people were stricken with poverty. To touch a convent or a priest was denounced as sacrilege.

In the enthusiasm of revolution and conflict the Italian provinces had come together. At bottom they were antagonistic in ideas, customs, history and local prejudices. They had no traditions of headship or union. Distinct idioms of language emphasized their separation. How were they ever to be moulded into one people?

The military system of Europe laid upon Italy a heavy burden. When the United States of America became a fact, they could dismiss their troops to civil life, because alone upon a continent and protected by 3000 miles of ocean. But the safety and the very existence of Italy depended on her immediate development and maintenance of an immense standing army. The latest arrival among the nations had to conform herself to the situation as she found it.

Ages of oppression had given the people few roads or bridges or means of communication. They had neither schools, courts, effective police nor equitable system of raising revenue. Brigandage was a profession over a large part of the territory. Ignorant and lawless, they were generations behind the civilized world.

The king and his advisers applied themselves with patience and good sense to the organization of the kingdom. They accomplished much in every department of administration, but evils which had been growing for centuries could not be radically cured in a single reign.

By the guarantee law of May, 1871, they endeavored to regulate the relations of the papal and royal courts. They declared the person of the sovereign pontiff inviolable, decreed him sovereign honors and a military guard, assigned

him an annual income of 3,225,000 francs, the possession of the Vatican, of St. John Lateranus and the villa of Castel-Gandolfo and their dependencies. They carefully left him perfect liberty in the exercise of his spiritual functions, while reaffirming that his temporal sovereignty had departed. But the Pope was willing to accept nothing from a government which he considered irreligious and anti-Christian, and once more protested solemnly against all the measures taken.

Victor Emmanuel died on January 9, 1878, at the age of fifty-eight. It is pleasant to remember that on his death-bed he received a kindly message and absolution from the Holy Father, who in that supreme hour allowed his natural tenderness as a man to triumph over his rigid dogmatism as priest. One month afterwards, at the age of eighty-six, after a pontificate of thirty-one years — the longest in papal history — the Pope followed the monarch to the tomb. The conclave of cardinals, on February 10, elected Cardinal Pecci, chamberlain of the Sacred College, to the Holy See.

The Reign of King Humbert (1878–). — This year Italy celebrates the twentieth anniversary of his accession. His reign presents less general interest than his father's. Its electoral struggles have been waged rather upon the personality of leaders — Depretis, Cairoli, Crispi — than upon party platforms. A leading question was that of alliances, whether Italy should follow France or Germany. Gradually the centre of influence has shifted from the north to the more democratic provinces of the south. Burdens of taxation to further colonial projects and maintain an enormous army and powerful navy have fallen heavily upon an impoverished people. On this account during the present year disorders in the chief Italian cities have broken out. In Milan in a street fight in May, 1898, several hundred persons were killed and over 1000 wounded. Yet there has been progress in the tranquillization of the country and in the application of constitutional government. Specially has there been a remarkable development in education.

Italy had counted upon Tunis as a future acquisition, a sort of colonial counterpoise to the neighboring French province of Algeria. But in 1881 Tunis was seized by the French. The angry Italians were powerless. Indignation at the French and national vanity made them join Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance. They sought for some

equivalent for Tunis and believed they had found it on the western shores of the Red Sea. By holding Massowah on that sea, they imagined that all the trade of Abyssinia would flow through their hands. It was gratifying to think of sharing with the other great Powers in the spoils of Africa. Costly wars followed with the negus of Abyssinia, but they gained the colony of Eritrea (1890), South Somali (1889), the Somali coast (1893) and Tigré (1895). Though all Abyssinia was declared an Italian protectorate (1889) the negus, Menelek, continued his resistance. General Baratieri met a terrible reverse at Amba Alaghi (1895). Commandant Galliano made a heroic defence at Makallé, but on March 1, 1896, General Baratieri was crushed by the negus at Adowa, losing all his guns and one-third of his troops. This frightful disaster caused the fall of Crispi, who had been prime minister since 1887. Finally, the humiliating treaty of Adis Abeba (October 26, 1896) closed the ill-judged and ill-advised expedition. The absolute independence of Abyssinia was recognized and almost all the Italian conquests restored.

Italia Irredenta. — All ancient Italy, as indicated by geography and extending southward from the Alps, had been brought under one sceptre. Beyond those mountain barriers or inhabiting the islands of the sea were people whose language was Italian and who were claimed as belonging to the Italian family. Such were Nice, Savoy and Corsica, occupied by France, Malta by Great Britain, and South Tyrol, Trieste and the islands and shores of the northwestern Adriatic by Austria. To these territories in common the name of Italia Irredenta or "not emancipated Italy" is applied. To repossess or acquire them is the ambition of to-day. So little is said concerning it that the idea seems to slumber, but it is no less real and deep-seated.