same force and value as if it were literally inserted in the present article.

Article 92. The provinces of Chablais and Faucigny, and all the territory of Savoy to the northward of Ugine, belonging to his Majesty the King of Sardinia, shall form a part of the neutrality of Switzerland, such as it has been acknowledged and guaranteed by the Powers. In consequence, whenever the neighboring Powers to Switzerland shall be in danger of or in a state of actual hostility, the forces of his Majesty the King of Sardinia which may happen to be in those provinces shall withdraw from them, and may for that purpose pass through Le Valais if necessary, but no other troops belonging to any other Power shall traverse or remain in the before mentioned provinces and territories, with the exception of those which the Swiss Confederation may think proper to place in them; it being well understood that this state of things does not in any way constrain the administration of these territories, in which the civil agencies of his Majesty the King of Sardinia may also employ the municipal guard for the maintenance of good order.

ITALIAN PROVINCES OF AUSTRIA.

Article 93. By consequence of the renunciations stipulated by the treaty of Paris of the 30th of May, 1814, the Powers who sign the present treaty acknowledge his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, his heirs and successors, as legitimate sovereign of the provinces and territories which have been ceded either wholly or in part by the treaties of Campo Formio in 1797, of Luneville in 1801, of Presburg in 1805, by the additional convention of Fontainbleau in 1807, and by the treaty of Vienna in 1809, and in the possession of which provinces and territories his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty has re entered by the result of the late war, such as Istria, as well Austrian as the *ci devant* Venetian; Dalmatia, the *ci devant* Venetian islands of the Adriatic, the embouncheres of the Cattaro, the city of Venice, the Lagunes, as also the other terra firma provinces and districts of the *ci-devant* Venetian States on the left bank of the Adige, the Duchies of Milan and Mantua, the Principalities of Busan and Trent, the county of Tyrol, Voralberg, the Austrian Frioul, the *ci devant* Venetian Frioul, the territory of Montefalcone, the government and the city of Trieste, Carniola, the Upper Carinthia, Croatia on the right of the Save, Fiume, and the Hungarian Littoral, and the district of Castria.

AUSTRIAN BOUNDARIES IN ITALY.

Article 94. His Imperial, Royal and Apostolic Majesty shall reunite to his monarchy, to be possessed by him and his successors in full sovereignty—

1st. Besides the terra firma parts of the Venetian States mentioned in the preceding article, the other parts of the said States, as well as all the other territory situated between the Tessin, the Po, and the Adriatic Sea.

2d. The valleys of the Valteline, Bormio and Chiavenna.

3d. The territories which compose the *ci-devant* republic of Ragusa.

Article 95. In consequence of the stipulations fixed by the preceding articles, the frontiers of the States of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty in Italy shall be—

1st. On the side of the States of his Majesty of Sardinia, such as they were on the 1st of January, 1792.

2d. On the side of the States of Parma, Placentia and Guastella, the course of the Po, the line of demarcation following the Thalweg of that river.

3d. On the side of the States of Modena, the same as they were on the 1st of January, 1792.

4th. On the side of the States of the Pope, the course of the Po and the embouchere of the Goro.

5th. On the side of Switzerland, the ancient frontier of Lombardy, and that which separates the valleys of the Valteline, Bormio and Chiavenna from the Cantons of the Grissons and of the Tessin.

From where the Thalweg of the Po shall constitute the limit, it is determined that the changes which the course of the river may experience shall not in future have any effect upon the proprietary of the islands situated in it.

Article 96. The general principles adopted by the Congress of Vienna for the navigation of the rivers shall be applied to that of the Po.

Commissioners shall be named by the river States within three months at the farthest after the conclusion of the Congress to regulate all that relates to the present article.

The 97th article is an arrangement by which the present possessors of the *ci-devant* kingdom of Italy are charged with the obligations of the Mont. Napoleon at Milan, in proportion to the population and revenue which they have acquired from the said kingdom.

SOVEREIGNTY AND SUCCESSION OF THE DUCHIES.

Article 98. His Royal Highness the Archduke Francis of Este, his heirs and successors, shall possess in full property and sovereignty the duchies of Modena, Reggio and Milandola in the same extent in which they existed at the period of the treaty of Campo Formio.

Her Royal Highness the Archduchess Maria Beatrix, of Este, shall possess in full sovereignty the duchy of Massa and the principality of Carrera, as also the imperial fief in the Lunigiana. These last may be disposed of by exchange or other arrangements, with the consent of each party with his Imperial Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany, according to mutual convenience.

The rights of succession and reversion established in the branches of the Archdukes of Austria respecting the duchies of Modena, Reggio and Milandola, as also the principalities of Massa and Carrera are maintained.

Article 99. Her Majesty the Empress Maria Louisa shall possess in full property and sovereignty the duchies of Palma, Piacentia and Guastella, with the exception of those districts enclosed in the States of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty on the left bank of the Po.

The reversion of these territories shall be determined by common consent with the courts of Austria, Russia, France, Spain, England and Prussia, having, however, regard to the reversionary rights of Austria, and of his Majesty the King of Sardinia on the said territories.

Article 100. His Imperial Highness the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria is re established, as well for himself as his heirs and successors, in all the rights of sovereignty and property on the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and its dependencies, such as his Imperial Highness possessed them previously to the treaty of Luneville.

The stipulations of 2nd article of the treaty of Vienna, of the 3d October, 1735, between the Emperor Charles the VI. and the King of France, to which the other Powers acceded, are fully re established in favor of his Imperial Highness and his descendants, as are also the guarantees resulting from those stipulations.

There shall further be reunited to the said Grand Duchy, to be possessed in full property and sovereignty by his Imperial Royal Highness the Grand Duke Ferdinand and his heirs and descendants—

First. The State of the Presides.

Second. The part of the island of Elba and its appurtenances which was under the suzerainty of his Majesty the King of the Two Sicilies before the year 1801.

Third. The sozerainty and sovereignty of the Principality of Prombino and its dependencies.

The Prince of Ludovisi Buoncompagni shall enjoy for himself and legitimate successors all the properties which his family possessed in the principality of Prombino, in the island of Elba, and their dependencies, previous to the occupation of those territories by French troops in 1799, including in them the mines, wines and salt pits. The Prince Ludovisi shall equally preserve the right of fishery, and shall enjoy a perfect exemption from duties, as well for the exportation of the produce of the mines, wines, salt pits and domains, as for the importation of wood and other objects necessary to the working of the mines. He shall further be indemnified by his Imperial Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany for all the revenues which his family received from regalian rights before the year 1801. In the event of any difficulties arising in the valuation of this indemnity, the parties interested shall refer them to the decision of the Courts of Vienna and Sardinia.

Fourth. The *ci devant* imperial fiefs of Vernio, Montanto and Monte Santa Maria enclosed in the Tuscan States.

Article 101. The principality of Lucca shall be possessed in full sovereignty by her Majesty the Infanta Maria Louisa, and her descendants in the direct and masculine line. This principality is erected into a duchy, and shall preserve a form of government founded on the principles of that which it received in 1805.

There shall be added to the revenues of the principality of Lucca a rent of 500,000 francs, which his Majesty the Emperor of Austria and his Imperial Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany engage to pay regularly, so long as circumstances do not permit another establishment to be procured for her Majesty the Infanta Maria Louisa and her son and their descendants.

This rent shall be especially secured on the lordships in Bohemia known under the name of Bavaro Palatine, which, in the event of the reversion of the duchy of Lucca shall be relieved from this charge, and re-enter into the private domain of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty.

Article 102. The Duchy of Lucca shall be reversible to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, either in the event of its becoming vacant by the death of her Majesty the Infanta Maria Louisa, or of her son, Don Carlos, and their direct and male descendants; or in that of the Infanta Maria Louisa or her direct heirs obtaining another establishment, or succeeding to another branch of their dynasty.

However, in the event of this reversion occurring the Grand Duke of Tuscany engages to cede, as soon as he shall enter into possession of the principality of Lucca, the following Territories to the Duke of Modena:—

First. The Tuscan district of Fivizano, Pietra Santa and Barga.

Second. The Luccese districts of Castiglione and Gallicano, enclosed in the States of Modena, as also those of Minucceano and Monte Ignoce, contiguous to the Territory of Massa.

TERRITORIES OF THE HOLY SEE.

Article 103. The Marches with Camerino, and their dependencies, as well as the Duchy of Benevento and the principality of Ponto Cervo are restored to the Holy See.

The Holy See shall re enter in the possessions of the legations of Ravenna, Bologna and Ferrara, with the exception of the part of Ferrara situated on the left bank of the Po.

His Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty and his successors shall have the right of garrison in the fortresses of Ferrara and Comacchio.

The inhabitants who return to the dominion of the Holy See by consequence of the stipulations of the Congress shall enjoy the effects of the sixteenth article of the treaty of Paris of the 30th May, 1814. All acquisitions made by individuals, in virtue of a title acknowledged legal by the laws actually existing, are maintained; and the dispositions necessary to guarantee the public debt and the payment of pensions shall be fixed by a particular convention between the Court of Rome and that of Vienna.

KINGDOM OF NAPLES.

Article 104. His Majesty King Ferdinand IV. is re-established, as well for himself as for his heirs and successors, on the throne of Naples, and acknowledged by the Powers as King of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Article 105. The Powers acknowledging the justice of the claims formed by his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal and the Brazils on the town of Olivenza, and the other territories ceded to Spain by the treaty of Badajos in 1801, and viewing the restitution of these objects as one of the measures likely to insure between the two kingdoms of the Peninsula that complete and settled harmony, the preservation of which, in all parts of Europe, has been the constant object of their arrangements, formally engage themselves to employ, by conciliatory means, their most effectual efforts, in order that the retrocession of the said territories be accomplished in favor of Portugal; and the Powers admit, so far as depends upon each of them, that this arrangement shall take place as soon as possible.

Article 106. In order to remove the difficulties which are opposed on the part of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of the kingdom of Portugal and of that of the Brazils to the ratification of the treaty signed on the 30th May, 1814, between Portugal and France, it is determined that the stipulation contained in the 10th article of said treaty, and all those which may relate to it, shall remain without effect; and that there shall be substituted for it, by agreement of all the Powers, the dispositions expressed in the following article, which shall alone be considered as valid:—

By means of this substitution all the other clauses of the said treaty of Paris shall be maintained and regarded as mutually binding on the two courts.

FRENCH GUIANA.

Article 107. His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of the kingdom of Portugal and the Brazils, in order to manifest in an incontestible manner his particular consideration for his most Christian Majesty, engages to restore to his said Majesty French Guiana as far as the river Oyapock, whose embouchure is situated between the 4th and 5th degrees of north latitude, a limit which Portugal has always considered as that fixed by the treaty of Utrecht.

Article 108. The Powers whose States are separated or traversed by the same navigable river engage to regulate by common consent all that relates to the navigation of that river. For that purpose they shall name Commissioners, who shall assemble together, within six months at the furthest after the termination of the Congress, and who shall take for the basis of their object the principles established in the following articles.

Article 109. The navigation throughout the whole course of the rivers indicated by the preceding article, from the point in which each of them becomes navigable to its discharge, shall be entirely free, and shall not, with respect to commerce, be interdicted to any, it being well understood that all persons shall comply with the regulations relating to the police of this navigation, which shall be conceived in a uniform manner for all and as favorable as is possible for the commerce of all nations.

Article 110. The system which shall be established, as well for the receiving of the dues as for the support of the police, shall, as far as it can, be the same for the whole course of the river, and shall also be extended, unless particular circumstances are opposed to it, on those of its branches and confluences, which in their navigable courses separate or traverse different States.

Article 111. The dues on the navigation shall be fixed in a uniform, invariable manner, and so far independent of the different quality of the merchandises as not to render a detailed examination of the cargo necessary, unless on account of fraud or contravention. The amount of these dues, which shall not in any case exceed those actually established, shall be determined according to local circumstances, which do not permit a general rule to be established on that point. In forming the tariff they shall, however, commence from the view of encouraging commerce by facilitating navigation, and the octroi established on the Rhine may serve as a point of proximation.

The tariff once regulated shall not be augmented but by a common arrangement of the river States, nor the navigation be burthened with any other dues whatever, beyond those fixed in the regulation.

Article 112. The offices for the reception of duties, the number of which shall be reduced as much as possible, shall be fixed by the regulation, and no alteration shall be afterwards made in them, but by common consent, unless that any of the river States desire to diminish the number of those which belong exclusively to them.

Article 113. Each river State shall be charged with keeping in repair the towing paths which pass by its territory, and with the necessary works for the same extent in the bed of the river, for the purpose of preventing any obstacle in the navigation.

The future regulation shall fix the manner in which the river States shall concur in those last works, in the case where the two banks belong to different governments.

Article 114. No dues shall anywhere be established for storehouses, ladders or forced detention; with respect to those which already exist, they shall only be preserved so far as the river States, without regard to the local interest of the place or territory in which they are established, may find necessary or useful to the navigation or to commerce generally.

Article 115. The Custom Houses of the river States shall have no concern with the navigation dues; fixed regulations shall prevent the exercise of the functions of the Custom House officers placing any obstacle on the navigation, but a strict police on the river shall guard against any attempt of the inhabitants to carry on a contraband trade by means of watermen.

Article 116. All that has been indicated by the preceding articles shall be determined by a common regulation, which shall equally include all that is alternately necessary to be fixed. The regulation once determined shall not be changed but by the consent of all the river States, and care shall be taken to provide for its execution in a suitable manner, and adapted to circumstances and localities.

Article 117. The particular regulations relative to the navigation of the Rhine, Neckar, Maine, Moselle, Meuse and the Scheldt, such as they are annexed to the present act, shall have the same force and value as if they were literally inserted in the present.

ENUMERATION OF COLLATERAL TREATIES.

Article 118. The treaties, conventions, declarations, regulations and other particular acts which are annexed to the present act, and namely:—

1. The treaty between Russia and Austria of the 21st of April and the 3d of May, 1815.
2. The treaty between Russia and Prussia of the 21st of April and the 3d of May, 1815.
3. The additional treaty relative to Cracow, between Austria, Prussia and Russia, of the 21st of April and the 3d of May, 1815.
4. The treaty between Prussia and Saxony, of 18th May, 1815.
5. The declaration of the King of Saxony on the rights of the house of Schonburg, of the 18th May, 1815.
6. The treaty between Prussia and Hanover of the 29th May, 1815.
7. The convention between Prussia and the Grand Duke of Saxe Weimar, of the 1st June, 1815.
8. The convention between Prussia and the Dukes and Prince of Nassau, of the 31st May, 1815.
9. The act of the federative constitution of Germany of the 8th June, 1815.
10. The treaty between the King of the Netherlands and Prussia, England, Austria and Russia, of the 31st May, 1815.
11. The declaration of the Powers on the Helvetian confederation of the 20th March, and the act of the accession of the Diet, of 27th May, 1815.
12. The protocol of the 29th March, 1815, on the cessions made by the King of Sardinia to the canton of Geneva.
13. The treaty between the King of Sardinia, Austria, England, Russia, Prussia and France, of the 20th May, 1815.
14. The act entitled—"Conditions which are to form the basis of the reunion of the States of Genoa to those of his Sardinian Majesty."
15. The declaration of the Powers on the abolition of the slave trade, of the 8th February, 1815.
16. The regulations for the free navigation of rivers.
17. The regulations on the rank between diplomatic agents shall be considered as integral parts of the arrangements of the Congress, and shall altogether have the same force and value as if they were inserted word for word in the general treaty.

Article 119. All the Powers who have been assembled in the Congress, as also the princes and free cities, who have conferred on the arrangement determined on, or in the acts confirmed by this general treaty, are invited to accede to them.

Article 120. The French language having been employed exclusively in all the copies of the present treaty, it is acknowledged by the Powers who have concurred in this act that the employment of that language cannot form a future precedent; so that each Power reserves the right of adopting, in future negotiations and conventions, the language which he has hitherto used in his diplomatic relations, without the present treaty being ever cited as a contrary example to the established customs.

Article 121. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged within the space of six months, by the Court of Portugal in a year, or earlier if it can be done.

A copy of this general treaty shall be deposited at Vienna, with the archives of the Court and State of his Imperial Royal Apostolic Majesty, to be used in the case whenever any of the Courts of Europe may judge proper to consult the original document of this act.

In faith of which the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed this act, and affixed to it the seal of their arms.

The signatures are in the alphabetical order of the several Courts.

The Prince de Metternich, the Baron de Wessenberg, the Prince de Talleyrand, the Duke de Duiberg, the Count Alexis Noailles, Clancarty, Cathcart, Stewart, the Count de Palmella, Antonio de Saldunha du Gama, D'Joaquim Lobo do Silveira, the Prince de Hardenberg, the Baron de Humboldt, the Count de Rasoumoffsky, the Count de Stackelberg, the Count de Nesselrode, the Count Charles Axel de Lowenheilm.

NO. IV.

PARTICULAR DISPOSITIONS IN THE ACT OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

The dispositions alluded to in the 64th article are contained in the 12th and following articles of the act on the federative constitution of Germany; those preceding are embodied in the Congress of Vienna.

Article 12. The members of the confederation, whose possessions do not amount to a population of 300,000, shall be reunited to the reigning houses of the same family, or to other States of the confederation, the population of which, joined to others, shall amount to the number here expressed, so as to form a common supreme tribunal.

In the States, however, of a smaller population, in which similar tribunals of the third process already exist, they shall preserve their actual quality, provided that the population of the State to which they belong be not less than 150,000.

The four free cities shall have the right to unite themselves together for the institution of a common supreme tribunal.

Every party who shall plead before these common supreme tribunals shall be authorized to require the transfer of the process to the judicial power of a foreign university, or to a Sheriff's Court, to pronounce the definite sentence.

Article 13. There shall be meetings of the States in all the territories of the confederation.

Article 14. In order to secure to the ancient States of the empire which have been mediatized in 1806 and in subsequent years equal rights in all the territories of the confederation, and agreeably to existing relations, the confederative States establish the following principles:—

a. The houses of the mediatized princes and counts do not the less belong to the high nobility of Germany, and preserve the rights of equality of birth with the sovereign houses which they have hitherto enjoyed.

b. The heads of these houses form the first class of the States in the territories to which they belong. They are, as well as their families, in the number of the most privileged, particularly with respect to taxation.

c. They preserve generally for their persons, their families and possessions all the rights and prerogatives attached to their properties, and which do not belong to the supreme authority or to the attributes of government. Amongst the rights which this title assures them are especially and expressly comprised—

First. Unlimited liberty of residing in any State belonging to the confederation or being at peace with it.

Second. The maintenance of family compacts conformably to the ancient constitution of Germany, and the power of binding their possessions and the members of their families by obligatory dispositions—which, however, must be communicated to the sovereign and to the public authorities. The laws by which this power has been hitherto restrained shall not be applicable to future cases.

Third. The privilege of not being amenable but to the higher tribunals, and the exemption from all military conscription for themselves and families.

Fourth. The exercise of the civil and criminal jurisdiction in the first and, if the possessions are sufficiently considerable, in the second process of the forester jurisdiction, of the local police and of the superintendence of churches, schools and charitable foundations, the whole in conformity with the laws of the territories to which they are subjected, as well as with the military regulations and the supreme charge reserved to the governments relative to the objects of the prerogatives above mentioned. The better to determine these prerogatives, as in general to regulate and consolidate the rights of the mediatized princes, counts and lords, in a uniform manner in all the States of the German Confederation, the ordinance published on the subject by his Majesty the King of Bavaria, in 1807, shall be adopted for the general principle.

The ancient immediate nobility of the empire shall enjoy the rights expressed in the paragraphs 1 and 2, and those of holding an assembly of the States, exercising patrimonial and forester jurisdiction, the local police and the patronage of the churches, as also the right of not being amenable to the ordinary tribunals. These rights, however, shall not be exercised but according to the rules established by the laws of the country in which the members of this nobility hold possessions. In the provinces detached from Germany by the peace of Luneville, of 9th of February, 1801, and which are now again reunited to it, the application of the principles above expressed, relative to the ancient immediate nobility of the empire, shall be subject to the modifications rendered necessary by the relations which exist in these provinces.

Article 15. The continuation of the direct or subsidiary rents assigned on the octroi of the navigation of the Rhine, as also the dispositions of the recess of the deputation of the empire of the 25th February, 1803, relative to the payment of the debts and of the pensions granted to individuals, whether ecclesiastic or laity, are guaranteed by the Confederation.

The members of *ci devant* chapters of cathedral churches, as also those of the free chapters of the empire, have the right to enjoy the pensions assured to them by the before mentioned recess, in any country whatever at peace with the German Confederation.

The members of the Teutonic order which have not yet obtained adequate pensions shall obtain them according to the principles established for the chapters of cathedral churches by the recess of the deputation of the Empire of 1803; the princes who have acquired the ancient possessions of the Teutonic order shall acquit these pensions in proportion to their part of the property of the Teutonic order. The Diet of the Confederation shall determine on the measures to be taken relative to the fund of support and the pensions of the bishops and other ecclesiastics belonging to the territories on the left bank of the Rhine, which pensions shall be transferred to the actual possessors of the said territories. This affair shall be regulated in the course of a year, and until then the payment of the pensions shall take place as hitherto.

Article 16. The difference of Christian confessions in the countries and territories of the German Confederation shall not affect any one in the enjoyment of civil and political rights.

The Diet will take into consideration the most uniform means of producing the amelioration of the civil state of those who profess the Jewish religion in Germany, and shall particularly employ itself on the measures by which it can assure and guarantee to them, in the States of the Confederation, the enjoyment of civil rights, on condition that they submit to all the obligations of other citizens. In the meantime, the rights already granted to the members of this religion by any particular State are preserved to them.

The 17th article secures to the princes of the house of La Tour and Taxis the Post Office revenue in the States of the confederation, as granted by the deputation of the empire in 1803, or by subsequent conventions, so far as they have not been disposed of by new arrangements, freely stipulated on either side.

Article 18. The princes and free cities of Germany have agreed to secure to the subjects of the confederated States the following rights:—

a. That of acquiring and possessing landed property beyond the limits of the State in which they are domiciliated, without the foreign State imposing any charges or contributions upon them beyond those borne by its own subjects.

b. 1st. That of removing from one confederated State to another, provided it is proved that the State in which they establish themselves receive them as subjects.

2d. That of entering into any civil or military service of any confederated State whatsoever, it being nevertheless well understood that the exercise of either of these rights does not compromise the obligation to military service imposed upon them by their former country, and that the difference of laws on the obligation of military service may not on this subject lead to results unequal or injurious to any individual State, the Diet of the confederation shall deliberate on the means of establishing, as nearly as possible, an equal legislation relative to this subject.

c. Freedom from all export duties, or such like impositions, in the case of their transporting their property from one confederated State to another; provided that particular and reciprocal conventions have not determined otherwise.

d. On the first meeting of the Diet it shall employ itself to form a uniform legislation on the liberty of the press, and to take measures to secure authors and editors against the plagiarism of their works.

Article 19. On the first meeting of the Diet at Frankfort, the confederated States reserve to themselves to deliberate on the manner of regulating the relations of commerce and navigation of one State towards another, according to the principles adopted by the Congress of Vienna.

The 20th article stipulates that the contracting parties shall ratify this article within six weeks.

REGULATION ON THE RANK OF DIPLOMATIC AGENTS.

To prevent the difficulties which have so often presented themselves, and which may yet arise, respecting the pretensions of precedence between diplomatic agents, the plenipotentiaries of the Powers signatory of the treaty of Paris have agreed on the following articles, and think it right to invite those of the other crowned heads to adopt the same regulation:—

Article 1. Diplomatic agents are divided into three classes.

That of ambassadors, legates, or nuncios.

That of envoys, ministers, or others accredited to sovereigns.

That of charges d'affaires accredited to ministers of foreign affairs.

Article 2. Ambassadors, legates or nuncios have alone the representative character.

Article 3. Diplomatic agents in extraordinary missions have not on that account any superiority of rank.

Article 4. Diplomatic agents shall in each class take rank amongst themselves according to the date of the official notification of their arrival.

The present regulation shall cause no innovation relative to the representatives of the Pope.

Article 5. Each State shall determine on a uniform manner for the reception of diplomatic agents of each class.

Article 6. The ties of relationship or family alliance between courts do not give any rank to their diplomatic agents.

It is the same with political alliances.

Article 7. In the acts or treaties between several Powers who admit the alternate, lot shall decide amongst the ministers on the order to be followed in the signatures.

The present regulation is inserted in the protocol of the plenipotentiaries of the eight Powers signatory of the treaty of Paris in their session of the 19th of March, 1815.

TUSCANY AND AUSTRIA.

The Feeling of the Tuscans Towards Napoleon.

We now give the concluding part of the important memoirs entitled "Tuscany and Austria," to which the Marquis Cosimo Ridolfi and other eminent Tuscans have attached their names. A more direct interest attaches to the present than to the former extracts, for we have here exhibited the state of Tuscany during the last ten years, and the aggressions on civil liberty, as well as the outrages to national feeling, consequent on the Austrian intervention of 1849. The facts here recorded form the best commentary upon, and safest clue to, any estimate of public feeling in the States of Central Italy, and likewise the most triumphant vindication of the unanimous Tuscan adherence to the policy of Piedmont. And the whole memoirs possess the highest political interest as an elaborate statement of those violated rights, that mutilated independence, and that outraged nationality which, whether by peace or war, now claim redress at the hands of Europe. The narrative and argument are resumed at the point when Italy again fell prostrate beneath the Austrians in 1849:—

We fought and we were vanquished. Were we really vanquished after having at length fought? Were we vanquished when the cause of national independence—now disentangled from all confused aspirations, from all vague allusions, from all dark conspiracies—had appeared clear of its aim, and conscious of its right, armed on the battlefield? Were we vanquished when, for the first time since this fair peninsula rose from the bosom of the waves, it beheld the gathering of its sons from every province in the name of Italy, fighting for Italy on the Lombard plains, and there inaugurating the first and true assemblies of the Italian people? Were we vanquished when that Italian cause, even in the faithless chances of war, had gained a king, an army, a banner? We were defeated at Custoza, we were defeated at Novara; but from those defeats there came forth—great, strong, invincible and armed—the cause of Italian nationality.

* * * * *

Tuscany remained after the cessation of the Austrian occupation wretched and comfortless as to her present state, cheerless as to the future, grieving for her misfortunes, because they were misfortunes common to all Italy; still more embittered by all the outrages she had endured, still more grieved for all the evils she had suffered, because they offended or wounded her in the feeling—deepest, strongest, most unchanging—the feeling of Italian nationality.

But our past calamities were not without their fruits. We learned in such a way that we could publicly bear witness before Europe that alike dangerous to Europe and fatal to ourselves must be that foreign force which is but encamped upon our soil—which is ever ready to enforce obedience on the Italian people and to absolve from their duties the Italian princes.

We learned that, however willingly we pour forth our sweat and blood to regain or recover internal franchises, we shall have done nothing unless we begin by combatting that foreign force which stands ready to undo all that we have done.

We learned that the first necessity of a people is the necessity of existence; that there can be no existence without national independence; that independence cannot be maintained unless it is wholly free—or that, otherwise, we shall behold still renewed the melancholy spectacle of a people sinking to slumber, pressing in gratitude the hand that seems but to slacken their chains, and then awakening in the grasp of the same hand as it binds them in new chains far heavier than the old.

All this we learned, and, resigned to our fate, said, "We will bide our time.

Resigned, because our calamities and humiliations would speed the fulness of the time; resigned, because confident in our own good rights and in those of the whole Italian nation; resigned, because we saw that Piedmont, a truly free and Italian government, represented in a truthful and comprehensive spirit the affections and wishes of the whole Italian populations; and by the best of all weapons, by maintaining order within, and upholding the national dignity abroad, was waging a fiercer war against Austria than she waged in 1848 and 1849 with bayonets and cannon—a moral war, a war in which there could be no defeat, seeing that on one side there stood the love, on the other the hatred of the whole Italian people; on the one side glorious rights, on the other base intrigues; on the one side, the proud and noble exercise of one's own freedom, on the other the violation—now crafty, now audacious and insolent—of the freedom of others.

And it was fitting that Piedmont, the generous martyr of the Italian cause, should be allowed to fulfil tranquilly her mission, and therefore we kept silence while thus resigned; letting others believe as they might that our expectation was mere lethargy. But now that Piedmont has proved, by the regular and wise exercise of freedom, that the Italian nation is worthy of and ripe for freedom; now that, having committed for the cause of civilized Europe, side by side with the bravest nations of the West, she has proved that the Italian people is worthy of independence, for, in order to secure it, she has been still training for the fight, and knows how to fight for and defend it; now we, too, raise our voices to say that this magnanimous Piedmont shall not stand alone in suffering for all, in combating for all; to say that, if the battle must again be fought against the foreigner for the sake of Italy, Tuscany, too, ought and will play her part, recollecting that, when she previously did not share the honors of the battle, she did not escape the humiliation of the vanquished. She has been crushed to the ground with Italy, and with Italy she must arise.

And she entertains no dread of the hosts of France who may come as allies and auxiliaries of [illegible] Alpine warriors. Tuscany recollects that she was still the friend of France, and that Charles V., before sending his bands to reduce her to slavery, was compelled first to strike down Francis I. *Tuscany recollects that she first among all the nations of Europe proffered her friendship to the French people when, bursting forth in the flush of their new liberties, they spread terror in the world. Tuscany recollects that on this soil the youthful thoughts and affections of Napoleon III* first sprang up, and she believes that now, with his ripened intellect and imperial power, he but seeks to give them full effect. Tuscany wishes to be, and must be, wherever the battle shall be fought for Italy, wherever the cause of the Italian people shall conduct that army and that king who are at once its avengers and its guardians.

Meanwhile, we hail as the certain pledge of surer and better destinies that we have not even to implore from our fellow-citizens that which one would hardly dare to hope for had it not already been attained—that severe discipline of private thoughts and affections, which is not servile obsequiousness, but magnanimous sacrifice—which restrains impetuosity to concentrate strength; which does not divide its powers, but unites them more closely together, which does not weaken them by impatient outbursts, but keeps them entire for the opportune moment of action which does not divide action by aiming at different purposes with discordant agencies, but directs them all to one supreme scope—that discipline, in short, which waits because it trusts.

And this confidence, without which no discipline would be either possible or general, we must above all exert ourselves to maintain. Confidence in the Italian King, who during the last ten years has known how to resist all the menaces and all the blandishments of despotism—who, during ten years has held aloft and kept firmly planted the flag of the Italian nation. *Confidence in the powerful monarch who recognized the justice of our cause, who, after having restored to France the authority due to her in the councils of Europe, said that he would employ that authority in the defence of civilization and of justice,* who has hitherto willed as much as he promised, and effected what he willed.

Let us, then, place our trust in the strong protection, in the good cause, in the respect for right and for justice, which now prevails throughout all civilized Europe, which forms at once the privilege, the boast, the fortune, the truest and greatest progress of our age. If, in order to obtain a peace that shall be lasting and secure, because founded on justice, Europe shall be compelled to wage war; if we shall behold our cause entrusted yet again to the fortune of battles, in these battles we, as Italians, ought, and wish to have our share, nor shall we cease on this account to cherish a firm hope; for, even should the fate of battles be once more against us, there will still remain against Austria, in this our Italy, foes stronger and more invincible than fortune—the destinies which are matured, and the necessities which are fulfilled, in the march of universal civilization.

COSIMO RIDOLFI,
BETTINO RICASOLI,
UBALDINO PERUZZI,
TOMMASO CORSI,
LEOPOLDO CEMPINI,
CELESTINO BIANCHI.

FLORENCE, March 15, 1859.

Is England Prepared for War?

ENGLAND'S DANGER IN CASE OF AN INVASION—DECLINE OF THE MILITARY SPIRIT OF HER PEOPLE.

[From the London Times, April 19.]

While two great continental Powers are on the brink of war, and a confederation comprising some thirty millions of men is arming in expectation of a share in the strife, attention is once more seriously directed to the state of our own national defences. Not that France is more likely to attack us when she is engaged with a powerful foe; on the contrary, the petty slights in which M. Walewski and his colleagues have thought fit to indulge towards this country in certain late transactions are likely to be abandoned for a much more courteous demeanor, should the Emperor Napoleon be brought into conflict with the stubborn races of Central Europe. But history has shown us how a war has an inevitable tendency to become general, and it needs no long reflection to assure us that the more nations are united by the ties of trade and intercourse more one of them must be affected by the blows which are directed against another. *It will be, indeed, the sacred duty of England to keep aloof from a struggle between tyranny affecting the championship of legitimate right, and ambition wearing the mask of disinterested philanthropy.* But, as Lord Derby warned us last night, England may soon be called upon, if not to interfere, at least to show her power of interference.

We have often called attention to the general subject of national defence, but always, we are sorry to say, with very limited success. Indeed, it will probably require a great calamity or a thorough fright to make Englishmen take up the matter in the patriotic spirit of their grandfathers. We have pointed out the essential weakness of our position—a weakness which no construction of line-of-battle ships, no activity in recruiting for the army or militia, will ever remedy. The Englishman of the present day has forgotten the use of arms. Although his frame be as powerful, his spirit as high, his energy as untiring, his enterprise as keen as ever, *yet the knowledge which his forefathers possessed of resisting an enemy in war has entirely passed away.*

* * * * * * *

The French feed their vanity with the tribute we offer them, and firmly believe that the day is soon to come when they are to avenge in London the loss of Canada and India and the fall of Napoleon. Even the more clear-sighted neutrals consider that the difficulties of a landing are only physical, and that if it were once accomplished the inhabitants of these islands could oppose no more resistance than so many Chinese. Prussia was overthrown in a single battle and held for seven years; even Spain, with its ranges of mountains and its indomitable guerillas, would have been subdued but for a foreign army. *Suppose a French force once in England, Portsmouth and Plymouth seized, and the Channel made clear for French reinforcements, what is there to prevent England being held by an enemy long enough for the destruction of her empire and the dictation of an ignominious peace?* This is the argument of foreigners who dislike us no more than all foreigners do, and have no wish to see French power increased in Europe. Our readers may judge for themselves whether it is sound; this, however, is to be said, *that it influences the policy of rulers, excites the ambition and cupidity of our neighbors, is at the bottom of the present unsettled state of Europe, and has cost us during the last year twenty-three million pounds.*

The fact is, that the unerring judgment of mankind tells them that mere standing armies and fleets are not a sufficient defence of nations. A mere artificial organization which may be demolished by a campaign, a pestilence, or a tempest—which some event like an Indian mutiny may cause to be wholly transported from the land it was raised to defend—does not give a fit security to the people, who may at any moment be deprived of its services. There can be only one true defence of a nation like ours—a large and permanent volunteer force, supported by the spirit and patriotism of our young men, and gradually indoctrinating the country with military knowledge. We are the only people in the world who have not such a force in one form or another. There are the Americans at 3,000 miles distance from Europe, and without an enemy or a rival on their own continent. Yet they keep up a militia which can muster several hundred thousands strong, and on some occasions New York wears the aspect of a European metropolis, such is the parading, drumming and firing. The result of this is to be seen in the confidence they have in their own strength, though without either army or navy, according to our notions of such forces. But at the meeting held in St. Martin's Hall on Saturday Sir Allan M'Nab cited an instance which still more closely interests us. He spoke of the Canadian militia and their services in the war of 1812. When Bonaparte was marching his forces on Russia the ambitious President, Mr. Madison, took advantage of the supposed embarrassment of England to attempt the conquest of Canada by an American army. Total defeat, however, awaited them, and Gen. Hull surrendered with his whole force to Sir Isaac Brock. But of what was the victorious army composed? Of Canadian militia and volunteers: for when the war broke out the British "had not in Canada 900 men of all arms above the city of Montreal." May we some day have in this country a force as useful and patriotic! And, though every Englishman may well feel proud of the gallant army which has fought in India; though the words of Lord Ellenborough will speak to their hearts when he said that with such troops we should engage any other in the world with the absolute certainty of success, yet we must once more raise our voices in favor of those local and domestic levies which will be the best support to a nucleus of Indian heroes. We know that if the hour of danger should come volunteers would rush forward by hundreds of thousands, but it is to obviate such a panic that we would ask for the speedy restoration of what may be called the old national force of the country. It is not line regiments—it is not exactly militia that we want—but men of ordinary occupations trained by a certain amount of drill to support the regular armed force either in the field or in the fortress. There is plenty of wealth and plenty of leisure for the formation of such corps, and the metropolis alone could furnish a contingent strong enough to garrison any two naval ports of the kingdom.

THE THEATRE OF WAR IN EUROPE.

The Routes of the French Army to the Field.

The fate of Italy, the garden of Europe, which the Roman empire has rendered more famous than any other part of the world, trembles in the balance, and two great modern civilized nations, with their mighty armies, are contending for the same prize which excited the cupidity of barbarian hordes many hundred years ago. These nations are Austria and France, and Piedmont and Lombardy constitute the theatre of war. Austria already possesses one of these as her lawful prey; she wants to add the other, its neighbor, to her map.

From an article published in yesterday's HERALD, copied from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the reader has seen a description of the routes by which the armies of Austria can reach the seat of war, and the advantages which she possesses in the rapidity with which she can concentrate large masses of troops on the frontier of Piedmont. Some may perhaps suppose that Austria will have time to swallow up the Sardinian forces before the French troops can come to their assistance. But this is not the case. The Emperor of the French possesses facilities for reaching Sardinia by land as well as Austria, and he has what Austria does not possess—the means of rapidly throwing his legions into the kingdom of his ally by sea—and if necessary, he can throw them, by the same element, into the dominions of Austria, whilst she has not the power of returning the compliment.

Northern Italy, including the Kingdom of Sardinia and the Austrian provinces—called the Lombardo Venetian Kingdom—is separated equally from Austria proper and from France, by the Alps. It lies between these two Powers, the Northern Alps separating it from Austria and the Western Alps from France, with this difference, that France is nearer than Austria. Indeed, from Savoy, the western portion of the Kingdom of Sardinia, France is only separated by the Rhone, and the Alps lie beyond, dividing Savoy from Piedmont. Savoy, though part of Sardinia, is no part of Italy. Yet Savoy was the original nucleus of the kingdom, and the other portions have been successively annexed—namely Piedmont, Nice and the island of Sardinia, from which the kingdom takes its name. The seat of government is at Turin, in Piedmont, which is the central and metropolitan portion of the realm. In crossing the Alps, therefore, through Savoy, the French army will pass through a friendly country to the scene of war.

Napoleon might despatch his troops by the route of the Simplon, the road made over the Alps, which has immortalized the name of his uncle; but he would have to proceed through Switzerland, which has been made neutral ground by the treaty of Vienna, (if that is now worth anything,) and besides it would be the longest and most difficult route. From Geneva to Milan is 279 English miles; from Brigg, at the foot of the mountain, to the village of Simplon, on the summit, it takes only six hours to ascend in travelling by post, and from Simplon to Domo d'Ossola, on the plains of Piedmont below, only five hours. Troops would march in about double that time, or say twenty-four hours. The distance is fourteen leagues, or about forty six English miles. The Simplon road was commenced in 1801, and finished in 1805, at the joint expense of the kingdoms of France and Italy. Napoleon employed thirty thousand men in its construction. It is carried through numerous tunnels. The breadth of the road is from 25 to 30 feet; the number of bridges thrown across rocks and torrents amounts to 611, besides terraces of massive masonry miles in length, and ten galleries hewn out of solid masses of granite. The slope is so gradual that the zigzag ascent is scarcely perceptible. The French engineers conducted the work on the Swiss side, and the Italians on the side of Italy. The difficulties were greatest on the latter. The engineers were compelled to bore through and blow up the hardest rocks obstructing their passage. The quantity of powder used on the Italian side was 17,500 pounds. When we look at the height of this majestic mountain (6,592 feet), the appalling precipices bordering the road, the impetuous torrents and the roaring waterfalls furrowing its sides, the dazzling glaciers, the terrible avalanches, "those thunderbolts of snow" by which its dark forests are often uprooted, we cannot but pay tribute to the genius and the indomitable will which triumphed over such obstructions, and rendered the road free from even the appearance of danger. The construction of this road was decided upon by Napoleon after the battle of Marengo, while the recollection of his own difficult passage of the Alps by the Great St. Bernard (at that time one of the easiest Alpine passes) was fresh in his memory. His object was to have a road over which he could conveniently carry his cannon into Italy. He might well boast, after the completion of this and the road over Mount Cenis that the Alps were no more. Sir James Mackintosh said: "Its peculiar character is to be the greatest of all those monuments that at once dazzle the imagination by their splendor and are subservient to general convenience." "England," says Burke, "has built no bridges, made no high roads, cut no navigations, dug out no reservoirs. Were we to be driven out of India this day, nothing would remain to tell that it had been possessed during the inglorious period of our dominion by anything better than the ourang outang or the tiger." Not so France—the Simplon road is the greatest monument of her Napoleon. It was the first of the great carriage roads opened across the Alps. Those that have followed it are but copies of the great original idea. In 1807 Napoleon travelled this road in five days to Milan, accompanied by Josephine. It was so greatly injured on the Sardinian side by storms in 1834, 1839 and 1849, and not having been since put into proper repair, that it is now almost impassable to carriages. But it would be easy restoring it to its former excellence.

But there is another road. The route by Mount Cenis, the second grand work of Napoleon over the Alps, is the easiest, the best, and the most convenient to the immense body of troops concentrated at Lyons. This is the road now most frequented by travellers. From Lyons up the Rhone to Chambery is twenty hours, and Chambery to Turin is 167 English miles—but two-thirds of this are by railroad. Lanslebourg is at the base of the Cenis in Savoy, and from thence to the top of the pass, which is 6,825 feet high, only occupies a traveller about two and a half hours. The top consits of a plain extending two leagues, circled by the peaks of the Cenis. Here is a beautiful lake, whose limpid waters are said to be unfathomable, and abound in the most delicious trout in Europe. At the foot of the mountain, on the Piedmontese side, is Susa, which was once defended by a fortress, but the work is now destroyed. It is only thirty-three miles from Susa to Turin, and there is a railroad the entire way. This is the route by which Louis Napoleon will despatch such of his troops as he does not send by sea from Marseilles or Toulon.

This road was ordered to be constructed by the elder Napoleon in 1803, but it was not finished till 1811. Pompey is supposed to have been the first general who attempted to cross this Alp, which from his days till the time of Napoleon could only be passed on foot or on a mule. On this road three thousand men were employed. It is practicable for carriages and cannon at all seasons of the year.

It will not be possible for Austria to fight her way through Piedmont and seize this pass before the troops of Napoleon have crossed it. France is now covered with a network of railroads, branching from seven main arteries—some of these proceeding north and east to Germany, by which the invasion of Austria proper would be rendered easy. There is a road too, fit for the marching of troops along the coast of the Mediterranean into Sardinia. But it would be too slow for present operations. In fact, any land route will not be fast enough. From Marseilles to Genoa, the chief seaport of Sardinia, is 196 nautical miles, which a steamer can accomplish in one night. From Genoa to Turin, 103¾ miles, or about four hours journey by railroad. So that in less than eighteen hours, certainly less than twenty-four, troops despatched from Marseilles by a touch of the telegraph wire in the Tuileries, can be in the capital of Sardinia. Turin is not now fortified, and would need speedy assistance against superior numbers. A short time ago its citadel was removed to make way for a railroad. It was the first city in Europe which was defended by a regular fortification. It has always played a most important part in Italian wars, from its geographical position.

Napoleon III., therefore, does not need to cross the Alps to defend Sardinia or assail Austria. By the aid of steam and his powerful fleet he can land his troops both at Genoa and Nice, and at Venice in the Adriatic; and by extending a line from the latter across the peninsula to Genoa, he can cut off the auxiliaries of Austria in Central and Southern Italy. What is more, he can invade Austria by Trieste, her own port in the Adriatic. His navy, in fact, will make both the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, for the time being, French lakes, for Austria has no fleet. If England keeps off her hands he will have it all his own way. Had the elder Napoleon such means at his disposal he need never have crossed the Alps. But there was then no steam, and England, which was his enemy, swept the seas with her fleets. The circumstances, of Napoleon I. and Napoleon III. in regard to the invasion of Italy and Germany are entirely different.

MEN OF THE TIME.

Prominent Characters in the Great European Drama.

SKETCHES OF LOUIS NAPOLEON, EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH—VICTOR EMANUEL, KING OF SARDINIA—FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA—MARSHALS CANROBERT, RANDON AND BARAGUAY D'HILLIERS OF THE FRENCH ARMY—COUNT CAVOUR AND MARQUIS D'AZEGLIO, SARDINIAN AMBASSADORS—GENERAL GARABALDI, THE ITALIAN PATRIOT, AND GENERAL LA MAMORA, COMMANDER OF THE SARDINIAN ARMY, ETC., ETC.

While the world is breathless in momentary anticipation of an universal outbreak in Europe, which the recent news so plainly foreshadows, we deem it fitting to refresh the minds of our readers as to the men who are now most prominent in European affairs, pertaining particularly to the present crisis.

VICTOR EMMANUEL II.,

KING OF SARDINIA.

Victor Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia, which country bears almost the same relation to the pending European war that Turkey did to the Crimean, is one of the prominent actors in the great drama now being enacted on the Eastern hemisphere. The House of Savoy, of which he is the head, descends from the old Counts of Sardinia. Although it is one of the most ancient and most illustrious in Europe, there are few reigning families in existence on the origin of which so many contradictory versions have been given. All authors agree in carrying back its genealogy to the ninth or tenth century, but while some of them with much appearance of probability derive it from the ancient Kings of Arles, the Princes of the House of Savoy themselves appear to accredit a statement according to which the famous Saxon Chief Witikind is the founder of the royal House of Sardinia. However this may be, Bertold and his son Humbert, the Whitehanded, were Counts of Savoy in the first half of the eleventh century, and one branch possessed the Principality of Piedmont. It became extinct in 1418, and that principality was reunited by Amedee VIII., chief of the second branch, whom the Emperor Sigismond created Duke of Savoy. In 1631 the House acquired the Duchy of Montferrat. Victor Amedee II., Duke of Savoy, was in 1713 made King of Sicily, and in 1720 he exchanged that kingdom for that of Sardinia. His son Charles Emmanuel III. acquired a considerable part of the Milanais. In 1815 the territory of the ancient republic of Genoa was united to the Sardinian monarchy, which is now composed as follows:—The island of Sardinia, 430 geographical miles in extent; Duchy of Savoy, 176; Principality of Piedmont, 369; Duchy of Montferrat, 49; part of the Duchy of Milan, 147, and the Duchy of Genoa, 110; in all 1,277 geographical miles, with a population amounting at the last census to 4,300,000 inhabitants. The House of Savoy has contracted several alliances with the old royal House of France. Louis XVIII. and Charles X. married the two daughters of Victor Amedee III., King of Sardinia, but both these princesses died before their husbands had ascended the throne of France.

King Victor Emanuel is son of Charles Amedee Albert, of Savoy Carignan, and the Princess Maria Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand, Grand Duke of Tuscany. He was born on the 14th of March, 1820, and is at present in his thirty-sixth year.

At the time of his accession the flame of insurrection, never in a more righteous cause, had spread through Italy, and Lombardy had risen against Austria. The King of Sardinia and Piedmont well knew the strength of the Power thus braved—too well for success. He delayed his military movements until he appeared to have been forced to adopt them; and this caution, justifiable on narrow views of policy, caused terrible reverses to his arms.

On the 23d of March, 1848, one month after the downfall of Louis Philippe, Carlo Alberto issued the proclamation by which he raised the Piedmontese flag as the "standard of Italian unity." His force consisted of two *corps d'armée* and a reserve, which last was under the command of the Duke of Savoy, the subject of our memoir; it numbered about 20,000 men. The artillery was commanded by the Duke of Genoa, the second son, since deceased. A series of strategic manoeuvres which appear to be universally condemned resulted in an engagement before the walls of Verona. The success was about equal on either side. The Sardinians had hoped for a rising within the city; they therefore retired without being beaten; while Radetzky considered that he had gained the day, inasmuch as the Piedmontese failed in their object. All accounts agree that the Duke of Savoy behaved with great gallantry, and fully sustained the military honor of his house. The King of Sardinia next took the fortress of Peschiera, and here, too, the Duke of Savoy distinguished himself; but his principal exploits were in the engagement at Goito, whence, after a whole day's fighting, he dislodged the Austrians and drove them along the right bank of the Mincio back on Mantua. Then came the long, tedious and fruitless attack on Mantua, which furnished Radetzky with the time necessary to concentrate his forces. Then came a series of disasters to the Piedmontese arms. The lines of Carlo Alberto were forced in several places; but his army fought with a gallantry which promised victory, when, the Austrians suddenly receiving reinforcements to the number of 20,000 men, the flank of the Piedmontese army was turned, and Carlo Alberto was forced to recross the Mincio. The present King took part in these transactions, and displayed all the qualities of a gallant soldier. On the 3d of August, the Piedmontese, pursued by the Austrians, entered Milan, which, however, he soon quitted, as the citizens capitulated. This was followed by a truce, and finally led to the evacuation of Lombardy by the Piedmontese. It was during the progress of these events that the throne of Sicily was offered by the insurrectionary party to the Duke of Genoa, the second son of Carlo Alberto, and, after some coy hesitation, refused.

The year 1849 was destined to witness new efforts on the part of Carlo Alberto, and still greater reverses. The King opened the Parliament on the 1st of February, with a speech wherein he spoke warmly of Italian unity, and called on the nation to aid in the sacrifices necessary to continue the war. In adopting this course, he was rather forced than otherwise by the miscalculating enthusiasm of his people.

Most of the history of Victor Emanuel's government from this point is included in the sketches of his ministers given in this article. His action during the Crimean war, in joining the Sardinian forces to the allies against Russia, and securing for Sardinia a voice in the Congress of Paris, and to settle the questions in dispute, placed Sardinia ahead of all the other Italian States, and gave her the good reason which she now urges against disarmament and the ignoring of her importance.

The alliance of Prince Napoleon with Princess Clothilde of Sardinia has naturally combined with the critical aspect of Italian politics to render the House of Savoy an object of extraordinary interest in the eyes of Europe. In the popular cries of Lombardy the King of Sardinia is saluted as the future King of Italy, and the peace of the continent for the next generation appears now to depend on the policy of Piedmont.

Victor Emanuel has harbored the Italian patriots, until now there is a division of the army of 20,000 men—the same which is commanded by Garibaldi—and which Austria imperiously demands shall be disbanded.

So great was the admiration of the Italians of this city for him that it was recently proposed to present him with a sword, and the idea was only abandoned in consequence of the pressing need of destitute patriots.

COUNT CAMILLE BENSON DE CAVOUR,

SARDINIAN PRIME MINISTER.

The firm stand taken by Count Cavour, the Sardinian Prime Minister, to compel the admission of the Sardinian government to a representation in the proposed European Peace Congress, and to enforce a recognition of the importance of that Power among the great nations of Europe, has marked him as a prominent man in view of the impending war, and of the part in it which is necessarily assigned to him.

Count Cavour was born in Turin, on the 10th of August, 1810. Of an ancient and wealthy family of Piedmont, and connected with the most noble houses of that country, the young Cavour had been appointed, while yet a mere youth, a page at the King's Court. Here the causticity of his wit and the independence of his character soon distinguished him, though in a manner not to render him a favorite of courtiers. The independent character and ready causticity of Cavour were too positive for the atmosphere he breathed; he was dismissed from the body of young parasites that were clinging round royalty, and, from his disgrace at Court, was looked upon coldly by the nobles. Far from being saddened by this first check, the spirited lad declared loudly he considered himself very fortunate to have got rid of his pack. He left the Court for the Military Academy, where he obtained the rank of Lieutenant of Engineers. But, although of a high and wealthy family, he was but a cadet; and in Piedmont military promotion was at that date almost the sole privilege of the more favored children of birth and fortune. Nor had he made friends at the Court. Even at this early period his masculine mind was turned to questions of moment, and the English economists were the authors he preferred; statistics became his dominant passion; yet his studies were so varied that he left college not only with *eclat* for his talents, but also with the solid advantage of being a lieutenant in the engineers. No sooner was he free from the authority of the college professors than he began an attentive study of the world in which he was to live. The unbounded haughtiness and ignorance of his peers soon fixed the sentiments of Cavour into decided liberalism. He did not wait for the consequence of these openly declared opinions, but at once threw up his commission, and set sail for England. Once arrived on the soil of Albion, he pursued with more intense ardor those researches which had already won so much of his attention. The system of government in England captivated him; and he examined with cautious energy all those details which form so admirable a whole; the only variety in his pleasures was passing from the administrative to the commercial points of the British government. Cavour was simply liberal in sentiment when he left his country; but when he returned to it he was largely constitutional. Projects of reform were circulating at the Court of Sardinia; the progress was rapid, and soon the high days of absolutism passed away forever.

In 1847 he had already made himself a political notability in Piedmont by becoming editor of the *Risorgimento*, a journal of daringly liberal tendencies, yet pervaded by the aristocratic spirit as regarded the tone of its articles. He assisted at the very birth of the Piedmontese Parliamentary system. The late King Carlo Alberto had resolved, seeing the tendency of the times, to bestow on his subjects a constitutional form of government, rather than find himself ungraciously forced to make such a concession. Still it was but the resolve, not the execution—for which, indeed, a more astute and enlarged mind than that of Carlo Alberto might have been puzzled to find a safe form. At this moment he received, among other requests of the same kind, a deputation from certain citizens of Turin, praying for the grant of a constitution. The deputation presented itself to the Count Avet, Minister of Grace and Justice; and the King having demanded to know the names of those of whom it was composed, it appeared that they were Brofferio (with whose name the public are familiar in the debates of the Piedmontese Parliament), Count Santa Rosa (afterwards minister), Colonel Durando (then General and Minister of War and Marine), and the Count Camille de Cavour. It is said that when the King heard this last name mentioned he at once saw that the matter was serious and worthy of attention. The consequence of this was that the King finally resolved to perfect his idea. He called around him the most able men on the constitutional side, and in the end there came forth what was called the "Statuto"—a term equivalent to the French "Chartre"—which, however, was but a crude and imperfect work, little more than a copy of the French Charter of 1830, which, at the very epoch of the appearance of its Sardinian prototype, was about to be trampled under foot by the republicans of February, 1848.

Cavour took no part as minister in the first organization of the new constitution, but held a distinguished position in the Senate. His attitude, like his character, resembled somewhat that of Earl Grey, the first English Reform Minister. A rather haughty independence was mistaken by the multitude for hostility to popular claims; but his unquestionable talent commanded respect even from those who dreaded his aristocratic spirit. So long as D'Azeglio was the Minister of Victor Emmanuel, Count Cavour confined himself to a temperate opposition in public, while counselling the King in private. In October, 1850, Count Cavour was called upon to take office under that constitution which he had been so instrumental in bringing into the world. He succeeded Count Pierre Derossi de Santa Rosa as Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. His ability was at once recognized, both by his colleagues and by the public, and he took a lead alike in the Ministry and in the Chamber. Uniting with the popular sympathies the discipline of the aristocrat, he speedily took a position of command, although his influence did not yet place him in the highest rank as a minister. From October, 1850, to May, 1852, when, for a moment, the King wavered in his struggle with the Papal See, Count Cavour continued the life of the ministry. After the latter epoch he endeavored, though unsuccessfully, himself to form a government, by a species of "Coalition," composed of the more moderate men of his own and other parties. He failed; but in the following year he was more successful, and ever since he has been Prime Minister. During the interval between his first appointment, on the death of Santa Rosa, and his accession to the Premiership, he has successively filled the offices of Minister of Agriculture, Minister of Commerce, Minister of Finance, Minister for Foreign Affairs, and President of the Council.

In 1852 there occurred a struggle between the Count and Maximo d'Azeglio, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and President of the Council, which concluded by the Count Cavour becoming possessed of this position also; but on the 22d of May, 1852, he gave in his resignation, and then travelled through France and England in a continued triumph. Honored by all the first men of England, and caressed by the Emperor of the French, he returned to the service of his Sovereign as President of the Cabinet, without any condition whatever. He has obtained immense popularity, and has also had the destiny of all great men, in meeting with calumny at every step. Although a man of extreme affability, Count Cavour is of an impassioned character, and of great activity both of body and mind. His appearance is in harmony with his general character; there is an union of the aristocrat of the old rock and the modern citizen. He is of middle stature, slightly inclined to obesity, and possessed of a countenance expressive of frankness and good nature; his wide, full forehead has been compared with that of the first Napoleon, and a smile, somewhat ironical, is stereotyped on his lips; altogether there is a decidedly intelligent face belonging to this celebrated statesman; and the ready benevolence of his heart is not more awake to the suffering poor than to the friends who boast of his affection. Without being an orator, Count Cavour is essentially elo-