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G. BAILEY, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR; JOHN G. WHITTIER, CORRESPONDING EDITOR.

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G. BAILEY, *Washington, D. C.*

WASHINGTON, D. C.

LIFE IN PARIS.

PARIS, *April* 8, 1858.

Duke de Malakoff, Ambassador to England—A Present to Napoleon from Queen Victoria—The Reported Exchange of Visits Between the Royal Houses of France and England—Alexander II—The Opening of the New Boulevart de Sebastopol—A Loan of 180,000,000 Francs to be Made by the City of Paris—A New Opera House—A Subscription for Lamartine—The Style of Equipages Belonging to American Citizens Resident in Paris—Concerts—Duel Between Mr. Calhoun and Mr. Brevoort, of New York—Lola Montez.

To the Editor of the National Era:

The bitter feeling indulged in for some time towards the English seems somewhat to have abated since the English press speaks in such very friendly and pleasing terms of Marshal Pelissier's appointment. The Duke is said to be rather a rough individual, who may perhaps be the man for fighting the Arabs or Russians, but not quite so desirable at a court, and Napoleon has gladly embraced this opportunity to transfer him to England. Besides his salary as Ambassador, the Duke de Malakoff will receive 100,000 francs as a remuneration for his services in the Crimea, 100,000 francs as Marshal of France, 30,000 francs as Senator; in all, 500,000 francs ($100,000.) Only a few years past, the hero's salary amounted to $2,000. Such is the power of a constitutional autocrat elected by general suffrage. The various Marshals are making a grand *entré* at their respective stations, where they are received, like the proconsuls of old, with all the honors due to such rank. Their addresses to the soldiers are short, sweet, and very expressive, signifying, "Down with the man who dares to breathe loud!"

Queen Victoria recently sent a present to her dear friend, Napoleon, a gun of extraordinary workmanship. The Emperor, Empress, and Imperial Prince, were introduced to the honored field-piece by an English officer, who explained to the baby soldier the mode of handling that awful fire engine, and it is reported that the little fellow was exceedingly pleased with its high polish, which the press considers a good omen for the continuation of the Franco-English alliance.

It is rumored that Napoleon and family are to visit Osborne Castle next month, to return thanks for the gun, and to introduce the Imperial Prince to the loyal subjects of England; and that Victoria and Albert have promised to return the Imperial call in the autumn, during the Emperor's stay at Compeigne. All this looks very friendly, and yet it is a known fact that both countries are fortifying their shores.

The Duke de Malakoff will not do much mischief as Ambassador, for he, like many other good soldiers, has the greatest possible aversion to pen and ink, and will probably spend most of his time in studying the strategical position of London, which is, as Blucher exclaimed, "a capital place for sacking."

Whilst Napoleon III is screwing down the dear people of France to the lowest notch, Alexander II is busily engaged to complete the emancipation of the serfs, and a late Ukase interdicts to the nobility the possibility of taking domestics from the ranks of the field-laboring serfs, without giving them wages, which will deprive the nobles of that aristocratic display to have a legion of menials about their houses, of which they were so fond, and, in future, it will be difficult for them to find human beings fools enough to consent to be whipped and maltreated for nothing.

One can scarcely believe their own eyes, when they see the cause of the oppressed advocated with so much warmth by the Russian press and officers.

On the third of March, Monravieff, the Military Governor of the Province of Nijnii Novogrod, appealed to the members of the Committee of Emancipation, and said:

"By giving to man what belongs to man, you will justly deserve the confidence of your Sovereign and respond to the expectations of the Nation. I say more—you will deserve the admiration of the entire world, which is looking upon you at this moment. Your work will merit the blessings of Heaven and of all mankind, history will place you among the promoters of justice and the love of your kind, and will call you the founders of the prosperity of your country."

Such speeches sound strangely, coming from the icy region of despotism, from the land of the unmerciful knout, and a speedy passage to Siberia.

The opening of the new Boulevart de Sebastopol took place on Monday last, and was celebrated with great pomp. The National and Imperial Guards lined both sides of the Boulevart, from the Seine to the Strasburg terminus. Garlands of flowers, evergreens, and inscriptions, the coat of arms of the Empire and the city, ornamented the masts from which the bright colors of France gracefully streamed. The Emperor on horseback, with a splendid suite, reached the Boulevart at two o'clock. A gigantic curtain, drawn across the entrance to the Boulevart, was removed to expose to view the whole extent of this noble thoroughfare. The Emperor made a speech, in which he complimented the city and himself for all that has been done for Paris during his reign, and then continued his way along this new road, followed by the Empress and her suite in open carriages; returning to the Tuileries by the Boulevarts Rue de la Paix and the Rue de Rivoli. The weather was most propitious, and all Paris turned out to witness the spectacle. The works of the Boulevart de Sebastapol were begun at the end of 1854, so that the period from the commencement, to the present time, has not been altogether three years and a half. The length of this great artery is, from the Strasburg Railroad Depot to the Seine, 2,500 metres; and from the left bank of the river to the Observatory, 2,000, so that the whole distance is 4,500 metres, or more than a league—a truly noble length of thoroughfare, and such as scarcely another city can boast of.

The city of Paris is making a new loan of 180,000,000 francs ($36,000,000) to continue the embellishment of this unrivalled and charming place. Among the favored plans, that of a new Opera House excites the greatest interest, and is to be the most splendid monument of the kind in the world. The first architects are engaged to execute the Emperor's plan. It will not only be magnificent in point of architecture, but vast, and well provided with all the comforts our century requires.

The French Opera was founded in 1669, and has since occupied eight different localities. The last two have unfortunately been the theatres of crime. In front of the Opera House that once stood on the Place Louvois, the Duke de Berry fell by the hands of Louvel; and the disastrous event of the 14th January last took place in the Rue Lepelletier, before the Grand Opera House, established in 1820 as a temporary affair.

The friends of Lamartine are again out with a subscription to prevent the whole of the property of his ancestors from passing into other hands. The Emperor heads the list with ten thousand francs, ($2,000;) the various members of the Imperial Family, and other high dignitaries, have followed suit. France will doubtless nobly answer to the appeal for this great poet. This is the only claim he has; as for his statesmanship, history will have but little to say in his favor. It is surprising that a man like Lamartine should be willing to have his name hawked about the world for such a purpose. Lamartine's pen would always have more than supported him, had his wants been reasonably limited. Beranger would never have condescended to such a step.

Some time past, I furnished you with a letter showing forth the inordinate love of titles manifested by some of my countrymen, and now let me give you a description of one of the many private equipages belonging to American residents in Paris. Two bays, with gilded harness, and the baronial crown on all the prominent parts, proudly draw a carriage of the latest design, with a coat of arms on the doors large enough to mount a tavern sign-post. The coachman is rigged out in violet velvet plush breeches, white stockings, and shoes with immense gilt buckles. The liveries of light drab cloth, ornamented with large gilt buttons likewise bearing the coat of arms; silk cords are suspended over the shoulder, a waistcoat embroidered with gold lace, a hat with a wide gold band and a formidable cockade, a pair of moustaches *à la rat tail*, a gilded-handled whip, complete this republican establishment. The footman is in the same livery, of course. The tasteless contrast of colors, and conspicuous appearance, indicates the *parvenu*, or an inmate of a lunatic asylum.

The great concert season is closed; spring has set in, and the opulent are already leaving for the country. Concerts in Paris are not, as in Germany or in Italy, attractive to all classes of society; here, they are confined to professional musicians, and to a few amateurs belonging to the wealthier classes. The greater part are gotten up for the purpose of introducing to the world some unknown artist from unknown parts. I say world, because Paris is looked upon as the highest tribunal for the arts; and the opinion expressed here is the standard for other civilized countries. For this reason, all artists who wish to make themselves known, endeavor to make a grand *debut* in Paris. The quality of the audience is of no sort of consequence, and, let the process be what it may, the journalists report favorably in proportion to the liberality of the artist. A failure is a thing unheard of, artists being acquainted with the steps necessary to prevent it. The tickets are given to the friends of the artists, who again extend their favors to the cooks, the *concierge*, and to a great variety of persons in that station of life. The artist is nevertheless represented as having played with success to the best of connoisseurs and the elite of society. Those reports have the desired effect in the distance.

We sometimes hear of an American artist giving a concert at Flerge's or Pleyel's concert room, where they crack the ceiling with the melodious strains of their powerful voices, rivalling the nightingale in sweetness and the lark in ease and grace; surpassing Cattalani and Malibran—in short, everything yet heard in the shape of a human voice. But there it ends, and nothing more is ever heard of that extraordinary phenomenon, who was neither requested to sing in the saloons of the Tuilleries, nor to accept an engagement at the Grand Opera, to delight the ears of their Majesties. Self-esteem ascribes the want of success to jealousy, prejudice, intrigue, and to a great want of taste, in the public.

To create a furor in Paris requires uncommon talent and cultivation, and an engagement at the Grand Opera is not so easy a matter as might be thought; artists of fame from all countries aspire to that honor, and but few reach it. Many a Prima Donna, of merit and reputation, has failed in the attempt. How is it then possible for a novice, a beginner who has not studied seriously, without school, experience, and without the *feu sacré*, to pass the severe ordeal composed of critics such as Rossini, Verdi, and other maiestros of great merit. We are far from saying that there are no good voices among the Americans; but to excel, and arrive at that degree of perfection and power which a good opera singer requires, the endowed aspirant must apply herself to indefagitable study and frequent the society of artists for years.

The most interesting concerts are those given by the nobility of the Fg. St. Germain. Extraordinary talents, assisted by the best professors, are there to be heard. Those concerts are strictly private, and accessible only to friends; and there only is to be seen that truly polished French society grafted on the old branches of the time of Louis XIV and XVI, that elegance and ease of manner, that true politeness and cultivation, peculiar to the time of those reigns. These concerts are generally preceded by a comedy or vaudeville, written and composed for the occasion, both played and sung by amateurs; giving evidence of that rare talent which would make the fortune of the poor scholars of the Conservatoire, mistaking taste for talent, and believing him or himself to be nature's favorite.

The mania for duelling at Washington, of which we have recently read so much in the American newspapers, has spread its contagious influence as far as this place. Mr. Calhoun, our Secretary of Legation, differing with Mr. Brevoort, of New York, on some point of diplomacy, the latter unceremoniously gave the Secretary a black eye; in consequence of which, a challenge ensued. The parties went to Belgium, and fired away at each other like brave fellows, but not like good marksmen; the balls did not take effect, and the matter was arranged by a court of honor to the satisfaction of all parties.

Lola Montez has come to Paris, to educate her daughter for the ballet. The illustrious mother has in the mean time taken an engagement at a café chantant for the season, at a salary of 20,000 francs, ($4,000,) where she will probably perform the Indian scalp dance and Le Pas de Kangaroo. The former she learned from the red skins of the far West, and the latter from those long-limbed deformities of Australia.

SKETCHES FROM THE LAST VOLUME OF BANCROFT'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

WASHINGTON.

Washington was then forty-three years of age. In stature, he a little exceeded six feet; his limbs were sinewy and well-proportioned; his chest broad; his figure stately, blending dignity of presence with ease. His robust constitution had been tried and invigorated by his early life in the wilderness, his habit of occupation out of doors, and his rigid temperance; so that few equalled him in strength of arm or power of endurance. His complexion was florid; his hair dark brown; his head in its shape perfectly round. His broad nostrils seemed formed to give expression and escape to scornful anger. His dark-blue eyes, which were deeply set, had an expression of resignation, and an earnestness that was almost sadness.

At eleven years old, left an orphan to the care of an excellent but unlettered mother, he grew up without learning. Of arithmetic and geometry he acquired just knowledge enough to be able to practice measuring land; but all his instruction at school taught him not so much as the orthography or rules of grammar of his own tongue. His culture was altogether his own work, and he was in the strictest sense a self-made man; yet from his early life he never seemed uneducated. At sixteen, he went into the wilderness as a surveyor, and for three years continued the pursuit, where the forests trained him, in meditative solitude, to freedom and largeness of mind; and nature revealed to him her obedience to serene and silent laws. In his intervals from toil, he seemed always to be attracted to the best men, and to be cherished by them. Fairfax, his employer, an Oxford scholar, already aged, became his fast friend. He read little, but with close attention. Whatever he took in hand, he applied himself to with care; and his papers, which have been preserved, show how he almost imperceptibly gained the power of writing correctly—always expressing himself with clearness and directness, often with felicity of language and grace.

When the frontiers on the West became disturbed, he at nineteen was commissioned an adjutant-general, with the rank of major. At twenty-one, he went as the envoy of Virginia to the council of Indian chiefs on the Ohio, and to the French officers near Lake Erie. Fame waited upon him from his youth, and no one of his Colony was so much spoken of. He conducted the first military expedition from Virginia that crossed the Alleghanies. Braddock selected him as an aid, and he was the only man who came out of the disastrous defeat near the Monongahela with increased reputation, which extended to England. The next year, when he was but four-and-twenty, "the great esteem" in which he was held in Virginia, and his "real merit," led the Lieutenant Governor of Maryland to request that he might be "commissionated and appointed second in command" of the army designed to march to the Ohio; and Shirley, the commander in chief, heard the proposal "with great satisfaction and pleasure," for "he knew no provincial officer upon the continent to whom he would so readily give it as to Washington." In 1758, he acted under Forbes as a brigadier, and but for him that general would never have been able to cross the mountains.

Courage was so natural to him, that it was hardly spoken of to his praise; no one ever at any moment of his life discovered in him the least shrinking in danger; and he had a hardihood of daring which escaped notice, because it was so enveloped by superior calmness and wisdom.

He was as cheerful as he was spirited, frank and communicative in the society of friends, fond of the fox-chase and the dance, often sportive in his letters, and liked a hearty laugh. This joyousness of disposition remained to the last, though the vastness of his responsibilities was soon to take from him the right of displaying the impulsive qualities of his nature, and the weight which he was to bear up was to overlay and repress his gayety and openness.

His hand was liberal; giving quietly and without observation, as though he was ashamed of nothing but being discovered in doing good. He was kindly and compassionate, and of lively sensibility to the sorrows of others; so that if his country had only needed a victim for its relief, he would have willingly offered himself as a sacrifice. But while he was prodigal of himself, he was considerate for others; ever parsimonious of the blood of his countrymen.

He was prudent in the management of his private affairs, purchased rich lands from the Mohawk Valley to the flats of the Kanawha, and improved his fortune by the correctness of his judgment; but, as a public man, he knew no other aim than the good of his country, and, in the hour of his country's poverty, he refused personal emolument for his service.

His faculties were so well balanced and combined, that his constitution, free from excess, was tempered evenly with all the elements of activity, and his mind resembled a well-ordered commonwealth; his passions, which had the intensest vigor, owned allegiance to reason; and, with all the fiery quickness of his spirit, his impetuous and massive will was held in check by consummate judgment. He had in his composition a calm which gave him, in moments of highest excitement, the power of self-control, and enabled him to excel in patience even when he had most cause for disgust. Washington was offered a command when there was little to bring out the unorganized resources of the continent but his own influence, and authority was connected with the people by the most frail, most attenuated, scarcely discernible threads; yet, vehement as was his nature, impassioned as was his courage, he so restrained his ardor that he never failed continuously to exert the attracting power of that influence, and never exerted it so sharply as to break its force.

In secrecy he was unsurpassed; but his secrecy had the character of prudent reserve, not of cunning or concealment.

His understanding was lucid and his judgment accurate, so that his conduct never betrayed hurry or confusion. No detail was too minute for his personal inquiry and continued supervision; and, at the same time, he comprehended events in their widest aspects and relations. He never seemed above the object which engaged his attention, and he was always equal, without an effort, to the solution of the highest questions, even when there existed no precedents to guide his decision.

In this way, he never drew to himself admiration for the possession of any one quality in excess, never made in council any one suggestion that was sublime but impracticable, never in action took to himself the praise or the blame of undertakings astonishing in conception, but beyond his means of execution. It was the most wonderful accomplishment of this man, that, placed upon the largest theatre of events, at the head of the greatest revolution in human affairs, he never failed to observe all that was possible, and at the same time to bound his aspirations by that which was possible.

A slight tinge in his character, perceptible only to the close observer, revealed the region from which he sprung, and he might be described as the best specimen of manhood as developed in the South; but his qualities were so faultlessly proportioned, that his whole country rather claimed him as its choicest representative, the most complete expression of all its attainments and aspirations. He studied his country, and conformed to it. His countrymen felt that he was the best type of America, and rejoiced in it, and were proud of it. They lived in his life, and made his success and his praise their own.

Profoundly impressed with confidence in God's Providence, and exemplary in his respect for the forms of public worship, no philosopher of the eighteenth century was more firm in the support of freedom of religious opinion; none more tolerant, or more remote from bigotry; but belief in God, and trust in His overruling power, formed the essence of his character. Divine wisdom not only illumines the spirit, it inspires the will.

Washington was a man of action, and not of theory or words; his creed appears in his life, not in his professions, which burst from him very rarely, and only at those great moments of crisis in the fortunes of his country when earth and heaven seemed actually to meet, and his emotions became too intense for suppression; but his whole being was one continued act of faith in the eternal, intelligent, moral order of the universe. Integrity was so completely the law of his nature, that a planet would sooner have shot from its sphere than he have departed from his uprightness, which was so constant that it often seemed to be almost impersonal.

They say of Giotto, that he introduced goodness into the art of painting; Washington carried it with him to the camp and the cabinet, and established a new criterion of human greatness. The purity of his will confirmed his fortitude; and as he never faltered in his faith in virtue, he stood fast by that which he knew to be just, free from illusions, never dejected by the apprehension of the difficulties and perils that went before him, and drawing the promise of success from the justice of his cause. Hence he was persevering, leaving nothing unfinished; free from all taint of obstinacy in his firmness, seeking and gladly receiving advice, but immovable in his devotedness to right.

Of a "retiring modesty and habitual reserve," his ambition was no more than the consciousness of his power, and was subordinate to his sense of duty; he took the foremost place, for he knew, from inborn magnanimity, that it belonged to him, and he dared not withhold the service required of him; so that, with all his humility, he was by necessity the first, though never for himself or for private ends. He loved fame, the approval of coming generations, the good opinion of his fellow-men of his own time, and he desired to make his conduct coincide with their wishes; but not fear of censure, not the prospect of applause, could tempt him to swerve from rectitude; and the praise which he coveted was the sympathy of that moral sentiment which exists in every human breast, and goes forth only to the welcome of virtue.

There have been soldiers who have achieved mightier victories in the field, and made conquests more nearly corresponding to the boundlessness of selfish ambition; statesmen who have been connected with more startling upheavals of society; but it is the greatness of Washington, that in public trusts he used power solely for the public good; that he was the life, and moderator, and stay, of the most momentous revolution in human affairs, its moving impulse and its restraining power. Combining the centripetal and the centrifugal forces in their utmost strength and in perfect relations, with creative grandeur of instinct he held ruin in check, and renewed and perfected the institutions of his country. Finding the colonies disconnected and dependent, he left them such a united and well-ordered commonwealth as no visionary had believed to be possible. So that it has been truly said, "he was as fortunate as great and good."

LAFAYETTE.

The sympathy for America which prevailed more and more in England, reached the King's own brother, the weak but amiable Duke of Gloucester. In July he crossed the channel, with the view to inspect the citadels along the eastern frontier of France. When he left Dover, nothing had been heard from America later than the retreat of the British from Concord, and the surprise of Ticonderoga. Metz, the strongest place on the east of France, was a particular object of his journey; and as his tour was made with the sanction of Louis XVI, he was received there by the Count de Broglie as the guest of the King. Among the visiters on the occasion, came a young man not yet eighteen, whom De Broglie loved with parental tenderness, Gilbert Motier de la Fayette. His father had fallen, in his twenty-fifth year, in the battle of Minden, leaving his only child less than two years old. The boyish dreams of the orphan had been of glory and of liberty; at the college in Paris, at the academy of Versailles, no studies charmed him like tales of republics; rich by vast inheritances, and married at sixteen, he was haunted by a passion to rove the world as an adventurer in quest of fame, and the opportunity to strike a blow for freedom. A guest at the banquet in honor of the Duke of Gloucester, he listened with avidity to an authentic version of the uprising of the New England husbandmen. The reality of life had now brought before him something more wonderful than the brightest of his visions; the youthful nation insurgent against oppression, and fighting for the right to govern themselves, took possession of his imagination. He inquired; he grew warm with enthusiasm; and before he left the table, the men of Lexington and Concord had won for America a volunteer in Lafayette.

HAMILTON.

It has been kept in memory, that on this occasion a young man from abroad, so small and delicate in his organization that he *appeared* to to be much younger than perhaps he really was, took part in the debate before the crowd. They asked one another the name of the gifted stranger, who shone like a star first seen above a haze, of whose rising no one had taken note. He proved to be Alexander Hamilton, a West Indian. His mother, while he was yet a child, had left him an orphan and poor. A father's care he seems never to have known. The first written trace of his existence is in 1766, when his name *appears* as a witness to a legal paper executed in the Danish island of Santa Cruz. Three years later, when he had become "a youth," he "contemned the grovelling condition of a clerk," fretted at the narrow bounds of his island cage, and to a friend of his own years confessed his ambition. "I would willingly risk my life," said he, "though not my character, to exalt my station. I mean to prepare the way for futurity; we have seen such schemes successful when the projector is constant." That way he prepared by integrity of conduct, diligence, and study. After an education as a merchant, during which he once at least conducted a voyage, and once had the charge of his employer's business, he found himself able to repair to New York, where he entered the college before the end of 1773. Trained from childhood to take care of himself, he possessed a manly self-reliance. His first sympathies in the contest had been on the British side, against the Americans; but he soon changed his opinions, and in July, 1774, cosmopolitan New York, where he had neither father, nor mother, nor sister, nor brother, nor one person in whose veins ran the same blood as his own, adopted the volunteer from the tropics as its son.

JOHNSON.

While such was the state of angry opposition between the citizens and soldiers at Boston, Lord Howe at London finally broke off his negotiations with Franklin; and the Ministry used the pen of Samuel Johnson to inflame the public mind. Johnson was a poor man's son, and had himself tasted the bitter cup of extreme indigence. His father left no more than twenty pounds. To bury his mother and pay her little debts, he had written Rasselas. For years he had gained a precarious support as an author. He had paced the streets of London all night long, from not having where to lay his head; he had escaped a prison for a trifle he owed by begging an alms of Richardson, had broken his bread with poverty, and had even known what it is from sheer want to go without a dinner. When better days came, he loved the poor as few else love them; and he nursed in his house whole nests of the lame, the blind, the sick, and the sorrowful. A man who had thus sturdily battled with social evils, and was so keenly touched by the wretchedness of the down trodden, deserved to have been able to feel for an injured people; but he refused to do so. Having defined the word pension as "pay given to a State hireling for treason to his country," he was himself become a pensioner; and at the age of three score and six, with small hire, like a bravo who loves his trade, he set about the task of his work-masters. In a tract, which he called "Taxation no Tyranny," he echoed to the crowd the haughty rancor, which passed down from the King and his court, to his council, to the ministers, to the aristocracy, their parasites and followers, with nothing remarkable in his party zeal, but the intensity of its bitterness; or in his manner, but its unparalleled insolence; or in his argument, but its grotesque extravagance.

Had Johnson been truly a man of genius, he would have escaped the shame of having, in his old age, aimed at freedom the feeble shaft which was meant to have carried ruin. In spite of the ostentatious pomp of his morality, his own heart was rivited to the earth. At the last, he cowered under the fear of dissolution, as though death were an enemy; scarifying his limbs in the vain hope of breathing though but a few hours more; unable in the moment of change to fix his eye on God, or to grasp eternity; the emblem of the old political system, which also lay on its death-bed, helplessly longing to live on. His name is never breathed as a watchword; his writings never thrill as oracles.

WESLEY.

The pure minded man, who, in a sensual age, became the quickener of religious fervor, the preacher to the poor, John Wesley, also came forward to defend the system of the court with the usual arguments. He looked so steadily toward the world beyond the skies, that he could not brook the interruption of devout gratitude by bloody contests in this stage of being. Besides, he saw that the rupture between the English and the Americans was growing wider every day, and to him the total defection of America was the evident prelude of a conspiracy against monarchy. The thought of such a conspiracy made him shudder. "No Governments under heaven," said he, "are so despotic as the republican; so subjects are governed in so arbitrary a manner as those of a Commonwealth. The people never but once in all history gave the sovereign power, and that was to Masaniello of Naples. Our sins will never be removed, till we fear God and honor the King."

Wesley's mental constitution was not robust enough to gaze on the future with unblenched calm. He could not foresee that the constellation of republics, so soon to rise in the wilds of America, would welcome the members of the society which he was to found, as the pioneers of religion; that the breath of liberty would waft their messages to the masses of the people; would encourage them to collect the white and the negro, slave and master, in the green wood, for counsel on divine love and the full assurance of grace; and would carry their consolation, and songs, and prayers, to the furthest cabins in the wilderness. To the gladdest of glad tidings for the political regeneration of the world, Wesley listened with timid trembling, as to the fearful bursting of the floodgates of revolution; and he knew not that God was doing a work which should leave the nations of the earth to joy.

CHAT MOSS (ENGLAND) AND ITS RAILWAY.

From an article on the "Difficulties of Railway Engineering," in the London Quarterly Review.

The first, and, even to this day, one of the most remarkable works, was the making the road over Chat Moss—an enterprise which the engineers of the old school treated with derision, and declared to be impossible. George Stephenson himself published no account of the manner in which he executed this or any other of his celebrated works; but we are enabled, with the aid of Mr. John Dixon, civil engineer, who superintended the formation of that part of the Liverpool and Manchester line which crossed Chat Moss, to furnish a more complete history of this remarkable achievement than has yet been published.

Chat Moss is an immense peat bog of about twelve square miles in extent. In most places it is so soft that it is incapable of supporting a man or a horse; and if an iron rod be placed perpendicularly on its surface, it sinks by its own weight to a depth of some thirty feet. Unlike the swamps of Cambridge or Lincolnshire, which consist principally of soft mud or silt, Chat Moss is a mass of spongy vegetable pulp, the growth and decay of ages. The sphagni, or bog mosses, cover the entire area. One year's growth rises over another—the older growths not entirely decaying, but remaining partially preserved by the antiseptic properties peculiar to peat. Hence the remarkable fact, although a semi-fluid mass, the surface of Chat Moss rises above the level of the surrounding country. Like a turtle's back, it declines from the summit in every direction, having from thirty to forty feet gradual slope to the solid land around.

From the remains of trees, chiefly alder and birch, which have been dug out, and which must have previously flourished upon the soil below, it is probable that the sand and clay base on which the bog rests is saucer-shaped, and by this means retains the entire mass in its position. In rainy weather it sensibly swells with the water, and rises in those parts where the moss is the deepest—the capillary attraction of the fibres of the submerged mass, which is from twenty to thirty feet in depth, causing the retention of the moisture, whilst the growing plants effectually check evaporation from the surface. This peculiar character of the moss has presented an insuperable difficulty to any system of wholesale drainage—such as by sinking shafts in its substance, and pumping up the water by steam power. A shaft of thirty feet deep, Mr. Dixon has calculated, would only be effectual for draining a circle of one hundred yards—the water running down an incline of about five to one. It was found that a ditch three feet in depth only served to drain five yards on either side, and two ditches of this depth, ten feet apart, left a portion of the moss between them scarcely affected by the outlet.

It was doubtless a bold thing for George Stephenson to entertain the idea of carrying a railway over such a dismal swamp. One experienced civil engineer declared, before the Parliamentary committee, that no road could possibly be formed across the moss, on which a carriage could stand, "short of the bottom," except by taking out all the soft stuff, and filling in the cavity with solid soil; and a Manchester builder, who was examined, could not imagine the feat possible, unless by arching over the moss, in the manner of a viaduct, from one side to the other. It was the old story of "nothing like leather." When the survey of the line was made, only the edges of the moss could be entered upon, and that with difficulty. One gentleman, of considerable weight and rotundity, when endeavoring to obtain a stand for his theodolite, found himself suddenly sinking. He immediately threw himself down, and rolled over and over until he reached the firm ground, in a sorry mess. Other attempts which were subsequently made to enter upon the moss for the same purpose, were abandoned for the same reason—the want of a sufficiently solid stand for the theodolite.

The act authorizing the construction of the Liverpool and Manchester railway was no sooner obtained, than Mr. Stephenson began to do the "impossible" thing. The three resident engineers selected by Mr. Stephenson to superintend the construction of the line were Mr. Locke, (now M. P.,) Mr. Allcard, and Mr. Dixon. The last was appointed to that portion which included the proposed road across the moss, and the other two were by no means desirous of exchanging posts with him. On Mr. Dixon's arrival, Mr. Locke proceeded to show him over the length he was to take charge of, and to install him in office. The line had already been staked out, and the levels taken in detail, by the aid of planks laid upon the bog. The drains along each side of the proposed road had also been commenced; but the soft pulpy stuff had up to this time flowed into the drains and filled them up, as fast as they were cut. Proceeding across the moss, on the first day's inspection, the new resident slipped off the plank on which he walked, and sank to his knees. Struggling sent him deeper, and there was a probability of his disappearing altogether, when some workmen, upon planks, hastened to his assistance, and rescued him from his perilous position. His brother residents endeavored to comfort him by the assurance that he might in future avoid similar perils, by walking *with boards fastened to the soles of his feet*, which distributed the weight over a greater surface—a contrivance adopted by themselves when taking the levels, and by the workmen when engaged in making drains in the softest parts of the moss. But the puzzling problem remained, how a road was to be constructed for a heavy locomotive, with a train of passengers or goods, upon a bog which was incapable of supporting the weight of a solitary individual.

Mr. Stephenson's idea was, that such a road might be made to *float* upon the bog, simply by means of a sufficient extension of the bearing surface. As a ship is capable of sustaining heavy loads, floated in water, so, in his opinion, might a light road be floated upon a bog which was of considerably greater consistency than water. Long before the railway was thought of, Mr. Roscoe, of Liverpool, had adopted the expedient of fitting his plough-horses with flat wooden soles, to enable them to walk upon the moss-land which he had brought into cultivation. The foot of an ordinary farm-horse presents a base of about five inches diameter; but if this be enlarged to seven inches, the slight extension of the base, since the circles are to each other as the squares of the diameters, will furnish a footing of nearly double the area, and consequently the pressure of the foot upon every unit of ground upon which the horse stands will be reduced one-half. In fact, this contrivance has an effect tantamount to setting the horse upon eight feet instead of four.

Apply the same reasoning to the locomotive, and even such a ponderous machine may be made to stand upon a bog by means of a similar extension of the bearing surface. Suppose the engine to be twenty feet long and five feet wide, thus covering a surface of a hundred square feet. Then, by extending the bearing by means of cross sleepers, supported upon a matting of heath and branches of trees strewed with a few inches of gravel, the pressure of an engine of twenty tons will be diminished to about three pounds per inch over the whole surface on which it stands. Such was George Stephenson's idea in contriving his floating road.

The first thing done was, to form a footpath of ling or heather along the proposed road, on which a man might walk across without risk of sinking. A single line of temporary railway was then laid down. Along this way ran the wagons in which were conveyed the materials requisite to form the permanent road. The wagons carried about a ton each; they were propelled by boys running behind them on one of the narrow bars of iron which constituted the rail; and they became so expert that they would run the four miles across at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour, without missing a step. Had they slipped off the diminutive causeway, they would have sunk in many places up to their middle. The slight extension of the bearing surface through the cross-sleepers to which the rails were fastened at intervals of three feet, enabled the bog to uphold this temporary line, and the circumstance was a source of increased confidence to the engineer in the formation of the permanent road.

The digging of drains had for some time been proceeding along each side of the intended railway; but they filled up almost as soon as made, the sides flowing in and the bottom rising up; and it was only in some of the drier parts of the bog that a depth of three or four feet could be reached. The surface between the drains was merely spread with branches of trees and hedge cuttings, except that in the softest places rude gates, or hurdles, some eight or nine feet long by four feet wide, interwoven with heather, were laid in double thicknesses, their ends overlapping each other. Upon this floating bed was placed a thin layer of gravel, on which the sleepers, chairs, and rails, were laid in the usual manner. Such was the mode in which the road was formed upon the moss.

It was found, however, after the permanent road had been thus laid, that there was a tendency to sinking at some parts where the bog was the softest. In ordinary cases where a bank subsides, the sleepers are packed up with ballast or gravel; but in this case, the ballast was dug away in order to lighten the road, and the sleepers were packed instead with cakes of dry turf or bundles of heath. By these expedients the subsided parts were again floated up to the level. But the most formidable difficulties were encountered at the centre and towards the edge of the moss. The moss, as has already been observed, was highest in the centre, and there presented a sort of hunchback, with a rising and falling gradient. At that point it was found necessary to cut deeper drains in order to consolidate the moss between them on which the road was to be formed. But it turned out here, as at other parts of the moss, that the deeper the cutting, the more rapid was the flow of fluid-bog into the drain, the bottom rising up almost as fast as it was removed. To meet this emergency, a number of empty tar-barrels were brought from Liverpool, and as soon as a few yards of drain were dug, the barrels were laid down end to end, firmly fixed to each other by strong slabs laid over the joints, and nailed. They were afterwards covered over with clay, and were simply an underground sewer, formed of wood instead of bricks. The expedient succeeded, and the road across the centre of the moss was rendered firm and sure.

The embankment upon the edge of the bog at the Manchester end proved less complying. Moss, as dry as it could be cut, was brought up in small wagons; but the bank had not been raised to three or four feet in height before the material, light as it was, broke through the heathery surface of the bog, and sunk. More moss was emptied in, with no better result; and for many weeks the process was continued, without any visible embankment having been made. It was the duty of the resident engineer, when he drew the wages for the workmen employed under him, to color up, on a section suspended against the wall of the directors' room, the amount of excavations, embankments, &c., which had been executed. But on many of these occasions Mr. Dixon had no progress whatever to show. Sometimes, indeed, the visible work done was *less* than it had appeared a fortnight or a month before!

The directors became seriously alarmed; the resident engineer was called upon to supply them with an esitmate of the cost both of filling up the moss with solid stuff from the bottom, and of piling the roadway. The latter plan was in effect to construct a four-mile viaduct of timber across the moss, from twenty to thirty feet high. The expense appalled the directors; and the question then arose, whether the work was to be proceeded with or abandoned. The Worseley and Trafford men, who lived near the moss, and plumed themselves upon their practical knowledge of moss work, declared the completion of the road to be utterly impracticable. "If you knew as much about Chat Moss as we do," they said, "you would never have entered on so rash an undertaking; and depend upon it, all you have done and are doing will prove abortive. You must give up altogether the idea of a floating railway, and either fill the moss up with hard material from the bottom, or else deviate the line so as to avoid it altogether." Such were the conclusions of science and experience.

In the midst of all these alarms and prophecies of failure, Mr. Stephenson never lost heart, but held to his purpose. His motto was, "Persevere!" "You must go on filling," he said; "there is no other help for it. The stuff emptied in is doing its work out of sight, and if you will but have patience, it will soon begin to show." And so the filling went on; the moss was skinned for many thousand yards round for the purpose, until at length, as the stuff rested upon the bottom, the embankment gradually stood above the surface. In the course of its formation, the pressure of the moss tipped out of the wagons caused a copious stream of bog water to flow from the end of the embankment, in color resembling Barclay's double stout; and when completed, the bank looked like a long ridge of lightly-pressed tobacco-leaf. The compression of the moss was such, that 670,000 cubic yards of raw moss was reduced to 277,000 cubic yards at the completion of the work. The embankment was found in no way liable to slips, like London or Oxford clay, and now forms one of the best parts of the road.

The road across Chat Moss was finished by the 1st of January, 1830, when the first experimental train of passengers passed over it, drawn by the "Rocket;" and instead of being the most expensive part of the line it proved nearly the cheapest, its cost being only about £7,000 per mile, which is considerably under the average. It also proved to be one of the pleasantest portions of the railway. Being a floating road, it was easy to run upon. There is a springiness in it, such as is felt when passing over a suspended bridge; and those who looked along the moss as a train went over it, said they could observe a bend, like that which precedes and follows a skater upon ice.

Charles McMicken went to Cincinnati about 1803, penniless. He became a flat-boatman, and died recently, worth a million of dollars. He has bequeathed to the corporation of that city the sum of $800,000 for the foundation of two Free Universities, one for boys and the other for girls. Orphan children between the ages of five and fourteen are to be received, supported and educated out of the funds of the Colleges. Those who may remain in either institution until the age of eighteen, are to be bound out to some useful occupation, their inclinations towards particular branches of trade, to be invariably consulted. Pupils who develop marked talent are to be professionally educated. The course of instruction is to range from rudimentary principles to the full college course. Orphans who shall thus be reared and educated, and shall intermarry, from the male to the female institution, or *vice versa*, are to receive at the date of marriage, a loan not exceeding $500, at 6 per cent. interest. No other restriction is placed upon the conduct of the institutions, than that the Protestant Bible shall be used in both as a book of instruction. The number of pupils is to be left to the direction of the city authorities.

Charles Bodman, of Cincinnati, who recently sold some slaves left him by will in Kentucky, has since purchased them, and set them at liberty in Cincinnati. He says that he is going abroad to reside permanently, and wishes to leave a good name among his friends, but he expresses a doubt whether the negroes will be as well off free as they would in slavery.

The Duchess of Sutherland has been taking lessons in horse-taming from Mr. Rarey, the American horse-tamer.

THIRTY-FIFTH CONGRESS, FIRST SESSION.

Wednesday, April 28, 1858.

SENATE.

Testimonials to British Naval Officers.—Mr. Mason, from the Committee on Foreign Relations, to which was referred the correspondence in relation to the condition of the United States ship Susquehanna, at Port Royal, Jamaica, with the yellow fever on board, and of the reception and assistance extended by the British naval authorities at that island, submitted a report, accompanied by a joint resolution; which was passed unanimously.

[This joint resolution authorizes suitable acknowledgments to be made on the part of this Government to Admiral Sir Houston Stewart, and the officers under his command, for their prompt and efficient aid and generous hospitality extended to the United States ship Susquehanna, on her late arrival at Port Royal, with the yellow fever on board.

It also provides for a gold medal, with suitable devices, to be presented to Assistant Surgeon Frederick A. Rose, and also suitable testimonials to be presented to the medical officers in the British service in attendance at the hospital, with appropriate rewards to the nurses and other assistants.]

The report of the Kansas conference committee was taken up.

Mr. Stuart, in an elaborate argument, opposed the bill presented by the committee. The Senate had insisted on taking the Constitution as it is; the House had insisted on submitting the Constitution to a vote of the people. The difference between them had relation only to the character of the instrument framed at Lecompton, and the committee, in seeking to transfer the disagreement to another subject, had rather raised a new question than fairly met or composed the outstanding dissensions. And what was this new question? On its face it purported to be a proposition to secure a vote on the acceptance or rejection of certain land grants, which vote, however, is to decide the acceptance or rejection of the Lecompton Constitution. The land grants are the bait, the Lecompton Constitution is the trap in which it is hoped to catch the people of Kansas by this arrangement.

The terms of the proposition, moreover, are so constructed as to serve the purpose of political juggling—affording to the *North* the pretence of virtually submitting the Constitution, and affording to the *South* a pretence for denying that it is submitted. That the proposition would be rejected by the people of Kansas, it required no spirit of prophecy to predict; for if, on the 4th of January last, they rejected the Lecompton Constitution with an ordinance affirming land grants to the amount of thirty millions of dollars, how much more would they reject the Lecompton Constitution with an ordinance affirming land grants to the amount of less than five millions of dollars?

Mr. Pugh defended the substitute of the committee, as a fair compromise of the differences between the two Houses. This bill proposed nothing more than to inquire whether the people of Kansas desire to be admitted into the Union *now*.

Mr. Pugh then proceeded to analyze the provisions of the Constitution lately framed at Leavenworth, with the view of showing that it established negro suffrage.

Mr. Doolittle replied to the animadversions of Mr. Pugh on the Leavenworth Constitution, which, having no pertinency to the present controversy, was, he thought, brought into the debate merely for the purpose of raising a false issue. Analyzing the alternative propositions of the committee's bill, he compared it to the conduct of a stern father who should offer to his daughter a liberal dowry in case she would marry the man of his choice, but distinctly forbid her nuptials with any other until she had attained her majority. Would this be leaving her "perfectly free" to manage her domestic affairs in her own way?

In his judgment, the board appointed to conduct the election was the most important feature of the arrangement. In the face of the glaring frauds which had been committed by the Pro-Slavery party of Kansas, or in their interest, he could have no faith in any award of the ballot-box, when placed in the hands of these same partisans, as was done by the substitute of the committee.

At this stage of the discussion, the Senate, on motion of Mr. Wilson, adjourned.

HOUSE.

The Admission of Kansas.—The Speaker at one o'clock announced that the consideration of the report of the committee of conference, in relation to the bill for the admission of Kansas, was the business now in order.

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: It might be said that, as the Constitution was not submitted, the principle contended for by extreme Southern men was maintained; but if the people voted down the land grant, by the terms of this substitute Lecompton was dead, and who killed it? If the proceedings of the Lecompton Convention were binding and conclusive upon the people, and if Congress had no power to interfere, how and by what process would Lecompton have become dead? It reminded him of the story of the man who asked pardon of the King for having knocked off his fellow-subject's hat, and, the pardon being readily granted, then informed his Majesty that the fellow's head was in it, and that was knocked off too. So Congress would submit the ordinance, and, if that was voted down, it was provided that Lecompton should be considered as voted down too, and they would have done by indirection what it was maintained that neither Congress nor the people of Kansas had any power to do, directly or indirectly.

But the South must speak for itself, and he would proceed to consider how it affected the North. It was offensive the North, in that it implied a degradation in the conditions attached to admission. This degradation, in his judgment, would never be submitted to. His constituents, at least, would regard it as an insult, even conceding that they had the best of it over the South as to the yielding of principle. If the South yielded the most in principle, the North were to be the most cheated and insulted. It would therefore be far from a peace measure. The bill provided for one set of conditions for admission under this Lecompton Constitution, and another set under all other Constitutions. The constituencies of Northern members who supported it would want to know why, if the population of Kansas was sufficient for her admission under a Constitution which she loathes, it would not also be sufficient under a Constitution which she approves.

One suspicious feature, in view of the history of Kansas, was the provision in this bill increasing the board to control the elections to five, three of whom were to be the direct appointees of the Administration. Again, why was it that the qualifications of electors were fixed as they were last October, under the "border ruffian code," instead of as they are under the present laws of Kansas? The Attorney General of the Territory, who was to be fifth man in the board to control the election, had declared that under that code no man had a right to vote unless he had paid a tax. Why this change in the board? Why this change in the law? If there was a fair election in Kansas, the proposition would be voted down four to one, and at least a dozen Cincinnati directories would be needed to prevent that result.

But if the proposition was carried by means of fraud by this board, and by going back to the old rescinded election laws, it would produce a strife and agitation from one end of the land to another, such as the country had not seen. If conservative men desired peace, let them fall back on the Crittenden-Montgomery bill, which would submit the matter to a fair election, and permit them to come in now, or apply again under a new Constitution. Gentlemen need not flatter themselves that this would be the end of the strife; it would be only the beginning. In every Congressional district in the North, the next election would turn on the issue of whether there shall be one set of conditions to admit a slave State, and another for a free State. He was willing to see a fair settlement, but it could not be accomplished by this fraud, which would only lead to further disturbance, and probably to bloodshed. Why, then, seek to daub with this untempered mortar? Why seek to cook up this side issue? He would never consent to attaching a badge of inferiority to the North, by offering a premium for slave States. Let this measure pass, and he would not be surprised if the whole Northern delegation to the next Congress came pledged to receive and consider any application Kansas might make, provided it was republican in form. The North would never submit to this unequal and unfair arrangement.

Mr. Gilman, of Maine, inquired if, in the opinion the gentleman from Georgia, the Lecompton Constitution was by this bill submitted to the people of Kansas.

Mr. Stephens. I tell the gentleman frankly, it is not.

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, proceeded to argue that new States cannot be formed without the consent of Congress, and cited various precedents of conditions imposed upon new States at the time of their admission. He denounced the Lecompton Constitution, and opposed the substitute bill as a dishonorable bribe and a menace. It was the last attempt of the Federal Government to force upon a free people a Constitution made for them under Government auspices. They violated the Lecompton Constitution in this very bill, by providing for an election to be conducted contrary to the provisions of that instrument.

After further debate, Mr. Stephens moved an adjournment; which was carried—yeas 107, nays 105.

Thursday, April 29, 1858.

SENATE.

The deficiency bill, which had been returned to the Senate by the House of Representatives, with a refusal on the part of the latter to concur in certain amendments of the former, was called up by Mr. Hunter, who stated that he had been instructed by the Committee on Finance to move that the Senate recede from its amendments. The motion to recede was lost—yeas 18, nays 22; after which, the Senate insisted, and ordered a committee of conference on the disagreeing votes of the two Houses.

The report of the Kansas conference committee being then taken up—

Mr. Douglas declared his opposition to the bill of the committee, the terms of which seemed to him unfair and unequal, offering, as they do, to the people of Kansas, a bounty on the one hand and a penalty on the other. They were left, it is true, to strike down the Lecompton Constitution, but the question was put in such a manner as to hold out an inducement to vote in its favor, while a disability was attached as a consequence of voting it down. The Constitution itself was not fairly submitted. This bill contained important concessions, but they did not reach the great principle for which he was contending. If amended so as to present the single question of admission, uncomplicated with land grants, or if the people were allowed by its terms to form another Constitution in case they rejected that of Lecompton, with the same land grants for both, he would be free to give to the bill his support, though not liking all its details. Or if it had been proposed to end the controversy by establishing at once the general principle that all the Territories (Kansas included) should proceed to form a Constitution and State Government only after it is ascertained that they have a sufficient population to entitle them to one Representative in the popular branch of Congress, he would have been willing to make that proposition the basis of adjustment. But he could not accept one ratio for slave States and another for free States. Were Southern men closed his earnest argument by avowing his determination to adhere to the great principle of popular sovereignty in all its logical consequences, whatever might be the personal consequences to himself.

Mr. Brown declared that he did not like the bill of the committee, and he presumed that few Southern Senators were satisfied with it. So earnestly, however, did he desire to end the pending sectional agitation, that he was willing to accept this bill as a measure of peace. He did not understand the bill to submit the Constitution to the vote of the people, who, however, in voting on the collateral issue presented to them, might or might not be influenced by these opinions of the Lecompton instrument.

Mr. Toombs avowed his hearty concurrence with the bill of the committee, on its principles and in its details. It fully met all his requirements, because it left the Lecompton Constitution precisely where the Senate bill had left it, the admitted work and will of the people of Kansas.

Mr. Wilson protested warmly against the adoption of the committee's bill, which was, in his judgment, a bribe to the people on the one hand, and a threat on the other. He did not doubt the steadfastness of the people of Kansas, but he did doubt whether a fair vote could be secured under this bill. Why was the board of commissioners to hold the election changed from four to five, with a majority given to Federal appointees? What faith could he repose in the integrity of Federal appointees for Kansas, when such men as Jack Henderson, John Calhoun, McLean, and others, notorious for their complicity in election frauds, were retained in power by the present Administration, while Governor Walker, for rejecting the shameless forgeries of Johnson and McGee counties, incurred the Executive displeasure?

After a few remarks by Mr. Green and by Mr. Wilson on a collateral issue—

Mr. Bell proceeded briefly to assign the reasons which had determined him to vote against the substitute of the committee. Certain it was that it did give the people of that Territory an opportunity to pass upon the Lecompton Constitution, but unfortunately it offered no assurance or certainty of closing up the question at an early day. In case the people rejected the proposition of Congress, the whole difficulty remained outstanding, as the fertile source of future agitations. Were it not for this fatal omission, the bill in all probability would have received his support. As it was, it seemed to afford only a new evidence that neither of the two political confederations who were parties to this sectional contest sincerely desired to close up the question.

At this stage of the discussion, the Senate adjourned.

HOUSE.

The Speaker said the business first in order was the report of the committee of conference in relation to the disagreeing votes of on the bill for the admission of Kansas, upon which the gentleman from North Carolina [Mr. Clingman] had demanded the previous question.

Mr. Cox wished to state frankly the reasons that would govern his vote. In this bill, he knew there was no proposition to submit the Lecompton Constitution to the people, but, as the gentleman from Maryland [Mr. Davis] said yesterday, there was the means provided by which the people of Kansas could in effect pass upon it. They had the substance, though not the shadow of submission. This was not what had given him any doubt in the matter.

The only point that gave him any trouble was the fact that Lecompton was offered to Kansas now, and if she did not take it, she must abide by the rule laid down by the Democratic Cincinnati platform, of waiting until she has the ratio of population sufficient to entitle her to a Representative in Congress. This had been said to be a threat, but he had been informed by Governor Walker and others that they had no doubt Kansas would have sufficient population as early as next fall. The bill provided that she should wait till a census "regularly taken" showed sufficient population, and such a census could be taken under Territorial law, without waiting until 1860, so that there was no hardship in the bill.

It was his honest judgment that the best they could do now was to vote for this conference