MEMOIR, GEOGRAPHICAL,
POLITICAL, AND COMMERCIAL

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PERPUSTAKAAN NASIONAL
REPUBLIK INDONESIA

30th CONGRESS, 1st Session. [SENATE.] MISCELLANEOUS. No. 80.

MEMOIR,

GEOGRAPHICAL, POLITICAL, AND COMMERCIAL,

ON THE

Present state, productive resources, and capabilities for commerce, of Siberia, Mancharia, and the Asiatic islands of the Northern Pacific ocean; and on the importance of opening commercial intercourse with those countries, &c.

Addressed to His Excellency James K. Polk, President of the United States,

BY AARON H. PALMER,

Counsellor of the Supreme Court of the United States, Corresponding Member of the National Institute, Washington, &c.

MARCH 8, 1848.—Referred to the Committee on the Library, and ordered to be printed.
JUNE 3, 1848.—Ordered that 2,000 additional copies, as revised by Mr. Palmer, be printed.

NEW YORK, *January* 10, 1848.

SIR: I have the honor of transmitting you, herewith, a brief memoir on the present state, productive resources, and capabilities for commerce, of several of the comparatively unknown countries of the East, which are daily becoming of importance to us in a political as well as commercial point of view, and where a new world may be opened to the trading enterprise of our countrymen.

The territories of Oregon and California, now in rapid progress of settlement by enterprising citizens of the United States, together with the great and increasing value of American navigation employed in commerce and the whale fishery in the northern Pacific, are eminently entitled to the fostering care of our government, and require the early adoption of a comprehensive system of policy, both for their protection and development, and to secure the permanency of our commercial and maritime supremacy on that ocean. Early measures should be taken for the reconnoissance and survey of the most feasible route for a ship canal to unite the Atlantic and Pacific, and also for a railroad from a point on the Mississippi to San Francisco or San Diego, in California, to accelerate intercommunication between the different sections of our magnificent and mighty republic on both oceans.

It appears from official data that the American whaling vessels alone in the Pacific exceed in number 700, making an aggregate of about 240,000 tons, and give employment to upwards of 20,000 officers and men;

Tippin & Streeper, printers.

BAT. GEMOOTSCHAP VAN DE VERPOSTA KAN NASIONAL R.

that the capital invested therein amounts in value to upwards of $40,000,000, the annual product of the fishery being estimated at $10,000,000; and that during the year ending the 31st December, 1847, the whole number of our merchant vessels which cleared for ports in the Pacific and to ports in the East Indies amounted to 181.

I would also take leave to suggest the importance of an early revision of our commercial convention with Russia of the 5th April, 1824, for the admission of our flag into the ports of Siberia, Kamtschatka, the Kurile and Aleutian islands, in the northern Pacific ocean, as well as those of the Russian colonies on the northwestern coast of America; by which a new and profitable commerce may be opened, mutually beneficial to both nations.

I consider it equally important that our government should insist on the right of navigating the great Manchurian river Amúr and its affluents, and of trading with the colonial dependencies of China, upon the same footing as the Russians; and that we claim the further privilege of commercial intercourse at Tinghae, in the Chusan Archipelago. The favorable position of that port, with its safe anchorages, accessible to the largest ships at all seasons, lying near the embouchure of the great Yangtsekang river, and within two days' sail of Japan and Corea, give it superior advantages over every other port in China for trade, and as a depot and halting station for the American trans-Pacific line of steamers, which it is contemplated to establish between Panama and China, in connexion with the line now in progress from Panama to Oregon.

The memoir is extracted from my forthcoming work, entitled "The Unknown Countries of the East," and is arranged under the following heads, viz:

1. *Siberia, its valuable products and rich gold mines.*

2. *Russian overland trade with China at Kiakta, &c.*

3. *Manchuria and the river Amúr, &c.*

4. *Island of Tarakay, or Saghalien.*

5. *Russian and Japanese Kurile islands, &c.*

6. *Steam communication with China: superior commercial advantages of Chusan, &c.*

7. *Special mission to the East: steam navigation on the Indus and Brahmaputra, &c. Extensive caravan trade with Northwestern and Central Asia, &c.*

8. *Policy of encouraging immigration of Chinese agricultural laborers to California: railroad from the Mississippi to the bay of San Francisco.*

9. *Ship canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific;* to which are appended an outline chart of the coast of Northern Asia and the adjacent islands in the Northern Pacific, and a map of the isthmus of Nicaragua; together with

a prospectus of the new work above mentioned, for which your patronage and the aid of Congress is most respectfully solicited, to enable me to complete it under the auspices of our government according to the plan therein indicated.

I have the honor to be, with the highest respect, sir, your Excellency's most obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER.

His Excellency JAMES K. POLK,
President of the U. S., Washington.

MEMOIR.

1. SIBERIA, ITS VALUABLE PRODUCTS AND RICH GOLD MINES.

Siberia is the Asiatic section of the Russian empire, and is bounded north by the Arctic ocean; east by Behring's strait, Kamtschatka, and the sea of Okotsk; south by Manchuria, Mongolia, and Independent Tartary; and on the west by the Ural mountains, which separate it from European Russia. Its greatest length, from east to west, exceeds 3,600 miles; and its greatest breadth, from north to south, nearly 2,000 miles. Population about 3,650,000.

The country has been supposed to derive its name from *Sibir*, an ancient Tartar fortress upon the banks of the Irtysch, near Tobolsk; by others from *Sibiri*, which, in several eastern languages, signifies "sunrise," "daylight." Siberia was first conquered from the Tartars and other native tribes by Yermac Timoséef, a Cossack adventurer, at the head of a band of Don Cossacks, in 1578, during the reign of Ivan Vassilievitch II. The conquest was not finally concluded before the death of Feoder Ivanovitch, in 1598, when the whole country was subjugated by Russian fur traders and pedlars to the dominion of the Czar; the fur trade having been for ten centuries the pervading thread of Russian policy, as well as of Russian commerce, conducted by merchant traders and pedlars from the Baltic to the northwest coast of America, and from the Altai* mountains to the Frozen ocean.

In 1644, the most advanced Russian settlement along the shore of the Polar sea was at the mouth of the river Kovyma, latitude 71° 25′ 11″, and longitude 152° 24′ east. The countries beyond were then new to them; but, by their enterprises, in the course of the two following years they acquired some knowledge of the people who inhabited the northeast coasts of Asia; and in 1648, seven Russian vessels sailed in that direction from the Kovyma, with the combined purposes of discovery, traffic, and conquest. Only two of the vessels succeeded in reaching the bay of Anadyr, on the sea of Kamtschatka. This was the first maritime expedition of the Russians to the northern Pacific ocean.

Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, may be considered as a vassal State of the Russian empire, and is divided into two separate governments, each possessing civil and military attributions, under two general military chieftainships of Eastern and Western Siberia. The former embraces Irkoutsk,

*Altai-iin-oola, or "Mountains of Gold," in Turkish and Mongolian.

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Yakoutsk, Kiakta, Okotsk, and Kamtschatka; and the latter Omsk, Tobolsk, and Tomsk. The Russian possessions on the northwestern coast of America are not included in the government of Siberia, but are under the exclusive civil and military administration of the Imperial Russian-American Company, subject to the superintendence of the imperial department of commerce, St. Petersburg.

This country possesses the climates as well as the products of both hemispheres; extremes of heat and cold, days without night, and months when the sun is not above the horizon. All the ordinary grain and vegetables of Europe are found even as far north as the banks of the Irtysch, beyond 55° north latitude, in Western Siberia. Most of our domestic animals are common to this country, and at the northern as well as the southern extremities many of the wild ones of Europe and Asia. Fish of the greatest abundance, and many sorts unknown in Europe, teem in all the rivers, and form the principal food of the inhabitants. Among the wild animals are deer, elk, reindeer, Daurian antelopes, argeli, mountain goats, musk animals, lynxes, squirrels, wolves, gluttons, wild hogs, white and brown bears, red, gray, black, and poplar foxes, ermines, sables, martens, hares, polecats, ounces, marmots, beavers, otters, seals, and morses, &c.

Among the mineral products of Siberia are gold, silver, platinum, iron, copper, lead, tin, quicksilver, antimony, cobalt, zinc, coal. Several kinds of precious stones occur, and diamonds have been found in the Uralian range. The amethysts, topazes, emeralds, and red tourmalines are of great beauty; zircons of extraordinary size have been found near Miask, south of Ekaterinebourg. The simple minerals found in the Ural mountains, or on their flanks, amount to one hundred and thirty-two, according to the catalogue prepared by Lieut. Koksharof, of the imperial mining corps. Several precious stones are brought from the Altai mountains, the most valuable of which are jasper and porphyry, of great beauty, of which a quarry is worked nearly in the centre of the Altai mountains, in the valley of the river Charysch. The valuable and beautiful mineral malachite, from the mines of Ekaterinebourg, sells on the spot, in the block, for about $5 per pound. It is extremely hard and difficult to work, and when polished is a very expensive article. The mountains of Dauria contain beryls, topazes, emeralds, and some other stones of less value. In the Baikal mountains, especially towards the western extremity of the great lake Baikal, lapis lazuli of a very fine quality is found. There are extensive deposites of mica in various parts of Siberia, where it is generally used, and called Russian glass. A very hard and transparent species of silex, called tæjeloves, is found among the rolled flint in the torrents of Eastern Siberia; it takes a beautiful polish, and is cut like a diamond, which it resembles in brilliancy. Some years since, Professor Laxmann discovered in the Viluiy, an affluent of the Léna, two stones with which science was previously unacquainted. The one was named the Viluiyothe, or Idiocrase; and the other, the Olintholite. The latter is a yellowish green garnet, and remarkably hard.

The Ural constitutes a long and narrow ridge, extending from the Icy sea on the north, to the parallel of Orenburg on the south, and separates Europe from Asia throughout 18° of latitude. The southern half, reaching to 61° north latitude, is alone colonized; the northern portion, covered with impenetrable forests and deep morasses, is thus left to its wild in-

habitants, whether Ostiaks, Voguls, or Samoyedes, its eastern flank having never been explored beyond 65° north latitude. The southern Ural is composed of many separate longitudinal ridges, embracing the mountains of Yarma, Zaganai, and Iremel, the latter attaining an altitude of about 5,100 feet above the sea. The whole of the south Ural is included in the government of Orenburg, and is to a great extent a pastoral Bashkir country. With small exceptions, near Ekaterinebourg, and Miask, where gold mines have been explored in the rock, the gold and platinum of the Ural are found in ancient alluvia, consisting of sand, gravel, and shingle. Enormous quantities of the purest magnetic iron ore are, however, extracted from the solid rock in open quarries; and in some districts, notably in that extending from Nijny-Tagilsk to Bogoslofsk, copper veins abound. With one exception, all the gold mines are on the Asiatic or Siberian flank of the Ural, and on the same side are nearly all the rocks of eruptive or igneous origin, and all the great veins. The great mineral wealth of the chain occurs between 54° and 60° north latitude; the southern extremity, which is very picturesque, being comparatively few, whilst the extreme north, or arctic region, containing a few good ores, is yet unreclaimed, and is indeed unfitted for the existence of a civilized race. The Ural, with its lateral ridges, has nowhere a less breadth than 30 miles, and varies in altitude from 1,600 to 2,500 feet; and its culminating point is 6,000 feet above the level of the sea. A mass of native gold deposited in the museum of the Imperial School of Mines, St. Petersburg, weighing about 78 pounds, and said to be the largest in the world, was discovered in the auriferous sands of the Southern Ural, in 1843.

The Altaï extends between 50° and 52½° north latitude, from west to east, from the confluence of the Uba and Irtysch, to Mount Gurbi, and the south of lake Baïkal. The mountain system of the Altaï contains the sources of the Irtysch and the Yenesei. The names Sayan, Tangnu, and Malakha, are applied to easterly portions of it; beyond the Baïkal it abuts upon the mountain ranges of the western Khin-gan and Yablonoi-Krebet, which extend from northwest to southwest. The Altaï range occupies a space of 4,400 leagues, 20 to a degree, or an area equal to that of England. Except at the eastern extremity, it is everywhere surrounded by low lands. The masses which rise above the line of perpetual snow are all between the parallels of 49½° and 51°. The order in which the ranges succeed each other from south to north in this alpine region of the Altaï, is as follows: 1. The Narym mountains, between the rivers Narym and the Bukhturma. 2. The Sailughem mountains, between the rivers Bukhturma, Tshuya, and Koksun. 3. The Koksun or Ubinsk range, betwen the Koksun and the Uba. 4. The Alps of Terektinsk, between the Tshaush and the sources of the Koksun and Uba. 5. The range between the Tshuya, the Tshaush, and the Anni. Culminating summits of the Altaï are in the second of these ranges. M. Gebeler, who made three journeys to the upper Altaï, between 1833 and 1835, describes Mount Bialukha, or "White Mountain," as inaccessible, and running up into two pinnacles covered with snow. He estimated its height approximatively at 10,300 feet—rather higher than Etna, and rather lower than the highest summit of the Pyrenees. The Tar-Bagatai, the southern offset of the Altaï, extends into China, and attains the limits of perpetual snow.

The Kusnetz system of mountains has a direction of SSE. to NNW.: it comes in contact with the Altaï about 85° east of Paris, on its northern

declivity. The Kusnetz mountains have a strong analogy, both in the mineralogical constitution and the direction of the chain, with the Ural. They extend over a line equal in length to that of the Alps or the Pyrenees; in breadth they appear to occupy nearly a degree of longitude between the parallels 52° and 56°; their elevation is not mentioned. They abound in deposites of gold, which, as in the Ural, is found much more abundantly on the eastern declivity. Advancing eastward along the northern declivity of the Altaï, a third auriferous region is found near the confluence of the Yenesei and the Abakan. "It may be observed," says Sir R. J. Murchison, "as indicative of the structure of northeastern Asia, that the Altaï chain, in the direction from east to west, bounds, over a vast extent, the low northern plains of Asia; and that the Ural and Kusnetz chain, parallel to the meridian, are formations of a different era. They rssemble in many of their characteristic features the Bolor and Suleiman mountains, and the Ghauts of southern India. The Altaï, Kusnetz, and Ural ranges also resemble each other in the abundance of their metallic wealth."

Besides the auriferous deposites in the eastern slopes of the Ural mountains, it appears that Eastern Siberia possesses similar tracts of country of vastly greater extent than those of the Ural chain. On the flanks of the Altaï mountains Professor Hoffman has discovered an auriferous tract of an area larger than France, and all the subjacent rocks, when pounded up and analyzed, yield a certain per centage of gold. Several of the most eminent European geologists have inferred from this, that no sort of limit can be put to the gold produce of Siberia. The southern ranges of the Altaï mountains, equally auriferous, extend into China, and the Chinese, who are expert miners, are beginning to form mining establishments in those mountain regions. They have also discovered several new quicksilver mines, and resumed the working of the old ones that had been abandoned in China proper. The Siberian mines are generally worked by serf or convict labor, with the application of fire instead of the more expensive process of quicksilver.

Sir R. J. Murchison, "Geology of Russia," is confident that Chinese Turkestan will prove to be another gold region like Siberia. The Tar-Bagataï mountains are stated by Colonel Helmersen, the distinguished Russian geologist, to be highly productive in gold. Professor Erman, in his geological survey of Russia, reports that the same system of palæozoic, eruptive and metamorphic rocks, in which the precious metals abound in the Ural and Altaï, extend to the Aldan mountains, not far from the northeastern shores of the sea of Okotsk, and in which may likewise be found the same minerals. Gold has been found in the *tundra* or frozen steppes, covered with moss, of Eastern Siberia.

According to Humboldt's "Fragmens Asiatiques," and "Asie Centrale," the auriferous soil extends over a large portion of the north of Asia. Gold has been found from the Ural to the western declivity of the Yablonoi-Krebet, and the mountain regions between the Léna and the two Angarás, a distance of 56° of longitude. Gold has also been found in the vicinity of Udskoi, on the river Ud, which falls into the sea of Okotsk, opposite the Shantar islands, near the Manchurian frontier. An auriferous belt traverses the Asiatic continent, between the parallels of 50° and 60°, for a distance that exceeds the maximum breadth of Africa. He also observes that a considerable portion of the precious metals in use

among the Greeks and Romans, was probably derived from this portion of the Scythian wilds; but modern Europe has been acquainted with them as sources of mineral wealth for a century and a half only. It was in the last year of the seventeenth century that Peter the Great formed the first mining establishments under the direction of his able envoy, Demidoff, since which period a steady progress has been made in developing the resources of these mountains, and a large portion of the Siberian flank of the Ural may now be unhesitatingly considered one of the most civilized tracts of the empire, whether as regards the industry and intelligence of the natives, and the state of arts and manufactures.

It thus appears from the results of the various scientific explorations of Siberia, that the greater portion of those vast regions may be considered as a new and inexhaustible El Dorado of the precious metals. "It is a fact," observes Sir R. J. Murchison, "that within the last few years only, a tenth portion of the earth's surface, Chinese Tartary and Siberia, has been, for the first time, made known to us as in many parts *auriferous;* and when from one portion of it only, Europe is already supplied with so very large an amount of her chief circulating medium, well, therefore, may political economists beg for knowledge at the hand of the physical geographer and geologist, and learn from them the secret on which the public faith of empires may depend."

The discovery of new gold veins and the introduction of improvements in the practice of engineering and mining skill in the Siberian mines since 1830, has greatly increased the quantity of their product, yielding the Emperor of Russia such an amount of treasure as to place him, in point of wealth, second to none in the world. On the 31st March, 1847, the accumulated unproductive capital of gold bullion from the Siberian mines in the imperial treasury exceeded 114 millions of silver roubles.* By a monetary ukase of that date, the sum of 30 millions silver roubles was appropriated for investment in the purchase of public funds, Russian as well as foreign, and was principally invested in English and French securities, leaving the sum of 84 millions silver roubles ($63,000,000) in the Emperor's own coffers. At first it was generally thought that political motives actuated him, particularly as regarded the French loan; it appears, however, to have been simply a commercial transaction, arising from an excess of treasure, as well as to afford increased facilities in the export trade of his dominions—particularly of grain—and, by investing a part of his surplus gold in fluctuating European securities, at a time when their value was much depreciated, eventually to realize a large profit. The aggregate product of the Siberian gold mines, in 1847, is estimated at $25,000,000.†

The Russian government has almost abandoned the extraction of platinum, owing to the cost of reduction, and the repugnance of the people to receive it as a coin of high price. The platinum of the Ural is now chiefly worked by the Demidoff family.

The principal depot of all the gold found in the country east of the Ural is at the town of *Barnoul*, containing about 12,000 inhabitants, situated on the river Oby, between Tobolsk and Irkoutsk, in Western Siberia,

* Silver rouble = 75 cents United States currency.

† From an official scrutiny into the vaults of the imperial treasury at St. Petersburg, it appears that on the 6th May, 1848, they contained, in gold bullion, the sum of 109,588,595 silver roubles, 19 copecs.

whence it is transported three times in the year to the mint at St. Petersburg. The Russian government levies a duty of 15 per cent. on the product of all the gold mines and gold washings; in which are included all charges for carrying the bullion to St. Petersburg, assaying and coining it.

This increased supply of gold from the Siberian mines, simultaneously with the working of the productive quicksilver mines in China, where that metal has become an important article of export, must necessarily tend to diminish the relative value of gold, and require the re-adjustment of the standard of the precious metals among all nations. It would also be highly important, to facilitate the commercial intercourse and regulate the exchanges of all nations, that a general congress of nations be assembled to agree on a uniform scale of coins, weights, and measures for all nations, and reduce the whole to a simple and uniform system.

The fur trade is one of the most profitable branches of Siberian, if not of Russian commerce; native furs, to the value of 7,500,000 roubles, are annually bartered at Kiakta, over and above all the skins that find their way to the westward, as far as Nishney-Novgorod and Moscow. Furs in Siberia and Russia are examined by the fur traders with the same minute care as precious stones with lapidaries; and a skin which unites all the desired qualities, sometimes rises to an enormous price. Black fox skins are worth 2,000 to 5,000 roubles each. The lightness of the hide, the color and gloss of the fur, the age of the animal, the season in which it has been killed, the length of the hair, the condition of the under wool, and various other points, are carefully considered. Some of the animals must be shot only with a blunt piece of wood, others caught in traps, and others struck in a particular part of the body.

The tusks and teeth of the fossil elephant or Siberian mammoth, found in New Siberia and the Laikhovian islands, in the Polar sea, and in the northeastern part of the great river Léna, constitute a considerable article of commerce, and many persons make the discovery of them the business of their lives. The ivory found in New Siberia is as white and fresh as that which is brought from Africa, and usually fetches about the same price.

The word mammoth is of Tungousan origin, and means "animal of the earth." The Tungouses, by whom these organic remains were first discovered, believe the animal to be still living in Siberia, and that it has been seen on the banks and at the mouths of several of the large rivers that fall into the Arctic ocean. Modern geologists, including Humboldt and Lyell, have maintained that the mammoth must have been a denizen of the lands, where not only his bones, but even his entire carcass, covered with a thick and woolly hide, has been found in northern Siberia. Professor Owen has shown, by a close examination of their teeth, that these great quadrupeds were specially organized to live on the branches of such shrubs and trees as grow in high boreal latitudes. This opinion is corroborated by the fact that great quantities of the fossil bones of the mammoth have been discovered in the vicinity of the great northern forests of Siberia. Pallas says, that from the Don, or Tanais, to Tshukotskoi-Noss, there is scarcely a river, the bank of which does not afford remains of the mammoth, and these are frequently imbedded in, or covered with alluvial soil containing marine productions. Some tusks have been found, weighing 432 pounds.

In the south Ural, as in the north, the remains of mammoths, *Bos*

WASHINGTON, *August* 3, 1848.

SIR: I beg to acquaint you that the foregoing Memoir, with the consent of the President, was informally communicated to the Senate, on the 8th March, by Mr. Sevier, then Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, referred to the Committee on the Library, and ordered to be printed for the use of the Senate. On the 3d June, 2000 additional copies were ordered, but which, I regret to state, owing to the vexatious delays on the part of both printers and lithographers, are not yet ready for distribution.

Mr. Hunt, Chairman of the Committee on Commerce, House of Representatives, considering the subject of sufficient importance to justify the immediate action of Congress thereon, addressed on the 7th June a communication to the Secretary of the Treasury, stating that the Committee contemplated offering a resolution authorising the President to appoint an agent, as suggested in the Memoir, with authority to visit the countries of Asia, as well as Europe, to collect the desired commercial information, statistics, &c., and requested to be favored with his views on the subject; to which Mr. Walker made the following reply:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *June* 11, 1848.

SIR: Your communication of the 7th instant has been duly considered and in reply to the inquiry of the Committee, this Department is well persuaded that the appointment of a competent person to obtain the information contemplated, would be attended with beneficial results. Much attention has been devoted to this subject by Mr. AARON H. PALMER, of New York, and a work of his has been submitted to this Department in manuscript, containing views and suggestions calculated greatly to increase our commerce with Asia. This work is the result of extensive travel and of laborious research, presenting many new and most interesting facts and statistics in regard to a country comparatively unknown, and especially in relation to Northern Asia, where we have no Consuls, nor diplomatic or commercial agents. That our commerce with his region, by proper exertions might be greatly increased, there can be no doubt, and great additional importance is given to the subject by the settlement of the Oregon question, and the probable ad lition to the Union of Upper California. I would, therefore, respectfully recommend an appropriation of twelve thousand dollars to accomplish the object contemplated by the Committee, and believe the result would increase the aggregate of our imports and exports several millions of dollars, and probably augment our revenue from duties to the extent of several hundred thousand dollars per annum.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

Hon. W. HUNT,
Chairman of the Committee of Commerce, &c.

Mr. Hunt, by direction of the Committee, communicated Mr. Walker's letter to Mr. Vinton, Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, requesting him to move for an appropriation of $10,000 to pay the expenses of the proposed commercial agent, to be inserted as an amendment to the Civil and Diplomatic Bill; and it was accordingly moved in the House by Mr. Vinton, under the direction of his Committee, on the 17th July, but as

the object of the appropriation was not well understood, no report having been previously made to the House thereon, and several influential members in favor of it being temporarily absent at the time, and meeting with opposition from Mr. NICOLL, of New York, on the ground that the information should be obtained by private enterprise, the motion was lost.

After the passage of the bill in the House and its presentation in the Senate, and reference to the Finance Committee, the subject of the appropriation was brought before that Committee, and on the 2d inst., Mr. Atherton, the Chairman, moved the following amendment to the bill which was then under consideration in Committee of the Senate:

"For compensation and expenses of a commercial agent, to be selected and sent abroad by the President to collect information respecting the commerce, production, and statistics of Asia and Eastern Africa, ten thousand dollars."

The amendment was advocated by Mr. Atherton, Mr. Phelps, Mr. Davis, of Mississippi, and Mr. Dayton; and opposed by Mr. Benton.

Those who voted in the affirmative were

Messrs. Atherton, Badger, Baldwin, Bell, Calhoun, Davis, of Massachusetts, Davis, of Mississippi, Dayton, Dickinson, Dix, Dodge, Fitzgerald, Greene, Hamlin, Houston, Johnson, of Maryland, Johnson, of Louisiana, Johnson, of Georgia, Lewis, Mangum, Niles, Phelps, Sebastian, Sturgeon—24.

Those who voted in the negative were—

Messrs. Allen, Atchison, Benton, Borland, Bradbury, Breese, Bright, Butler, Clarke, Douglas, Downs, Felch, Hale, Hunter, King, Mason, Metcalfe, Miller, Spruance, Underwood, Upham, Walker, Wescott, Yulee—24.

So the motion to amend was lost.

The following Senators, who had promised to vote for the appropriation, were not present, viz: Mr. Clayton, Mr. Foote, Mr. Hannegan, and Mr. Rusk. Mr. Webster, and several other Senators known to be favorable to it, were then absent from Washington.

When the object for which the appropriation recommended by Mr. Walker comes to be understood, and its importance to the commercial, navigating, industrial, and agricultural interests of the United States on the Atlantic and Pacific more deliberately considered, by the Honorable Senators and members of the House of Representatives, it is to be presumed a special Act or Joint Resolution will be passed, early in the next session, authorizing such appropriation, the agent to be appointed by, and execute his mission under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury.

With great respect, your most obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER.

Urus and *Rhinoceros tichorinus*, are found in the line of the gold works. The Bashkirs attach a superstitious feeling of respect for these bones, and have been known to say to the Russian miners that first settled among them, "Take from us our gold, if you will; but, for God's sake, leave us the bones of our ancestors." The Samoyedes, as Count Keyserling learnt in his late tour to the Petchora, have a most singular belief respecting the mammoth, which would lead us to suppose that many entire forms of the animal may from time to time have been known to them, or their predecessors. The mammoth of their legend is a great subterranean monster, delighting in ice caverns, and to whom they attach a superstitious reverence, believing that the man who exposes the creature to day, thereby kills it, and brings misfortune on his family. This seems to explain why it is so difficult to obtain, through the natives, the disinterment of the entire animal.

In 1712, Kang-hi, Emperor of China, sent an embassy to Ayouka, a Khan of the Turgouth Tartars, living on the banks of the Wolga, to the north of the Caspian, which traversed Siberia on its route, and returned to Pekin in 1715. An interesting itinerary of the embassy was written by Toulichen, the Chinese ambassador, in which he states, that "in the coldest part of this northern country (Siberia) there is a species of animal which burrows in the earth, and dies as soon as it is exposed to the sun and air. It is of great size, and weighs 10,000 lbs.; its bones are very white and shining, like ivory. It is not naturally robust, and consequently neither dangerous nor formidable, and is commonly found on the banks of rivers. The Russians collect the bones, out of which they make cups, saucers, combs, and a variety of other articles. The flesh of the animal is considered very wholesome and strengthening, and is eaten as a remedy in fevers. The foreign name is *men-tou-wa*."*

John Bell, of Antermony, in his "Journey to Pekin," through Siberia, in 1721, observes in reference to the mammoth: "The vulgar really imagine *mammon* to be a creature living in marshes under ground, and entertain many strange notions concerning it. The Tartars tell many tales of its having been seen alive. I have been told by Tartars in the Baraba that they have seen this creature, called mammon, at the dawn of day, near lakes and rivers; but that on discovering them, the mammon immediately tumbled into the water, and never appears in the day time. They say it is almost the size of a large elephant, with a monstrous large head and horns, with which he makes his way in marshy places and under ground, where he conceals himself till night. I only mention these things as the reports of the superstitious and ignorant people."

Admiral Von Wrangel, in his "Expedition to the Polar Sea in 1820–'23," found deposites of mammoth bones on the Lesser Anuy river, near its

* The instructions given to the Chinese embassy on this occasion are curious and interesting; and minute answers were prepared to every inquiry that was expected to be asked by the Russians relating to the government of China. "If asked what the Chinese esteem most, reply: fidelity, filial piety, charity, justice, and sincerity, are esteemed above all other things; that on these principles we govern this great empire, and likewise ourselves. If the Russians speak to you about fire-arms, and solicit aid from me of that description, state, that being on a mission to the Turgouth Tartars, you could not broach that question. Again, the Russians are a vain people; they will display several things they possess: on such occasions neither express admiration nor contempt. But, of all things, pay close attention to the manners of the inhabitants of Russia; its natural and artificial productions; its geography, and the general appearance of the country."

outlet in the Icy sea, and observes that "the teeth, tusks, and bones, which are called by the general name of mammoth bones, but which probably belong to several different species of animals, are not distributed equally over Siberia, but form immense local accumulations, which become both richer and more extensive the farther we advance to the north. They are found in the greatest abundance in New Siberia and the Lachow islands; the whole soil of the latter appears to consist of them; many hundred poods* weight are collected from them every year, whereas on the continent they are much scarcer, and are hardly ever met with in the southern part of Siberia. The tusks on the island are also much more fresh and white than those of the continent. A sand bank on the western side was most productive of all; and the fur traders maintain that when the sea recedes after a long continuance of easterly winds, a fresh supply of mammoth bones is always found to have been washed upon this bank, proceeding apparently from some vast store in the bottom of the sea."

The Léna, Yenesei, and Oby, rank among the largest rivers of the Asiatic continent; they have their sources in the mountains of Central Asia, abound in a great variety of fish, and serve as channels of intercommunication with all parts of the Russian empire; but, having their embouchures in the Polar sea, are unavailable for foreign commerce. The Inedigyrka and the Kovyma, considerable rivers of Eastern Siberia, also fall into the same sea. The Okota, Uda, and a number of small rivers, fall into the sea of Okotsk. The Ural having its sources in the eastern slopes of the mountains of the same name, after a course of 1,350 miles, falls into the Caspian, and is the only large river in Siberia that does not flow into the Polar sea.

The Anadyr is principally remarkable for being the only considerable river of the globe whose sources lie within the Polar circle between 68° and 69° north latitude. It rises in a lake of that range of the Aldan mountains which traverses the northeastern extremity of Asia, and terminates at cape Tshukotskoi-Noss, at Behring's strait. In its eastern course it passes through 13 degrees of longitude and falls into the bay of Anadyr, a large gulf of the sea of Kamtschatka, forming an estuary at its mouth: the whole course of this river is about 500 miles.

There are numerous fresh water lakes in Siberia; one of the largest and most remarkable is the Baïkal, or "Rich lake," so called by the Yakouts, who formerly inhabited its shores—from *boï*, "rich," and *kal*, "lake,"—and by the Russians, Svetoie Morè, or "Holy sea;" situated between 51° and 56° north latitude, and 104° and 111° east longitude. It is nearly 400 miles long, and from 30 to 60 wide, with high and rocky banks; contains a number of inhabited islands, and receives the waters of the Upper Angará, Selengá, Bargoosin, and several considerable rivers and mountain streams, amounting in all to 177. The waters are said to be subject to certain interior agitations, which sometimes render the navigation dangerous, even when the wind is moderate. It is very deep—in some places unfathomable; abounds in sturgeon, salmon, (of which there are 14 varieties,) salmon trout, a species of herring, and a fish consisting entirely of bones and oily matter, called by Pallas *callyonymos Baïcalensis*, with a variety of other fish, seals of a silver color, corals, sponges, &c., which are valuable articles of commerce with the Chinese. Agriculture

*A Russian pood = 36 lbs. 2 oz. avoirdupois.

and the fisheries constitute the principal branches of industry and commerce of the Russians and Burats inhabiting the vicinity of the lake. It is about 1,793 feet above the level of the sea; the principal outlet is the large river Lower Angará, flowing to the Yenesei and the Polar sea.

The Tungousan tribes, occupying the borders of the lake, subsist by fishing and hunting the wild beasts which inhabit the woods and mountains. Wolves, bears, foxes, lynxes, wild cats, and gluttons, are numerous in the woods, and on the steppes, and otters abound in the rivers. Beavers are only found in the upper part of the Angará, but the elk and the musk-goat nearly in every district bordering on the lake. The musk of the latter, however, does not emit so strong a scent as that obtained from these animals in Tibet. Deer and stags abound everywhere, but the reindeer is only met with in a wild state in the northern mountains, and even there it is not numerous. The common hare, the mountain hare, and the Daurian hare, are found in great numbers on the steppes. The sable, too, as well as the hermeline, abound in many districts. The squirrel exists in this region in incredible numbers. Sometimes they unite in companies, and travel through the woods and steppes, swimming over rivers, and traversing the summits of the mountains. The color of the skin is reddish in summer, and gray in winter. A larger species which inhabits the northern and eastern shore of the lake, assumes in winter a silver-gray color. The species whose skin sells highest is of the color of the sable in summer, and black-gray in winter. An immense number of squirrel skins is sent from here to the other parts of Siberia and Russia, as well as to China, besides the consumption on the spot, which is very great.

The commerce which the Russians carry on with the Chinese is considerably facilitated by this lake, which is open from May till November, and navigated by numerous small vessels, large barges and a steamer. The Russian goods, for which the town of Irkoutsk, on the banks of the Lower Angará, 40 miles from the lake, is the principal depot, are carried thence to Kiakta, in summer by water, and in winter by sledges on the ice, across the lake to the mouth of the Selenga. They then ascend this river to Wershneï Udinsk, or even to Selengensk, but rarely higher. Thence the goods are transported by land to Kiakta, a distance of about 16 miles. Without the facility which this lake affords to the carrying on of this continually increasing commerce, that mart would never have risen to any degree of importance.

The islands which exist in this lake are numerous along the eastern, and in some places along the western shores; but most are of small extent, and nothing but masses of rock, which seem to have been separated by some convulsion of nature from the mountains on the shore. The largest is the island of Olkhon, which extends about thirty-two miles from southwest to northeast, but nowhere exceeds ten miles in breadth. It is extremely rocky and mountainous, and on its southwestern shore the mountains rise to a considerable height, but do not preserve the snow in summer. In its neighborhood there are some rocks, on which seals are annually killed in great numbers. The mountains in many parts are covered with larch, pine, birch, poplars, and willows; other districts afford good pasture for the cattle of about 150 families of Burats, who are the only inhabitants of the island. The strait which separates it from the continent is only two miles wide, but very deep, a line of one hundred fathoms not

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reaching the bottom ; and the fishermen assert that even a line of 200 fathoms would not reach it.

The other lakes of Siberia are rather chains of ponds, or stagnant collections of saline waters, in the marshy or submerged steppes which cover a great extent of its western territories. Only the lake of Tchany, in the steppe of Baraba, and of Kurg Algydum in that of Ischm, present considerable expanses. Baron Humboldt thinks it not improbable that they are remnants of some great interior sea, connected, at an ante-historical period, with the Aral and the Caspian.

Irkoutsk, in 52° 16′ 41″ north latitude, is the seat of government of Eastern Siberia, and has a population of about 25,000, composed of Russians, Cossacks, Tungouses, Mongols, and Burats. There is an immense brick building containing a cloth factory, and workshops of the exiles, in which joiners, carpenters, carriage makers, saddlers, blacksmiths, and all sorts of handicraftsmen, are busily occupied, and provided with comfortable apartments, clean clothing, and wholesome food. The cloth is made from the wool and hair of the Burat sheep, camels, and goats. The profits of the establishment are expended in furnishing the hospitals, and for other laudable purposes. There are also manufactures of linen and other piece goods, glass, hats, soap, leather, &c., and it is the residence of the numerous artisans in the different trades common in Europe. It is the great entrepot for the commerce of northeastern Asia, importing tea, rhubarb, fruit, paper, silks, porcelain, and other manufactured goods from China, by the way of Kiakta; and furs, peltries, &c., from Kamtschatka, the Aleutian and Kurile islands, and Russian America, which articles are here exchanged for European goods sent from St. Petersburg and Moscow by the way of Tobolsk. It has also some trade with Bokhara and Khokan, and is the most important town in Siberia for the extent and activity of its trade. An annual fair is held here in June. It has a college, or high school, in which navigation and the Chinese and Japanese languages are taught. Irkoutsk is 3,994 miles from St. Petersburg, 750 from Nertshinsk, 1,000 from Zurukaitu, 1,950 from Tobolsk, 340 from Kiakta.

Thelminsky, about 40 miles from Irkoutsk, is a large and fine village of 2,000 inhabitants, containing several extensive factories built of stone, for the manufacture of cloth, cotton, glass, and paper. The machinery for the factories has been constructed on the spot, after models imported from England. The glass ware and cut glass manufactured here is of a superior quality.

The Tungouses are the most widely dispersed of the native tribes of Siberia. The northern districts of Manchuria are peopled by them, and they occur in Dauria, between the Onon and Argun, where they unite agriculture with the keeping of animals, especially the reindeer. They are found in Eastern Siberia, from lake Baikal to the Polar sea and sea of Okotsk. In the latter district they are called Lamoots, or "inhabitants of the shore."

The Tungouses are considered as the best formed of the native tribes of Siberia. They are generally of a middling size, of a fine shape, and slender, with features more regular than the Mongols; eyes small and lively, and nose well formed, though rather small. They are accomplished horsemen and very skilful hunters. Though widely spread over an immense country, the language of the most distant tribe of Tungouses is said to differ very little with that of the Manchus. Many roots are found in the

Mongolian and Turkish languages, and even in some of the languages of Europe, especially the Slavonian and Finnish. Their religion is Shamanism.

The Burats constitute one of the divisions of nations into which the Mongols are divided; these are the Mongols proper, Eleuths, and Calmucks. Next to the Russians, they are the most populous of all the nations that inhabit Siberia. Their language is a dialect of the Mongolian, but much harsher in its pronunciation. They inhabit the mountainous country enclosing lake Baïkal on the west, and south from the mouth of the river Bargoosin, on the east side of the lake, to the sources of the Léna on the west. The various tribes subject to Russia embrace an aggregate population of nearly 300,000 souls. Each tribe is governed by its prince, or Taïsha. The richest of their princes, according to Cochran, has 23,000 subjects, and occupies the country between Selengensk and Nertshinsk. They have embraced the Budhism of the Lamas, and cultivate the language and literature of Tibet. The other tribes profess Shamanism.

Most of the tribes are nomadic. They have large herds of horses, black cattle, sheep, and camels. Their chief wealth consists of horses, the flesh of which, and mares' milk, constitute their principal diet. They have made considerable progress in some of the arts of civilized life, especially in working iron and tanning, and possess the art of plating iron and silver by a simple process. Tanning is practised only by the women, who evince in this branch of industry great ingenuity and much taste. The women also make all the woollen stuffs which are in use among them for dress, blankets, coverings for their yourtes, or summer tents, &c. Their dwellings, for both summer and winter, are said by travellers to be very covenient, comfortable, and well adapted to their climate and nomadic life. Many of the Burats are rich, and possess herds of 1,000 to 5,000 cattle.

About 30 years since, an English protestant mission was sent amongst the Budhist tribe. The Burats were zealously opposed to any change in their religion, and about two years after the arrival of the missionaries, procured from Tibet, at an enormous expense, thirty wagon loads of Budhist books, which they distributed among all the families of their tribe, to counteract the efforts of the missionaries for their conversion. The missionaries studied the Russian, Mongolian, and Tibetan languages; established a press in the town of Selengensk, and translated and printed the Holy Scriptures in those languages; but after laboring for nearly 25 years without making any converts, their mission was at length broken up by order of the Emperor of Russia.

Yákoutsk, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on the Léna, in 60° north latitude, and 130° east longitude. This town has a population of about 7,000, and is the centre of commerce of Eastern Siberia, for all kinds of furs, walrus teeth, &c. The country abounds with cattle; and salt, iron, talc, &c., are said to be plentiful. The extreme temperature of summer and winter is perhaps greater than at any other place on the globe; the thermometer rising in the shade in summer to 106° Fahrenheit, and falling in winter to 83° below zero. Notwithstanding these extremes of temperature, it appears that the culture of rye succeeds perfectly under favorable localities in those regions; and that at Amguinsk, near Yákoutsk, the crops of grain are even more abundant than in Livonia. Besides the discovery of curious new animals, Professor Von Midden-

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dorf has ascertained that while rye, turnips, beet root, and potatoes grow on the Yenesei, in latitude 61° 40', indigenous plants requiring less warmth flourish much further north, and that forest trees with vertical stems reach to about 72° north latitude, in the parallel of the longitude of Tamyr.

Notwithstanding the severity of the winter in this province, it abounds in a great variety of beautiful wild flowers, which are profusely spread over the country about Yakoutsk, and between it and Okotsk. Along the Léna the wild asters are in great abundance, variety, and beauty.

The Yakouts are the most populous of the native tribes of Eastern Siberia, except the Burats. The rearing of cattle and horses, and the dairy, almost entirely engross their attention. The greater number of this tribe is found in the vicinity of Yakoutsk, which has derived its name from them, where an extensive country, with a fertile soil, is found between the lower Alden and the Léna, and along the banks of the river Viluiy. Many families are very wealthy, and possess several thousands of cattle. They begin to pay attention to the education of their children. Those residing in the vicinity of Yakoutsk are said by Professor Erman to have been converted from Shamanism to Christianity.

The Yakout horses are considered the best in Siberia: they are large and bony, strong, and capable of going through a vast deal of work; and in winter, when they are employed, they find their own provender by scraping away the snow with their feet, to get to the grass. As autumn sets in, their coats get longer, and in winter they are almost as long and thick as a bear's. They have a coarse head, but show blood in other points—so much so, that many of them were sent to the stud of the late Count Orloff, in Russia. Ten thousand of them are employed every year in conveying the provisions of grain, flour, brandy, and marine stores to Okotsk, which is a great source of subsistence for the people.

The inhabitants of Yakoutsk have cellars in all their houses, made in the frozen ground—such precisely as we make in houses in this country. In summer, when the heat is as excessive as the cold is in winter, they place all their fresh provisions, such as meat, milk, and fish, in these cellars, where everything becomes frozen in two hours. The Imperial Russian-American Company bored for water in the court-yard of their establishment at this place to the depth of 380 feet; the ground was still frozen and no water found; the frozen sub-soil is supposed to be 600 feet in depth.

The Yakouts are very industrious; young and old, male and female, being always occupied in some useful employment. When not engaged in hunting, travelling, or farming, men and boys make saddles, harness, &c., while the women and girls keep house, dress skins, prepare clothing, and attend the dairy. They are also remarkably kind and hospitable to strangers, and the best things they have are always freely offered to travellers. They have a singular mode of estimating distances; they take as their unit the time necessary for boiling a particular sort of food, and tell you that such and such a place is so many kettles off, or half a kettle, or, as the case may be, only part of a kettle.

Sir George Simpson states that all the Russians of every age, and many of the Yakouts, can read and write, education being handed down, very much to the credit of the people, as an heir-loom from father to son. This he understood to be more or less the case all over Eastern Siberia.

From a comparison of the Yakout language with that of the Tartars of Tobolsk, Professor Erman has shown, that of 297 Yakout words, only

114 did not occur in the dictionary of the Turkish language of the Tartars; and he thinks it can hardly be doubted that a Yakout born on the Aldan could make himself understood by an Osmanli of Constantinople. The number of roots which the Yakout language has in common with the Mongolian, is small.

From Yakoutsk to Okotsk is about 640 miles, and to Irkoutsk about 1,620 miles.

The archipelago of New Siberia, in the Polar Sea, is composed of the islands of Laikhov, Koletnoi, &c., within the jurisdiction of the district of Yakoutsk. Laikhov island is about thirty-five miles from Sviatoi-Noss, and lies between 73° and 74° north latitude and 140° and 143° east longitude. The summers in these islands are so cold that the snow does not entirely melt, and not a blade of grass grows. They consist of layers of ice, alternating with layers of sand, in which incredible numbers of mammoth and other fossil bones are imbedded.

Nertshinsk, called by the Chinese Niptchu, in 51° 29′ north latitude, the chief town of a district of the same name in Siberian Daouria, is situated east of the Yablonoi mountains, on the river Chilka, one of the affluents of the Amûr, and has a population of about 3,000. It is a place of considerable trade, and abounds in mines of gold, silver, tin, lead, and zinc, which are worked by the worst class of convicts sent thither for the most heinous offences. It is the penitentiary of Siberia.

The harbors and ports of Siberia on the sea Okotsk, particularly *Okotsk*, in 59° 20′ 22″ north latitude, and *Ajan*, are eminently convenient for foreign commerce. The factory of the Imperial Russian-American Company was transferred from the former to the latter port in 1846. The navigation of the sea is open from June till October. The principal food of the inhabitants of Okotsk is fish, on which they feed themselves, their dogs, cattle, and poultry. All other provisions are exorbitantly dear. Flour costs 28 paper roubles* per pood. Beef is so dear as to be rarely eaten, and wines and groceries have to pay a land carriage from St. Petersburg of 7,000 miles.

Ajan lies south of *Okotsk*, and is more favorably situated for commercial operations. From hence the company propose to introduce agriculture amongst the nomadic tribes of the vicinity, and establish commercial relations with the Guiliacks, spread over the frontier of Manchuria, not far from Ajan. Some families of this nomadic race have been recently located near the river May. The essays which they have made in the culture of wheat have succeeded at Okotsk.

The Shantar islands, near the southern extremity of the sea of Okotsk, abound in valuable fur animals, and are still little visited by the hunters. They derive their name from Shantar, a Guiliack word, signifying "island." The group is composed of Falsikoff, Great Shantar, Little Shantar, and Bielotchi islands, among which there is good anchorage.

There is said to be a good harbor at the entrance of the river Uda, on which the town of *Udskoi* is situated, about 40 miles from its mouth. Between the Uda and the frontier of Manchuria, Professor Von Middendorf discovered, in 1844, the small fine bay of Manega. There are also two small rivers, the Toron and Tugary; the latter has its outlet in a bay, on which the small town of *Tugary* is situated.

*The paper rouble is equal to 20 cents United States currency.

At the most northern recess of the bay of Ishijinsk, one of the great inlets of the sea of Okotsk, is the small town of *Ishijinsk*, in 54° 36′ north latitude, and 104° 33′ east longitude, with 500 inhabitants, who chiefly live on the produce of their fishery, but have also some commerce with the Koriacks; and an annual fair of the nomadic tribes of the district is held annually at this place.

The country of the Tchuktsches extends from Behring's strait to the country of the Koriacks, between the 64th and 71st parallels. The valleys are filled with morasses and small lakes; the mountains are of moderate height. The inhabitants are fishers and hunters, and amount to about 10,000. There is a tradition among the Tchuktsches that the strait which separates them from the opposite shore towards the north was not formerly covered with ice, and that the natives passed it in their baydars, or boats, made of whalebone.

The Tchuktsches, who inhabit the country to the north of the river Anadyr, have defended themselves with valor and success against the Russians, and pay no tribute. That portion of the nation who live in permanent habitations belong to the family of the Esquimaux, who seem to have emigrated from America, and maintain an intercourse between the two continents. The island of Imaklit, one of the group of the Diomeda, or Gwosdef islands, is generally the place where the exchange of goods takes place. The most active traders are the American inhabitants of the two small islands called King's islet, or Ookiosh, and Asiak or Ajak, especially those of the last mentioned island, who dispose of the Russian goods which are obtained from the Tchuktsches along the coast of America, as far south as the peninsula of Aliaska, and would probably carry them still farther to the east, if the settlements of the Imperial Russian American Company did not provide the tribes in those parts with such articles.

The Tchuktsches, as well as the Americans, visit the island of Imaklit in summer in their baydars, and in winter in sledges, which are drawn by dogs. The Tchuktsches bring tobacco, some iron utensils and ornaments obtained from the Russians, with a considerable number of reindeer dresses, as this animal does not appear to be common in any part of North America. The natives of the islands of Asiak bring a variety of furs and a great number of morse tusks. The American tribes which inhabit the country north of cape Prince of Wales, as far as Icy cape, also visit the island of Imaklit to obtain Russian goods. The knowledge of the extensive commerce thus carried on between the two continents by savage tribes, which we owe to Admiral Von Wrangel, explains how the iron pots and knives which Captain Beechy found among the inhabitants of Icy cape, and the knives which Franklin saw on the northern coast of America, and which were all of Russian manufacture, found their way to these remote places.

The Koriaks inhabit the country between the Anadyr and the peninsula of Kamtschatka. They are divided into two classes: the one of which are located—the other pursue a nomad life. The former are chiefly found on the shore of the sea of Okotsk, where they dwell in villages resembling those of the Kamtschatkadales. Their numbers amount to about 2,000; they are subject to Russia, and pay an annual tribute.

Kamtschatka.—The peninsula of Kamtschatka is about 800 miles long, by 100 to 200 broad, and forms part of the Siberian provincial government of Irkoutsk, with a population of about 6,000. The natives call

themselves Itlemen. It was first discovered and settled by the Russians in 1696; is mostly sterile, rocky, and mountainous, and has several volcanoes in constant activity. Pic de Kluchevsk, which was visited and described by Professor Erman, a few years since, is stated to be upwards of 15,825 feet above the level of the sea.

The country abounds in bears, lynxes, sea and river otters, reindeer, foxes of different colors, sables, beavers, seals, walruses, &c. Salmon, and a variety of other fish, are found in the rivers and on the coasts, and whales are numerous. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in hunting, fishing, and whaling; furs, dried fish, and whale oil, are the principal exports. The Siberian dog serves as an animal for draught among the Kamtschatkadales and Ostiacks; the domestic reindeer is used for the same purpose; its milk and flesh serve for food, and its skin for clothing, among the Samoyedes and Tungouses.

Petrapaulski, the principal town of Kamtschatka, lies in 53° 5′ north latitude, and 201° 16′ west longitude, in the bay of Avatska, east coast; there are several smaller settlements on the same coast, and on the sea of Okotsk.

It is understood, upon the authority of Sir George Simpson, that Kamtschatka is to be placed, under the administration of the Imperial Russian-American Company, upon the same footing as the Russian-American colonies and islands in the northern Pacific.

In Russia, corporal punishments are much in use; criminals are seldom put to death, but are sent off to Siberia for almost every kind of offence, from the highest political crime to petty larceny. The most heinous offenders, according to Sir George Simpson, are sent to the mines; those guilty of minor delinquencies are settled in villages, or on farms. Statesmen, authors, and soldiers, banished thither for political offences, are generally permitted to establish themselves in small communities, where they spread refinement through the country. As a natural consequence, he observes that "all grades of society are considerably more intelligent than the corresponding grades in any other part of the empire; perhaps more so than in any part of Europe."

Many of the exiles are men of large income; and he adds: "In fact, for the reforming of the criminal, in addition to the punishment of the crime, Siberia is undoubtedly the best penitentiary in the world. When not bad enough for the mines, each exile is provided with an allotment of ground, a house, a horse, two cows, agricultural implements, and, for the first year, with provisions. For three years he pays no taxes whatever, and for the next ten only half the full amount. To bring fear as well as hope to operate in his favor, he already understands that his very first slip will send him from his home and family to toil in the mines. Thus does the government bestow an almost paternal care on the less atrocious criminals."

Among the Swedish officers made prisoners at the battle of Pultowa, and sent to Siberia by Peter the Great, was Baron Strahlenburg, the author of one of the best works on the country, entitled "Description of the Northeastern parts of Europe and Asia." Those honorable exiles brought with them the customs and manufactures of Europe. While employed in ameliorating their own situation, they enriched the people

among whom they were banished, and founded the first schools for teaching Russian, German, Latin, French, geography, geometry, and drawing.

The convicts and exiles call themselves Posselencies, or "colonists," and are styled in Siberia Neshchastnie Loodie, or "unfortunate people;" no banished man, though he be a convict of this description, being ever called, in that country, by a name that can wound his feelings so as to remind him of crimes, for which he is already supposed to have been punished, or degrade him in the opinion of the public. By throwing a veil over their past crimes, the convicts are not only made to forget what they have been, but are induced to emulate the many examples before them of retrieved criminals, who have become honest, industrious, good subjects. Those who have been guilty of murder, and other atrocious crimes, are not mixed indiscriminately with the other exiles.

In 1840, the number of *colonist exiles* in Siberia amounted, according to M. Tchihatcheff, to 134,630, of which 64,000 were established in Western Siberia, and 70,290 in Eastern Siberia. Among the latter, 11,000 were employed in the gold mines. The number of that class of exiles sent to Siberia from 1839 to 1841, inclusive, amounted to 3,617.

Western Siberia comprises the whole region from the frontier of the government of Orenburg northward to Tobolsk.

Omsk, in 55° north latitude, and 73° 40′ east longitude, the new capital of Western Siberia, stands on the confluence of the Om and Irtysch, in the midst of a sandy plain. The town is still in its infancy, having but lately supplanted Tobolsk. It has been selected as the seat of the general government, chiefly with the view to the gradual subjugation of the Kirghiz, who occupy the vast intervening tract of country as far as the Caspian sea. The present population is about 8,000, with a garrison of 4,000 men. As to the civil government, Omsk still depends on the ancient city Tobolsk, which continues to be the capital of the united provinces of Tobolsk and Omsk.

One of the principal objects in the transfer of the government of Western Siberia to Omsk, in 1840, was with the view to the organization of Russian military posts through the Kirghiz steppes, in the direct route to the frontier of Tibet, from which it is distant about 1,000 miles. In 1842 they had established military stations upon 600 miles of the route, which have been subsequently extended to Tibet, where the Russians have now obtained a firm footing, and have extended their caravan trade thence to western India.

There is a military school at Omsk, at which 60 noble youths, and 120 Cossacks, are taught drawing, algebra, the oriental languages, history, and fortifications, and are intended for interpreters and agents in the East. It is 2,490 miles from St. Petersburg.

Tobolsk is situated on the Irtysch, near the river Tobole, in latitude 58° 2′ north, and longitude 68° 35′ east, with a population of about 30,000, and is divided into the upper and lower towns. It is the seat of the civil government of Western Siberia, and the see of an archbishop, who has jurisdiction over all Siberia. Several remarkable and elegant edifices embellish the upper town. Chinese silks and Bokharian stuffs of the richest qualities are displayed in the bazars, in quantities far exceeding those of European manufacture. The markets are abundantly stocked with provisions, especially game and fish, and five hundred fruit and kitchen gardens in the immediate vicinity of the town produce a

greater variety of fruits and vegetables than might be expected to be found under so severe a climate.

In this government iron and copper are extensively mined and prepared, especially in the Ural chain; and there are tanneries, felt manufactories, soap and tallow works, and for various common fabrics, in different places. The fur, hide, and transit trades employ a great proportion of the inhabitants. There are some coarse cloth, leather, and soap manufactories at Tomsk and other places. There is a regular and extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans of camels, between Tobolsk and the town of Tashkend, in the Khanate of Khokan, Central Asia. From Tobolsk to St. Petersburg is 2,076 miles.

Tomsk, in 56° 30′ north latitude, and 85° 20′ east longitude, the capital of the government of Tomsk, is built on the right bank of the Tom, about 25 miles from its junction with the Oby. The greater part of the inhabitants consist of Russians, Bokharians, and Calmucs, and subsist by commerce, for which the place is very advantageously situated, being on the great line of rivers which connect Tobolsk with the Chinese frontier, and the eastern part of Siberia.

In the southeastern districts, from Tomsk to Irkoutsk, rye, of which all the bread of the country people is made, wheat, oats, buckwheat, hemp, and tobacco, are grown in great quantities. In the more central regions, all the European vegetables succeed as well as on the southern frontier; but fruit trees are not generally cultivated. It has a population of 24,000, and is 2,990 miles from St. Petersburg.

Kolyvan, on the river Belaya, in the centre of the Altaï mountains near lake Kolyvan, is surrounded with almost all the valuable stone which Siberia contains. Immense blocks of porphyry, agate, jasper, various kinds of fine-grained granite and marble, are here collected, to be prepared for the imperial palaces at St. Petersburg and elsewhere. There is a government establishment for working ornamental vases, columns, and other objects of art.

Krashoyarsk, in the government of Tomsk, is situated on the Yenesei. It contains a population of about 7,000, who are principally employed in the gold-washings. The great road from Tomsk to Irkoutsk passes through this city, which occasions a considerable transit of commodities for the trade with Eastern Siberia and China. The surrounding country is remarkably fertile, and provisions are very abundant and cheap.

Ekaterinebourg, in 57° north latitude, and 62° east longitude, is the centre of the mining district for the Uralian mountains. The population amounts to 25,000, who are all connected with the mines. Besides its mining works, conducted by the imperial government, and by M. Jacobleff, the richest individual of the Russian empire, this town is noted in common with Kolyvan, and other places in Siberia, for the polishing of precious stones by water-power, including the porphyries, agates, jaspers, and malachites of the adjacent mountains.

Nijny Tulgilsk is a mining town of the Demidoff family, situated on the eastern flank of the Ural, where 22,000 well-ordered and comfortably-housed inhabitants are gathered together under directors whose skill and science have earned for them the eulogy of Humboldt. In addition to hospitals and schools, in which even the sciences are taught, Prince Anatole Demidoff has caused a trigonometrical survey of the extensive property of his family to be made by French engineers. The net annual

income derived from the various mining establishments of the family, is said to exceed $2,500,000; but it does not equal that of M. Jacobleff, who is reported to be the largest proprietor of mines in Siberia.

Semapalatinsk, on the Irtysch, in 50° 40′ north latitude, and 80° east longitude, in the circle of Biisk, is a neat garrisoned town, with a population of 8,000. It is the mart of an extensive trade with Central Asia and China, and boasts one of the richest floras to be met with in northern Asia. Its immediate environs, in a circuit of 14 miles, produce about 800 different kinds of flowers and shrubs. The river Irtysch here forms the boundary between Russia and China. The distance from this place to Pekin is about the same as from Kiakta.

The principal articles of export from Semapalatinsk and Omsk to China, are cotton goods, hardware, raw and tanned hides, and cloths of ordinary quality. The imports consist exclusively of tea, and a Chinese silver coin called yamba.

The following is an official statement of the commercial movements of Semapalatinsk during a series of seven years, from 1836 *to* 1842, *in bank roubles:*

Years.	Exportations.	Importations.		Receipts of the custom-house.	
		Merchandise.	Specie.		
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Copecs.*
1836 -	270,288	210,656	426,600	21,876	38
1837 -	349,928	212,750	369,500	18,186	56
1838 -	490,918	250,670	370,800	21,446	80
1839 -	420,074	311,714	370,400	33,929	12
1840 -	551,785	719,312	299,850	148,210	70
1841 -	886,650	674,906	87,507	162,195	38
1842 -	646,326	561,681	311,814	91,106	58

Bukturima, also a frontier town, is romantically situated on the small river of the same name, a tributary of the Irtysch. In its vicinity commences the boundary line between Asiatic Russia and China.

Petro-Paulofski, on the Ischm, is another frontier town of considerable trade with China. Mr. Cottrell states that merchandise to the amount of 15,000,000 roubles passed through the custom-house of this place in 1849. The duty on imports into Russia at these points is only two per cent. It is about 186 miles from Omsk.

An increasing clandestine trade is carried on between the town of *Biisk* and Mongolia, across the Tchouya, on the Chinese frontier. The exports of the Russians consist principally of cloths, velvets, hides, printed cottons, fowling-pieces and shot, furniture, kettles, kitchen utensils, hardware, &c., for which returns are made in brick tea, and the Chinese silver coin, yamba.

The town of *Orenburg*, on the Ural, is the great emporium of the Rus-

sian caravan trade with the Kirghiz horde, Bokhara, Khokan, Khiva, Tibet, Persia, &c. The Chinese and Usbeck merchants from Turkestan and Hanse assemble there to meet the Russian traders, and carry on a valuable traffic. From these regions, as well as from northwestern China, small parties of native merchants start for Semapalatinsk and Troisk, in Siberia, where a similar, but not such an extensive traffic, takes place.

In addition to the traffic going on daily and weekly with the Kirghizes, there are periodical arrivals and extensive caravans from Tibet, Bokhara, and Khokan. Armenians, Bokharians, Kirghizes, and many other Tartar traders, pass extensively backwards and forwards on their trading expeditions, being ableto cross the Chinese frontier without molestation. Silk and cotton goods, coarse woollen carpets, calicoes, dried fruits, and turquoises, are the common articles of exchange against leather, furs, glass, iron, and common crockery. The traffic is very extensive, and constantly increasing; and Mr. Cottrell observes, "when the various amounts of imports and exports are added together all along the frontier from Orenburg to Kiakta, the gross sum will, we believe, turn out far greater than people usually imagine." Montgomery Martin estimates the aggregate annual value of the Russian overland trade with China and Central Asia at upwards of four millions sterling.

The town of *Zlatâûst*, in the Ural mountains, is the great centre of the southern imperial mines, and celebrated for its steel manufactures, in which the Russians have made surprising progress within the last few years under the direction of General Anósoff, a skilful metallurgist, whose damasked scimitars, as well as every description of ornamental steel, are said to equal, if not surpass, the similar products of any other country. Captain James Abbott, a British officer, who travelled from India, by Khivah, to Russia, in 1840, gives a very elaborate criticism, in the narrative of his journey, on the damasked swords of the east, and on those of Zlatâûst in particular, in which he observes: "The general fault of European blades is, that being forged of sheer-steel, for the sake of elasticity, they are scarcely susceptible of the keen edge which cast steel will assume. The genius of Anósoff has triumphed over this objection—not in hardening the soft steel, but in giving elasticity to the hard; and it may be doubted whether any fabric in the world can compete with that of Zlatâûst in the production of weapons, combining in an equal degree, edge and elasticity."

Professor Von Middendorf, aided by learned friends, is actively engaged with the account of his important "Expedition and Exploration in Siberia;" and the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg has been charged to advise as to the means and style of publication. Count A. Von Keyserling is occupied with the fossils collected during the expedition. On the completion of this work, the Count will conduct an exploratory expedition along the eastern flanks of the Ural mountains, from 60° north to the Glacial sea, under the direction and patronage of the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg. Another scientific expedition is employed in Siberia under the direction of M. Castren.

Professor Von Middendorf read a paper before the British association for the advancement of science, in September, 1846, on the geographical boundaries and some of the characteristic peculiarities of the different native Siberian tribes.

1st. The Ostiaks: these were stated to be of Finnish origin, on physio-

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logical and philological evidence. 2d. The Samoyedes, who were of Mongol descent. 3d. The Tungouses. 4th. The Yakouts; the extent to which Mongol features were found in a nation speaking a language akin to Turkish, was insisted on. 5th. The Yukagin; the physical peculiarities of which placed them along with the Samoyedes. 6th. The Ainos; these were the inhabitants of the Kurile islands, at the mouth of the Amûr; of these there were two types, the Finnish and the Japanese. 7th. The Katchell; these were only known through the Ainos.

2. Russian overland trade with China at Kiakta, &c.

Kiakta is a Siberian frontier town in the government of Irkoutsk, lying in 50° 21′ north latitude, and 106° 29′ east longitude. Its name is derived from a Mongol word for a species of grass growing in the neighborhood, affording excellent pasture for the camels which arrive there in the caravans. It is called by the Russians Troitsko-Sauskaia. The town is commanded by Mount Borrgueltai, or "eagle mountain," which the Chinese reserved to themselves in the last demarcation treaty, on the pretence that it contained the tombs of their ancestors. It is situated on a small streamlet, also called the Kiakta, which is here the boundary between Siberia and China, falling into the Selengá, and communicating with lake Baïkal, Irkoutsk, and the river Angará, a branch of the great river Yenesei. The town contains about 5,000 inhabitants, is 2,480 feet above the level of the sea, and within the distance of half a mile from the Chinese town of Maimatchin, or "trading mart," in Mongolia. Maimatchin is also called Daï Oergo in Mongolian, and Chadaldatchin in Manchu. The district is governed by a counsellor of chancery and a director of the customs, who conduct, between them, the judicial, political, military, and commercial affairs. Kiakta is 55 miles southeast of Selengensk, 180 southeast from Irkoutsk, 4,174 from St. Petersburg, and 1,030 from Pekin.

Kiakta has fourteen merchants of the first guild, but only seven of them have fixed residences in the place. The others, who reside at Irkoutsk, and in European Russia, employ factors, and only visit the place occasionally. A school for instruction in the Chinese, Mongolian, and Manchu languages, was established in 1835. The young men taught in it are employed as interpreters. The number at present in the college is sixteen.

The Russians are prohibited from trading at the ports of China proper, in consequence of the privilege they have long enjoyed of an overland commerce at this place. Of late years this trade has become of great and increasing importance, and the attention of commercial men connected with China has been called to the Russian woollen manufactures, which have begun to compete successfully with those of English manufacture, which formerly supplied the Chinese market.

By the treaty of 14th June, 1728, between Russia and China, Kiakta and Maimatchin are made entrepôts of the overland trade between the two countries. Russia has had at Pekin, since the conclusion of the treaty, a convent or college, composed of six priests and four lay members, for celebrating the ritual of the Greek church, and teaching the Russian, Chinese, Mongolian, and Manchu languages. In this respect, Mr.

Macgregor considers Russia has great political and intelligent advantages over England in her trade with China.

The Imperial Russian-American Company carry to the fair which is held at Kiakta between January and March, the furs, peltries, sea-horse teeth, &c., collected at their trading establishments on the northwest coast of America, Kamtschatka, the Aleutian and Kurile islands. It is also frequented by Russian traders with Siberian furs, dressed sheep and lamb skins, woollen manufactures of various kinds required for the cold winter climate of northern China, Mongolia, and Manchuria, coarse linens, leather, specie, horned cattle, camels, horses, hounds, grey-hounds and dogs for hunting wild boars, provisions, meal, &c., to exchange for the raw and manufactured silk, porcelain, rhubarb, sugar candy, musk, and especially the teas of China.

The tea* imported at Kiakta, which is so highly reputed for its quality, on the ground of its passing overland, is still carried chiefly by water; first from Kiakta, by land, to Tomsk, on the Irtysch, a distance of more than 1,000 miles; thence by water down the Oby to its confluence with the Irtysch, and then up the latter to Tourmine, where it is landed and carried overland to Perm. It is then carried in boats down the Kama to its junction with the Wolga, and up this river to Nishney-Novgorod, where part of it is sold at the great annual fair in July at a large profit, and the remainder sent to Moscow for distribution and consumption in European Russia.

The tea of the finest quality is classed into flower and family tea, both of which are said to consist of pekoe. It is grown in the north of China, and said to be much superior to any shipped at Canton or Shanghai. This is owing to the leaf being less fired in the process of curing. Many of the finest teas drunk in China would not bear a long sea voyage in the hot and humid atmosphere of the hold of a ship, and therefore the teas conveyed to Europe and the United States by sea are required to be dried and fired to a degree that must injure their quality.

A considerable portion of the tea imported at Kiakta, and other marts on the Siberian frontier, is called brick tea. The Mongols and most of the nomads of Central Asia make use of this tea; it serves them both for drink and for food. The Chinese carry on a great trade in it, but never drink it themselves. In the tea manufactories, which are for the most part in the Chinese government of Fokien, the dry, dirty, and damaged leaves and stalks of the tea are thrown aside; they are then mixed with a glutinous substance, pressed into moulds and dried in ovens. These blocks are called by the Russians, on account of their shape, brick tea. The Mongols, the Burats, the inhabitants of Siberia beyond lake Baikal, and the Kalmucks, take a piece of this tea, pound it in a mortar, made on purpose, and throw the powder into a cast-iron vessel, full of boiling water, which they suffer to stand a long time upon the fire, adding a little salt and milk, and sometimes mixing flour fried in oil. The weary traveller may at all times boldly enter a tent and quench his thirst with brick tea; but he must have his own wooden cup, which every Mongol carries about with him as an article indispensably necessary. The most esteemed of these cups come from Tibet; the rich generally have them lined with silver.

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*See Appendix A.

This tea, or broth, is known by the name of satouran. M. Timkowsky says he drunk tea prepared both ways, and found it palatable enough; at least very nourishing. All depends on the skill and cleanliness of the cook. This brick tea serves also instead of money in the dealings of this people, as well as in Daouria, on the frontier.

Tea made up into balls and rolls, or compressed into flat cakes, is also exported by the Chinese to Tibet, Burmah, &c., and when boiled with milk, is said to constitute an agreeable and stimulating beverage.

The following is an official statement of the commercial movements of Kiakta, from 1825 *to* 1842, *in paper roubles,* = 20 *cents United States currency.*

Years.	Exportations.	Importations.	Receipts of the custom-house.	
	Roubles.		*Roubles.*	*Copecs.*
1825 -	10,818,639	The value of the imports corresponds with that of the exports.	6,315,858	10
1826 -	12,078,157		7,012,643	13
1827 -	14,032,562		8,141,653	27
1828 -	14,697,561		8,076,554	24
1829 -	16,350,664		8,289,781	6
1830 -	11,456,195		7,070,562	37
1831 -	13,306,879		7,088,821	10
1832 -	16,175,607		9,410,606	66
1833 -	14,863,038		9,113,072	67
1834 -	16,239,196		9,308,923	62
1835 -	17,422,990		9,545,698	3
1836 -	22,588,027		11,263,135	57
1837 -	20,220,812		11,096,418	24
1838 -	18,363,980		10,525,847	47
1839 -	22,628,366		11,484,710	9
1840 -	31,637,132		15,535,897	48
1841 -	33,916,622		17,466,750	58
1842 -	30,135,257		19,178,864	36

In 1845, the Russian trade at Kiakta amounted to 13,622,000 silver roubles, (a silver rouble = 75 cents United States currency.) Russia received 140,000 chests of tea, chiefly pekoe, a considerable quantity of raw and manufactured silks, cotton cloths called *daba* and *kitaia*, rhubarb, porcelain, sugar candy, musk, tobacco, rice, artificial flowers, tiger and panther skins, rubies, coloring matters, canes, &c. The Chinese took in return furs, peltries, leather, tanned hides, Russian cloths, velvets, camlets, druggets, white flannels, stuffs, woollen, linen, and cotton cloths, glassware, hardware, tin, talc, specie, cattle, provisions, flour, &c. The daba and kitaia is a sort of thick calico of different colors, brought from China, through Bokhara, into Russia, in large quantities, and is extensively used for the apparel of both men and women. The Chinese kitaia is the best, of which there are two sorts. Daba is a very strong stuff, of a beautiful red color, without gloss; it is narrow and not unlike coarse calico.

The other is coarse, but more durable. Great quantities of cotton stuffs, and calicoes of gay colors, are also brought by the Chinese from Mongolia, called Selenskaia, from a city of the name of Selein. They are generally of gay colors, as red, green, yellow, blue, and made up in bundles of rolls, each 20 ells long. Some of their finest silk stuffs, embroidered with gold, sell readily in St. Petersburg for 250 paper roubles per ell.

A great portion of the Chinese grandees wrap themselves up in costly Siberian and American furs. The Mongols living in China near the frontiers make great use of the Russian cloths, and of hard iron wares and leather. The exports of Russia woollen and cotton cloths to China and Central Asia are constantly increasing; goods of this description are now extensively manufactured chiefly at, and near, Moscow. The Russian woollen cloths, called by the Chinese *ka-la*, are greatly preferred by them to those of English manufacture, and which they have almost entirely superseded in the China market, particularly at Ningpo, Shanghai, and Suchau.

The pieces are from 19 to 30 yards in length; the breadth varies from 62 to 64 inches. It is made up in packages of five pieces, and an assortment usually contains 50 pieces blue, 35 pieces black, 10 pieces scarlet, 2 pieces ash, and 5 pieces green. The Russian woollen cloths are of different qualities, similar to those of the English called "Spanish stripes," and "habit cloths." They are classed in three varieties: 1st, Mezeritsky cloths; 2d, those of Masloff, or Maslovia; 3d, Karnavoy cloths. In each variety are four or five grades of quality.

The assortment of colors in 100 pieces of Mezeritsky is, blue 40 pieces; light blue, 10 pieces; black, 20 pieces; violet, 2 pieces; yellow, 1 piece; red pomegranate, 8 pieces; brown-violet, 4 pieces; scarlet, 10 pieces; green, 3 pieces; and "fashions of the day," 2 pieces.

These are packed in 10 bales, each having an assortment of the different colors. The first quality of Mezeritsky cloth costs at Moscow 150 to 165 paper roubles per piece of 25 arsheens, (6*s.* 9*d.* to 7*s.* 4*d.* sterling per yard,) and the charges from Moscow to Kiakta amount to about 250 paper roubles per bale; they measure from 60 to 67 inches in width. The first quality of Masloff cloth costs at Moscow from seven to seven and a half paper roubles per arsheen, (8*s.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* sterling per yard;) the length of the pieces 40 to 45 arsheens, or 31 to 35 yards; breadth between the lists, 67 to 70 inches. They are made up in bales of eight pieces each. In an export of 1,000 pieces of these two cloths, the proportions are about 750 to 800 pieces of Mezeritsky, and 200 to 250 pieces of Maslovia.

Prior to 1844 large quantities of Turkey opium were imported free of duty, and smuggled into China by the Russian traders. By the present Russian tariff the drug is subject to a duty of 40 silver roubles per pood, which is considered as implying prohibition. The contraband trade, however, in this as well as in every other article, both at that mart and along the extended Chinese frontier of 3,000 miles, is said to be very considerable. Camels and a few mules are used to transport the coarser goods, but the fine quality teas are conveyed in carts, each of which is generally drawn by one ox, and they travel at the rate of about 14 miles a day. M. Timkowsky thus describes them in his journal:—"The Mongol carts generally have only two wheels, which turn round with the axle. The wheel is formed of two small square blocks of wood fastened together in the shape of a cross, and the interval filled up with rounded

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wedges, instead of felloes; the axletree is fixed in the centre, so as not to project beyond the wheels." The ordinary teas are generally conveyed in winter, by camels, because it is made of the leaves in a state of maturity, and cannot be forwarded sooner from the province of Fokien to Kalgan, and thence to Russia. The town known to the Russians by the name of Kalgan is Tchangka-keou, and is situated a few miles south of the great wall, and about 100 miles north of Pekin. Kalgan is the key to the commerce of China with Russia, and in part also with Mongolia. All merchandise destined for the markets of Russia is collected here, and conveyed across by caravans. Merely the conveyance of the Chinese merchandise from Kalgan to Kiakta, and that of the articles which the Chinese have exchanged with the Russian merchants, is a great source of profit to the Mongols, as they employ their camels and the Tsakhars their oxen. They receive payment from the Chinese in silver, but principally in merchandise.

From Kiakta through the country of the Kalkhas, to Oubur Oude, a distance of some 500 miles, M. Timkowsky states that the road, as in all Mongolia, is in general mountainous, and covered with gravel. From Oubur Oude the road passes through the country of the Eastern and Western Sounites to that of the Tsakhars, a distance of about 250 miles, and from this place to the frontier of the Tsakhars grass is rare, the water brackish, the road in general sandy. Elsewhere we find that the Sounites inhabit either the whole or a part of the desert of Gobi, a sterile tract intersected by lofty barren mountains. The third portion of the road, through the country of the Tsakhars to the great wall of China, is about 150 miles in length. The steppe abounds in pasturage. There are small rivers and lakes. From Nortian, the first village in China, to Pekin, is rather more than 120 miles, with a very fatiguing road over the chain of mountains Kinkan Dabakhin, which separates Mongolia from China. All merchandise, therefore, from Pekin, must travel through this 1,000 miles of inhospitable country, and then, after it has safely arrived at Kiakta, must be conveyed 4,300 miles further before it can reach St. Petersburg.

The duties paid by the Russians at Kiakta are, on furs 25 per cent.; other articles 20 per cent.; with one per cent. for deepening the river Selenga, and seven per cent. towards the custom-house. They carry on a profitable trade in China, and find a ready market for their inferior furs, which would not pay transportation from the coast of Siberia to European Russia; whilst good furs bring a high price in China, and are generally too expensive for the home market. In exchange for their furs they get articles which they would not be able to obtain on as good terms from the European nations.

The transactions of the fair are regulated by a board of trade, composed of Russian merchants, who are annually elected under the direction of the custom-house at Kiakta, and arrange with a corresponding board of Chinese traders at Maimatchin the price of every article to be exchanged, to which a relative value is fixed on the Chinese article. This is done in writing and is unchangeable, and no transaction is permitted except upon these terms. The traffic in opium is strictly prohibited.

The charges on a chest of tea from Kiakta to Nishney-Novgorod and Moscow are stated to be as follows, viz:

Specification of charges.	Flower Tea, weighing 60 lbs.	Family Tea, weighing 65 lbs.	Family Tea, weighing 80 to 85 lbs.*
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*
Import duty and custom-house charges - -	130	138.50	160
Commission at Kiakta -	10	4.80	6.40
Packing in hides - -	3	3	3
Receiving, weighing, and cartage in Kiakta -	10	10	10
Carriage to Nishney-Novgorod and Moscow -	35	35	50
	188	191.31	229.40

*40 Russian pounds = 36 avoirdupois.

The prices, which have been unaltered for years, are as follows:
Roubles, 60 for one chest quadrat family tea.
" 120 " " third sort flower tea.
" 80 " " Polootornay family tea (1½ as large.)

The prices of Russian produce were raised in 1843 from those of former years, and it was also arranged that one chest of family tea is to go along with every chest of flower tea.

The secret instructions from the government of China to their licensed merchants at Kiakta display great cunning, duplicity, and meanness, and are characteristic of the uniform policy observed in their intercourse with the "foreign barbarians." The Chinese traders are moreover charged by the Russians with trickery and unfair dealing, by giving short weight in teas, and short measures in silks and cotton goods.

The following is a translation of the secret code, or abstract of instructions for the guidance and government of the Chinese traders at that mart:

"The end and aim of every commercial nation should be to prevent the advantage being on the side of the foreigners.

"1st. To do this effectually, all letters received by any one of the licensed merchants from their partners are only to be opened in a public assembly, so that all may act in concert against the foreigners.

"2d. Discover what articles the Russians are most in need of, and what price they sell for in Russia. Every member is to strive with all his might to obtain information on this head, and lay it before a general meeting; when the president will give to each a note which will state the quantity of each article he is to purchase, and the price he is to buy them at; and likewise those which he is to withhold.

"3d. The least display possible as to the quantity of Chinese goods that may be brought for sale; do not appear anxious for Russian goods.

"4th. The Chinese goods should be at all times less in quantity than Russian; that no fresh goods should be brought forward until the old ones are sold off.

"5th. Let no eagerness be shown for any article of Russian manufacture; no matter how much any one member may wish to procure it.

"6th. When the Russians are scantily supplied with any valuable article, great eagerness should be displayed to purchase the whole stock, saying that it was in good demand, and then to be equally divided between each merchant; the consequence will be, that the next year a large stock will be brought to market, and great bargains will be procured by stating that the demand has ceased, and thus gain advantage to the nation.

"7th. If the Russians should raise the price of any article that was scarce, no one should buy anything for a month. If they complain to us, we will tell them the trade must be stopped.

"8th. Tell the Russians that the quantity of goods on hand is much less than it really is; and likewise tell them that China has no silk or cotton to dispose of.

"9th. No license will be granted to trade at Kiakta, unless the merchant is able to write and speak the Russian language; and that will prevent the necessity of the Russians acquiring a knowledge of the Chinese; and thus preserve the secrets of trade and the policy of the goverument.

"10th. Treat the Russians with politeness on all occasions, and even show them acts of hospitality, which will enable you the better to learn how their country is governed; but on no account sleep in the same house with them.

"11th. No merchant to transact business for one year after his arrival at Kiakta; but during that period to learn thoroughly all the secrets of the trade, and thus prevent mistakes.

"12th. Prohibits gold, silver, copper, and iron, from being exchanged with Russia.

"13th. Proscribes the introduction of all articles of luxury, wine, spirits, &c."

There are various punishments awarded for a violation of these rules. For disclosing the nature of the above instructions to the Russians, death or banishment for life; for lesser crimes, mistakes, &c., to pull the grain boats for five years.

The trade of the interior of China, the prices, demand, &c., are to be kept a profound secret.

The Chinese tea merchants are noted for their excessive politeness and tact in puffing their wares by pompous advertisements, to draw customers. The following specimen of their skill in this line is a literal translation of the advertisement of a tea dealer in Maimatchin:

"TIEN-CHOUN-HOU-DZE.

"It is well known to all the gentlemen tea commissioners that teas of a superior quality come from the hills of Ou-ish, and the banks of the river Tsei, where the plant grows very abundantly. Whoever has visited those places will assure you that the air of the country is endowed with an extraordinary productive power, which increases and improves the plant, imparting to the leaf a brilliant color, pleasing to the eye, and a peculiarly delicate flavor.

"We are well aware that teas called the Loun-towan, 'sleeping dragon,' and Fin-ïan, 'small eyes of the king of birds,' have heretofore appeared in this market; but it was a mere deception. Impudent swin-

dlers thus attempted to deceive the public by selling an inferior mixture under these celebrated names, and by such frauds did a great injury to the fair dealer.

"With the view of protecting the public in future against the rapacity of such persons, I have had two seals engraven on jasper. Hereafter all the packages of tea that leave my depot will be sold under the signature *Ip*, and will moreover bear the impress of those seals, one of which, of a round form, indicates the place of my birth; and the other, of my tea warehouse. I therefore beg the most respectable public to examine my stock, to be assured that the tea which I advertise is in fact the produce of the crop gathered in the nine celestial-districts of the province of Dziou tsoui man-ian."

The head of the Chinese board of trade and municipal government of Maimatchin, called the Dzargotchi, is always a Manchu of the royal race, whose term of service is three years, after which he returns to Pekin. If the people are satisfied with him, they accompany him on his departure to the gate; and when he goes out they take off one of his boots, which is then placed over it in token of their approbation of his conduct. When Mr. Cottrell, the English traveller, was at that place in 1841, he saw but two boots over the gate.

There is no ceremony now observed by the Russians and Chinese, as was formerly the case, on arriving at Kiakta or Maimatchin. Several of the Russian merchants engaged in the trade have accumulated large fortunes, and live in elegant style. The residence of M. Siberchoff, one of the wealthiest of the guild, is said to have cost $100,000. The merchants think the best hospitality they can offer to a stranger, is to press him to drink all the different kinds of tea in succession.

The Chinese trade, independently of its direct benefits to individual merchants and manufacturers, gives to Russia a position and an influence in the commercial world, which, without her Asiatic dependency of Siberia, she could never have acquired.

It may be assumed as a fact, that since the commencement of the present century the traffic between Russia and China, at Kiakta, has increased twelvefold. It is regarded as the most beneficial branch of Russian commerce; and besides the Imperial Russian American Company, a considerable number of the principal merchants of Kiakta, Irkoutsk, and Moscow, have large capitals invested in the trade. Besides Kiakta, the Siberian frontier towns of Zurukaita, Semapalatinsk, Biisk, and Omsk, are considerable marts for trade with China and Central Asia. There are various roads going from Yarkand through Chinese Turkestan and the Kirghiz country, that serve as ways of transport by immense trading caravans from China to Orenburg, and other great marts of trade in Russia.

The Chinese government has, since the conclusion of the peace, very much relaxed its restrictive regulations respecting the Russian commerce. The prohibitory system, which had hitherto been maintained at the frontiers of Chinese Turkestan, and along the great wall, against the Chinese speculators, led occasionally to revolts, in suppressing which the Emperor was obliged to disburse large sums. There is moreover a desire to place the Russians under obligation to secure the loyalty of the Mongol tribes, by opening the road to gain, and to remove every possible occasion of collision. The statement of an increase of commerce may, therefore, be considered as correct.

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The commerce carried on in Kiakta is a mere barter trade. On tea, the principal commodity imported by the Russians, the greatest profits are realized: one account states that what was bought in 1839, at that mart, for $7,000,000, realized $18,000,000 at the fair of Nishney-Novgorod.

Next to Kiakta, the fair of *Irbit*, in the Asiatic district of the government of Perm, is the most important of all Asiatic Russia. The town is situated on the river Irbit, contains about 5,000 inhabitants, and is the entrepôt for Siberian furs and other Asiatic merchandise passing into Europe. The fair is held in January, and is frequented by Russians, Siberians, Bokharians, Armenians, and Greeks. There are large iron works in the vicinity of the town. It is 142 miles northeast of Ekaterinebourg.

Nishney-Novgorod is situated at the junction of the Volga with the Okha, and has a population of about 33,000. The celebrated fair commences the 1st of July, and lasts till the end of August, and is usually attended by more than 300,000 persons from the most distant parts of the empire, and Europe, Asia, Australia, and America. It is regulated by imperial decrees, and the places of sale and purchase of staple commodities have each their respective stations and bazars, where the products, manufactures, goods, wares, and merchandise of almost every country on the globe are to be found. The assemblages of people of all tongues and costumes are more varied at this fair than at any other, consisting of Chinese, Calmucks, Bashkirs, Mongols, Manchus, Bokhars, Indians, Kirghizes, Persians, Georgians, Circassians, Armenians, Parsees, Arabs, Greeks, Jews, Slavonians, Germans, Italians, English, Dutch, Belgians, Danes, Swedes, Americans, Australians, &c. The trade is as various as the crowd is motley, consisting of an endless catalogue of all that is requisite to supply the natural and artificial wants of mankind. The transactions are immense; the aggregate commercial movements of the fair are estimated by Sir George Simpson to amount to between forty and fifty millions of dollars annually.

The Emperor of Russia is devoting his gigantic energies to the promotion and encouragement of agriculture, mining, manufactures, internal trade, foreign commerce, and the development of the resources of the country, by opening new and direct routes of communication by land and water with every part of his European and Asiatic dominions, embracing an aggregate population of about 62,000,000.

By the system of railroads now in progress of construction in Russia, lines are to be extended from St. Petersburg to Moscow, Nishney-Novgorod, on the Wolga, and Casan, on the Casanca, near the Wolga, and another line which is to terminate at the Black sea. The Wolga, 2,500 miles in length, is already united with the Neva, connecting the Baltic and Caspian, and also the route to Siberia and China, all by means of the canal of Vishnei-Volotshok. Several further extensive improvements of the internal navigation by the rivers and canalization of the empire are in progress.

From Nishney-Novgorod steamers descend the Wolga to Casan and Astrakan. In this latter city the Emperor has lately built several steamers for the purpose of plying on the Caspian, and keeping up commercial relations between Russia and Persia, Independent Tartary, and the provinces beyond the Caucasus; thus opening a direct line of communication by railroads and steamers between the principal states of Western and Eastern Europe and Western and Central Asia.

In 1846, the Russian government sent M. Demetrius Wassingen, an attachée of the cabinet of Count Nesselrode, as special envoy to Pekin, for the purpose of negotiating a new secret commercial treaty with China. The Russians are desirous of establishing at Kiakta a considerable depot of merchandise, from which the Chinese may at all times draw the supplies they want. Late advices from the East intimate that the envoy had succeeded in concluding a treaty with the celestial government, securing to the Russians the free admission through that part of the frontier of all Russian merchandise, and moreover the monopoly of certain articles which we and the English are beginning to import, together with the privilege of the free navigation of the great Manchurian river Amúr.

Ever since the first disastrous treaty of 1689 between Russia and China, the Court of Pekin is accustomed to consider the Czars as princes subject to the Celestial Empire. Kang-hi boasted of having humbled the Russians, and praised their submission when they refused to assist his enemy, the prince of the Eleuths. In the Chinese accounts of Russia it is described as the country of Olozu, sending tribute to the celestial Emperor by the way of Kiatou, and the Russian Emperor is styled by them Tsakan Khan, "the white king."

The following rules and regulations, to be observed by embassies to the court of Pekin, are translated from a Chinese court document, known as the *Ta-Tsing Hwui-tien:*

"The countries in the four quarters of the world which send embassies to China, and pay tribute, are Corea, Loo-choo, Laos, Cochin China, Siam, Sulu, Holland, Burmah, and those of the Western ocean; all other countries have only intercourse and commerce.

"When tribute bearers arrive on the frontier, the local officers must report the same to the Emperor; and if the Emperor permits the embassy to proceed, the officer must fix their numbers, grant them gifts, provide them with what is necessary, and if any are sick, show them compassionate charity, and an escort of officers and soldiers to protect them.

"The Chinese and foreign merchants are permitted to trade with each other in such things as they have, regard being had to the established prohibitions. Compassion and charity must be shown to foreigners who are lost by shipwreck, and they must be sent away in safety.

"Foreigners of the western countries, who are skilled in arts, or astronomy, and are willing to go and serve in Pekin, must first be reported by the local officers at the place where they arrive; and on getting a reply, they may be sent, with a safe conductor, to the capital. The following are the countries from which ambassadors have come with tribute to the court of Pekin:

"*Corea.*—Its tribute must be sent once in four years. The number of the embassy allowed is, one ambassador, one deputy, a secretary, three interpreters, and twenty-four men to protect the tribute. The number of servants and others is not fixed, but the imperial bounties are only given to thirty of them.

"*Loo-choo.*—This embassy comes by the way of Fokien, twice in three years. One ambassador, and one deputy: the number of interpreters and servants is not fixed.

" *Cochin China.*—This embassy comes once in two years: there are two or three ambassadors. The assistants may be from four to nine, and the other servants, &c., may be ten or more.

" *Laos.*—This embassy comes by way of Yunnan. The period is once in ten years; and the number composing the embassy cannot exceed one hundred, and those who go to Pekin cannot be more than twenty.

" *Siam.*—This comes by Canton, once in three years. The ambassadors may be two, three, or four: the number who may go to Pekin cannot exceed twenty-six.

" *Sulu.*—Comes by way of Canton and Amoy, once in five or more years: one ambassador, one deputy, one interpreter; but the number of followers is not fixed.

" *Holland.*—The Dutch embassy comes by Canton: it has no fixed time. It may be composed of one or two ambassadors, one head follower, one secretary: the other followers cannot be more than one hundred, and those going to Pekin cannot exceed twenty.

" *Burmah.*—Comes by Yunnan, once in ten years. They must not exceed one hundred, and those going to Pekin cannot exceed twenty.

" The countries of the Western ocean, (Europe,) Portugal, Italy, and England, have no fixed periods. Each embassy cannot have more than three ships, each ship one hundred men; and only twenty-two people are admitted to Pekin."

Among the other nations mentioned are Japan, Acheen, France, and Sweden, which have not brought tribute; and the reason assigned why Mr. Cushing, our commissioner to China in 1844, should not proceed to Pekin, was because the United States had never sent tribute; the Chinese government artfully representing the presents brought by the various Asiatic and European embassies to Pekin as tribute to the Celestial Empire. The first and only Chinese embassy that was ever sent to a European court arrived at St. Petersburg in 1733. The embassy consisted of three mandarins of the second order, and a numerous retinue. Presents were accepted and returned.

3. Manchuria and the river Amur.

Manchuria, or Eastern Chinese Tartary, occupies the vast region subject to China, lying north of Corea, to Siberia, from which it is separated by the chain of the Daourian or Yablonoi-Krebei, " Crab-apple mountains," so called by the Russians from their abounding in a tree bearing a small fruit resembling the *crab apple*. As they approach the Pacific they take the name of the Stannovoi mountains, and extend northeast of Okotsk to Behring's straits. It is bounded on the west from Mongolia by the mountain range of King-Khan-Oola; on the east by the sea of Okotsk, gulf of Tartary, and sea of Japan; on the south by the great wall, barrier of stakes, gulf of Leao-tong, and Yellow sea. Its greatest extent from north to south is about 700 miles, and from east to west about 900 miles, and is situated between 40° and 55° north latitude, and 118° 30′ and 140° east longitude. Population estimated at about 2,000,000.

The territory is divided into three great provinces, viz: to the south, Shing-King, or Moukden, the ancient Leao-tong; in the centre, Kirin-Oola, and the North Kihlung-Keeang or Tsitsikar. The first of these borders on China, Mongolia, and the gulf of Leao-tong; the second on Corea,

the sea of Japan, and gulf of Tartary; and the third on Siberia and Mongolia.

The government of the provinces consists of a supreme government at Moukden, the capital, and three provincial governments. That of Moukden is the same as is in China proper, while that of the other provinces is wholly military. The province of Moukden includes two departments, that of Fungteen-foo, the metropolitan department, and the Hing King, or King chow-foo. These are subdivided into Chow and Heen districts, as in China. The city of Moukden is not under a cheefoo, but one of higher rank, called foo-yuen, who co-operates with one of the boards in the government of the metropolitan department. His assistant has the direction of the literary branch of the administration. The three provinces are under the government of a general, who is always a Manchu. His subordinate officers are lieutenant generals, at the head of each principal division of the province. Subordinate to these are garrison officers, of rank varying according to the importance of the districts under them; these delegate their authority to officers or assistant directors. The frontiers are under a separate class of officers.

The Manchus are divided into eight orders, or distinct classes, which has each a separate colored flag or banner. They belong to the great race called Tungouses by the Russians, and Tartars and Oeven in their own language. *Moukden* is the capital and residence of the supreme civil, and military provincial government; that of the other provinces is wholly military.

The western part of Manchuria is in general a flat country; the immense plains of Mongolia terminate there. This region, and the southern part, called Shing King, are well cultivated, for the Manchus are an agricultural people, and not nomads like the Mongols; and it is in course of rapid settlement by agricultural emigrants from the Chinese province of Shantung.

The land is fertile and produces wheat, *mei-se-mi*, (a grain peculiar to the country, between wheat and rice,) rice, millet, oats, leguminous plants, hemp, tobacco and cotton. The land cultivated by the first Russian settlers on the Albasyne, an affluent of the Amûr, in 1648, still produces grains growing spontaneously from the seed which falls annually from the ears. Immense herds of oxen and flocks of sheep are seen feeding in the valleys. The summers are short, but very hot; the greater part of the fruit trees of Europe, and even tropical productions, are found here. Among the mineral products are copper, iron, agate, and jasper. Valuable pearls are found in several of the rivers and lakes, and in the gulf of Tartary. In Leao-tong there is a species of native oak, upon the leaves of which wild silk-worms feed, and its product forms one of the principal branches of industry in the province.

In the centre, which is generally mountainous, Manchuria is covered with vast primitive forests, abounding with tigers, bears, deer, reindeer, black foxes, ermines, sables, martins, and other wild animals; eagles, condors, vultures, pheasants, and a great variety of birds; they also produce rhubarb and the real ginseng, so highly valued by the Chinese for its supposed strengthening and aphrodisiac qualities, and which the Emperor sells to his subjects for its weight in gold. In the autumn of every year there is a general hunt by a large body of imperial huntsmen, for game, furs, peltries, rhubarb, and ginseng, which are government monopolies. Not-

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withstanding the severest prohibitions, great numbers of Chinese, Manchus, Coreans, and natives, hunt these forests for their own advantage.

The Emperor Kien-lung, in his description of Manchuria, says: "You find a succession of hills and valleys, parched lands and well-irrigated territories, majestic rivers, impetuous torrents, graceful streams, smiling plains, and forests impenetrable to the rays of the sun. The iron mountain and the Ornamented mountain are seen in the distance. On the latter is found a lake which never increases or diminishes. Among the trees of the country are the fir, cypress, accacia, willow, apricot, peach and mulberry. Wheat yields a return of an hundred fold. Ginseng grows in all the mountains; its name signifies the 'queen of plants.' It would make man immortal if he were capable of becoming so. Leao-tong exports large quantities of wheat, peas, rice, and rhubarb."

The rivers of the north, particularly the Amúr and its tributaries, the Songari and Osouri, swarm with beavers, otters, sturgeon, the belouga, salmon, trout, pike, carbel, shad, and a variety of other fish. The belouga, (*sturio huso*) or "white fish," is the largest fresh-water fish that is eatable; it is generally 15 to 25 feet in length, and also abounds in the rivers that fall into the Caspian and Baltic. The flesh is very white, tender, and much esteemed by the Russians. It is eaten fresh, salted, and smoked. Caviar is made from the roe, and isinglass from the intestines.

This river is called Amúr, or Tamur, "Great river," by the Guiliacks, living on its banks near its embouchure; by the Manchus, Saghalien-Oola, "river of Black water;" by the Chinese, He-long-kiang, "river of the Black Dragon;" by the Mongols, Kara-muran, "Black river;" and by the Russians, Yamur. It carries off nearly all the waters of the slopes and the mountains in which the great Asiatic desert, Gobi, or Shamo, terminates towards the east. In its course it forms the boundary between Mongolia and the Siberian district of Nertschinsk; passes through lake Kalun, or Dalai-Nor—about 210 miles in circumference—receives a great number of navigable rivers, and after a winding course of more than 2,280 miles, discharges its waters into the gulf of Saghalien. It is rapid and deep; nine miles wide at its mouth; and is stated by the Jesuit Gerbillon, who explored it by order of the Emperor Kang-hi, to be navigable 500 leagues, as far as Nertschinsk, or Niptchu. The gulf is united with the north Pacific by a strait, which in the narrowest part is about five miles wide, with 20 to 25 feet water on the bar at its entrance. On the southern banks of the river are some small towns, penal settlements of the Chinese.

The Kerolon and Onon, upper tributaries of the Amúr, rise near each other, on opposite sides of the Kenti range, in Mongolia; the former falls into lake Kerolon, or Dalai-Nor, and the Onon into the Chilka, at Nertschinsk. It has its sources in the Bourkhen-Oola, or "Divine mountain," near which the great Mongolian hero and conqueror, Jenghis-Khan, was born, A. D. 1154, and where he first distinguished himself in his youth. By some geographers it is considered as the true source of the Amúr.

The Amúr is the most valuable river in Northern Asia; the only highway of nature that directly connects the central steppes of Asia with the rest of the world. The extent of the rivers which disembogue at its mouth, is amazing; the principal towns of Manchuria, and several places in Mongolia, are accessible by them; they extend to upwards of thirty degrees of longitude. By its position with respect to the sea of Japan, a

settlement at or near its embouchure would open a new and most profitable trade with Manchuria, Central Asia, Siberia, the Japanese islands, Corea, &c.

There appear to be no insurmountable obstacles to a direct communication being opened between the Pacific and Baltic, and with the Caspian and Black seas, by the route of this river and the navigable waters of Siberia. The Amúr is navigable from the Pacific to its junction with its upper affluents, the Argun and Chilka. From the Chilka to the Selenga, Mr. Cottrell, a late English traveller in Siberia, states there is a constant succession of navigable rivers, with occasional rapids and shallows—in all, perhaps 20 miles—which might easily be got rid of at no very heavy expense. A road would be required to be made across the Yablonoï mountains, which at this point are not very elevated. The vicinity abounds with fine forests of oak, and other woods fit for building vessels; and iron and cordage are the products of the country. The Selengá falls into the Baikal lake, from which the magnificent Angará takes its rise. The only cataracts almost in any Siberian river are found in it between Irkoütsk and Yénéseisk, but these are even now easily passed. At the town of Yéné-seisk, a second land journey of 60 miles must be made as far as the town of Makoísk, on the Ket, which, although a winding river, is navigable to the point where it falls into the Oby. By means of this, the deepest and broadest of all Siberian rivers, and the Irtysch, no impediment would occur as far as Tobolsk, from whence the Tobole, Tura, and Nitsa communicate with the great depots of salt at Krasnoslobodsk. Here would be the third and last difficulty—a line of communication with the river Tchurovaia, to the west of the Ural, 186 miles. This river falls into the Kama, and that into the Wolga, from which there are now three different communications by water with St. Petersburg, the gulf of Finland, and the Baltic. So that there appear to be but 266 miles between the north Pacific and Baltic, where a canal and roads are necessary to complete the communication. The Wolga is already connected with the Caspian and Black seas by a system of canals and navigable rivers, completed in 1803. Russia also communicates with Persia and Turkestan, from Astrakan, on the Caspian; and from the Black sea with Turkey, Asia Minor, Circassia, and Georgia.

The Songari is a deep and navigable stream, the largest tributary of the Amúr, into which it enters in latitude 48° N., and is considered by the Manchus and Chinese as the principal river. It has its source in the "Long White mountain," called by the former Golmin chan-yan-alin, and by the latter Shan-pe-shan, on account of its white appearance, the summit being covered with snow in winter, and white mists in summer. This mountain extends along the northern coast of the Yellow sea, and forms the northern boundary of Corea and Manchuria. It has become famous in China as the birth-place of Aigen Kioro, or "Golden Kioro," the founder of the present imperial Manchu dynasty, whose ancient dwelling, on the eastern slope of the mountain, has been preserved with religious care. It is regarded with superstitious veneration by the Manchus and Chinese, and annually visited by crowds of pilgrims from the remotest parts of the empire, to offer sacrifices and burn incense at its shrine.

The Ousouri rises east of the Songari, and after receiving a considerable number of large streams, falls into the Amúr in latitude 49°. It is remarkable for the purity and transparency of its waters, and the variety and excellence of its fish.

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The nomad tribe, called by the Chinese Yu pe-tahtsi, "people dressed in fish-skins," inhabit the banks of the Songari, Ousouri, and their tributaries. They follow fishing and hunting, and sell to the Chinese their furs and fish. The trade is carried on in winter; the fish, which is then frozen, supplies the markets at more than 500 miles distance. They receive in exchange cottons, rice, and brandy extracted from millet. They have a language of their own. Their States are independent of the Emperor of China, and they do not allow any strangers upon their territory. To the southward of the Yu-pe-tahtsi, on the coast, near the frontier of Corea, lies a country called Ta-Tchoo-Soo, a kind of border land, whither resort a crowd of Chinese and Corean vagabonds; some driven by the spirit of independence, others to escape from the punishment due to their misdeeds. They have chosen a chief, and form a community of outlaws.

A considerable tract of country north of the Amúr, in Manchuria and Siberia, on the gulf of Okotsk, and on the coast to the westward of its mouth, is occupied by nomad tribes of Guiliacks, of the Tungousan, and Poukeys, Manchapotonos, and Katchells, of the Ainos races, that subsist by hunting and fishing, and come annually, at a fixed period, to trade with the Manchus, at a small town near the mouth of the river called Tsetalcho, and exchange their furs, peltries, and dried fish, for cotton cloth, tea, flour, grain, tobacco, &c. They pay no tribute either to the Chinese or Russian government, and do not allow the Manchus and Chinese to come amongst them. The Guiliacks are said to use tamed bears for draught, like the dogs and reindeer among the Samoyedes and Kamtschatkadales.

According to Professor Von Middendorf, who explored the country on a scientific tour in 1844, these tribes belong to different races; one Kurilian or Mongolian, and the other Caucasian. He spent four months amongst them, studied with interest their manners, customs, and the developments of their industry, and compiled copious vocabularies of their languages. A resumé of the scientific results of the professor's travels is published in the Bulletin of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, vol. 4, 1845.

The Lea-ho rises in the King-kan mountains, and after a winding course of about 500 miles, falls into the gulf of Leao-tong. The Yalu has its sources in the Golmin chan-yan-alin, and falls into the Yellow sea. There are several other smaller rivers that discharge their waters into the same sea and the gulf of Tartary.

Salmon and herring are said, by La Peyrouse, to be nowhere so abundant as on the east coast of Manchuria; cod also are found, but not taken in such quantities. Whales are numerous, and seals and fur seals, sea-lions, and sea-otters, are very frequent. The gulf of Tartary, which separates the island of Tarakay from the continent, is about 200 miles wide at its most southern extremity; but it grows narrower as we advance further north, until near 52°, where the island is connected with the main land by a sand bank, or low, narrow neck of land, without any navigable communication between the gulfs of Saghalien and Tartary. The narrowest part of the gulf is called by the Japanese Mamia no-Sseto, or "strait of Mamia."

The east coast of Manchuria is generally high and rocky. Castrie's bay, in 51° 29', near the northern extremity of the gulf of Tartary, was visited by La Peyrouse during the summer season, and he represents it

to be one of the best harbors on the coast, with good anchorage in five to twelve fathoms. He found the climate delightful and the country fertile, reminding him of that beautiful France, to which he was never destined to return. The forests were filled with fur animals and game; fine streams of water fell into the bay, which swarmed with salmon and a great variety of fish. He also visited and named Ternay bay, in 45° 13′, and Suffren bay, in 47° 51′, on the same coast, both possessing good harbors.

In 1643, when the Manchus were engaged in the conquest of China, an armed band of Russian Promuschlenicks, or fur hunters, under the command of the Cossack Poyarkov, allured by the hope of finding rich silver mines, and abundance of fur animals, which were reported to exist in Manchuria, crossed the Yablonoi mountains from Siberia, and descended the Tchirkiri-oola, a tributary of the Amúr, to its junction with that river, which they explored to its embouchure in the gulf of Saghalien. They did not, however, succeed in the discovery of any mines of the precious metals, but found the forests filled with a great variety of fur animals, and they collected a valuable *yassak*,* or tribute of furs, from the natives.

The successful enterprise of these fur trading adventurers encouraged another company of Promuschlenicks, from the Siberian frontier town of Nertschinsk, to descend the Amúr, in 1648, on which they erected a line of stockades, at Yaska and Kamarski-ostrog, and built and fortified the town of Albasyne, on the river Albasyne, near its junction with the Amúr, and remained in possession of the country.

These successive incursions, and military occupation of northern Manchuria by the Russian fur traders, involved them in frequent hostilities with the Chinese, which were not terminated until 1689, when they were compelled to surrender their settlements to a large military force which was sent by the Emperor Kang-hi, accompanied by two jesuits, Gerbillon and Parennin, as his envoys, to recover possession of the country. A treaty was concluded at Nertschinsk on the 7th September, in the same year, between Russia and China, making the rivers Kerbechi and Argun, which fall into the Amúr, and the long chain of mountains extending below their sources to the Pacific ocean, the boundaries between the two empires; but without defining the boundary of the country lying between these mountains and the river Ud, in Siberia. The former was granted permission to send a caravan of merchandise every year to Pekin; and also for a certain number of Russians to reside there. The Russian settlements on the Amúr, and its tributary rivers, were broken up, and the survivors sent to Pekin, where some of their descendants still remain, and have preserved their religion.

The vexed question of boundary caused frequent disputes between the courts of Pekin and St. Petersburg, which were not finally adjusted until the treaty of 14th June, 1728. By this definitive treaty, the extensive line of demarcation separating the two greatest empires of the world commences, at the west, in Mongolia, on the river Buktuima, an affluent of the Irtysch, and terminates at the sea of Okotsk, on the east. It is 3,000

*The word "yassak" is used in Siberia, Persia, and India, to denote the tribute levied in those countries upon tribes who do not profess the dominant religion. It comes from the ancient Turkish and Tartar languages, and signifies "the law."

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miles in length in all its windings, 10 to 30 yards wide, and was traced and surveyed by the joint commission of the Russian and Chinese plenipotentiaries, and 87 boundary monuments were erected thereon, at certain distances, bearing inscriptions in Chinese, Mongolian, Manchu, and Russian.

By the 5th article of the treaty, a Russian mission or college, composed of six priests and four laymen, was established at Pekin, for teaching the above languages. A chapel was built, by the aid of the Chinese, for the celebration of the ritual of the Greek church; and the mission is changed every ten years. Kiakta and Maimatchin, and the small Siberian town of Zurukaitu, on the river Argun, were made entrepôts of the Russian trade with China.

Difficulties having subsequently arisen between the two governments, occasioned principally by marauding parties and the escape of criminals across the frontier, a new convention was concluded 18th October, 1768, between the plenipotentiaries of Kieng-lung and Catharine II, for the reciprocal extradition of fugitives from either country, and the establishment of a line of military posts to guard the frontier. In 1785 the commercial relations between Kiakta and Maimatchin were interrupted by the depredations on the frontiers, and not resumed until 1792, when the treaty of 1728 was renewed, and the commercial intercourse has been carried on ever since with remarkable perseverance and success.

Hoong tchoong, a seaport on the Yellow sea, near the frontier of Corea, is famous through the country for a branch trade which is extended through the whole empire; this is the *Hay-chay*, a marine plant which is taken in immense quantities on the sea of Japan, a short distance from the shore. A fair is held at this place every two years, which is frequented by great numbers of Chinese for the purpose of traffic with the Coreans. They bring dogs, cats, pipes, leather, stags' horns, copper, horses, mules, and asses, and receive in exchange, baskets, kitchen furniture, rice, corn, swine, paper, mats, oxen, furs, and small horses highly prized for their speed. The exchange of merchandise is made at Kee-eu-wen, the nearest town to Corea, at the distance of 20 miles from Hoong-tchoong. There exists a very strong hatred between the two nations, in consequence of the Chinese having many years since entered the peninsula of Corea and carried off numbers of women and children.

A considerable trade is carried on with China, by land and sea, from the port of *Kin chow*, about 45 miles from Moukden; and also with Corea by land, and through the islands of the Potocki Archipelago, dependencies of the town of Ning-hai-hian, lying off the east coast of Leao-tong, which is called by the English "Prince Regent's Sword." The maritime trade with China, according to Gutzlaff, is principally conducted by Fokien traders, employs upwards of 1,000 junks, and is of the average annual value of 7,000,000 tales. (A tale = $1 54.)

Kirin, the metropolis of the province of the same name, is the principal mart of trade in Manchuria. It is situated on the western bank of the river Songari, which in that part is called Kirin-oola, whence it takes its name, for Kirin-oola-hotun signifies "city of the river Kirin." A chain of mountains, from west to east, shelters it against the cold winds of the north. Like most Chinese cities, it contains nothing remarkable; it is an irregular collection of cabins, built of brick or clay, covered with straw,

with only a ground floor. It is inhabited by Manchus and Chinese, and contains, according to the statement of a Catholic missionary in 1845, about 150,000 inhabitants. Kirin is a place of great commercial activity; possesses warehouses for furs and peltries of every kind, cotton cloths, silks, artificial flowers, with which the women of every class deck their heads; and depots of timber for building, which is brought from the extensive imperial forests in the district.

In this district is a small lake, about 20 miles in breadth, celebrated throughout the country for the quantity of pearls which are fished in it for the Emperor of China. They call it Hay-choo, or Hing-choo-men, "black lake," or "the precious stone gate." There are also several other lakes in Manchuria.

The Chinese and Manchu officers and soldiers stationed in Tsitsikar, and the fortified towns of Meyhen-hotun, Nicurgi-hotun, and Saghalien-oola-hotun, in this district, have grown very rich and powerful, and carry on a very profitable commerce with China, whilst the natives are, for the most part, kept in a state of slavery and subjection under them.

The Chinese and Manchus, although inhabiting for the last two centuries within the same enclosed ramparts, and speaking the same language, have not amalgamated; each possesses its genealogy apart. Thus, at meeting in an inn when travelling, or addressing a stranger, nothing is more common than this question: "Neshee-ming-jeu Khee-jeu?" "Are you Chinese, or Manchu?" They distinguish the former by the dynasty of the *Ming*, and that of the latter by the name of *Banner*, each Manchu rallying under his own proper standard or banner. They generally profess the religion of Budha.

On the public roads communicating with the principal towns, there are inns at stated distances for the refreshment of travellers, kept by Chinese, called Hoang-koong-tzay, "people without family," who are employed in hunting and searching for ginseng.

The military town of *Petouné hotun* is situated on the Songari, about 130 miles north of Kirin. It is a place of little note, princially inhabited by exiles from China.

Ningouta-hotun lies on the river Houka-pira, which falls into the Songari. It is regarded as the ancient patrimony of the reigning Emperor of China. The name Ningouta signifies "seven chiefs," from the seven brothers of one of his ancestors, who, after uniting their families, built this town, and extended their authority over the country eastward to the Amûr. It is the residence of a general, commanding the district.

Ching-yang-foo, or *Moukden*, the seat of the territorial government or principality of Manchuria, and the headquarters of the military governor of the province, is built on an eminence. A number of rivers add much to the fertility of the surrounding country. It may be considered as a double city, one of which is enclosed within the other. The Manchus have been at great pains to ornament it with several public edifices, and to provide it with magazines of arms and storehouses. About 4,000 troops are usually stationed here. It is distinguished for its academy of learned men, and as the old capital of the Manchu empire, which was founded in 1618 by Abkaï Foulinga, whose Chinese title of honor in the hall of his ancestors was Khien-ming, "favored of Heaven."

The Emperor Kien-lung, like his illustrious European contemporary, Frederick the Great, was equally distinguished as a scholar and poet.

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Among his literary productions a Chinese "Ode on Tea," and a Manchu poem in "Praise of Moukden," are the most celebrated. In the latter the Emperor commemorates the mythic origin of his race and kingdom to "a celestial virgin, youngest daughter of Heaven, who abode in ancient times on the summit of the long White mountain, by lake Timoun, from whence descend the rivers Yalou, Khountung and Aikhou, that water and fertilize the plains through which they flow. This goddess having partaken of a red fruit of most enticing appearance, conceived and brought forth a holy son, on whom Heaven bestowed the name of Kioro, and by way of pre eminence, Aigen, 'golden,' or 'golden Kioro.' When by great and unceasing efforts he had succeeded in the purification and renovation of his kingdom, he acquired the countries of Yekhé, Khouifa, Dchaifan, and Fousi. He afterwards founded a city in the country of Liao yang, which became the capital of the kingdom of the East. The happiness he enjoyed by Divine favor having increased, and his desires expanding, in the tenth year of the 'Providence of Heaven,' being fearful of danger, he established his dominion in the centre. He prospered in the country of Ching yang, on which good fortune had lavished its choicest favors, and there built the city of Moukden, which closed and defended the passes to the countries of the west." This Aigen Kioro is considered by the present dynasty in China not only their first ancestor, but the founder of the nation. The reigning imperial family also take the surnames of Poulkouri and Yongchon, which had been adopted by their ancestor, Aigen Kioro.

Hingching, 60 miles east of Moukden, in the same province, is the family residence of the Manchu monarchs and the burial ground of their ancestors. It is pleasantly situated in a mountain valley, and the tombs are upon a mountain three miles north of it. The town is situated near the palisade which separates the province from Kirin, and its officers have the rule over the surrounding country, and the entrances into that province. A large garrison is maintained there, which, with the salubrity of the air, has attracted a considerable population.

The Manchus are stouter and of a lighter complexion than the Chinese: they have the same conformation of the eyelids, but rather more beard, and their countenances present greater intellectual capacity. They seem to partake of both the Mongol and Chinese character, possessing more determination and largeness of plan than the latter, with much of the rudeness and haughtiness of the former. Barrow states that those of the Manchus whom he saw at Pekin had fair and florid complexions; a few had blue eyes, straight or aquiline noses, brown hair and heavy beards; the Emperor Kienlung, himself, had some of these characteristics. Mr. Williams, in "The Middle Kingdom," regards them as "the most improvable race in Central Asia, if not on the continent; and the skill with which they have governed the Chinese empire, and the improvement which they have made in their own condition, during the same time, give promise of still further advances when they become familiar with the civilization of Christian lands."

The languages of all the tribes of the Tungousan race have a great similarity in words and construction; and it appears there is a relationship between them and the language of the Mongols and Turks, as well as some languages of Eastern Europe, especially the Slavonian and Finnish.

The Manchu language has an alphabet of 28 primitive or radical letters, each with two or three variations, forming, according to the "Alphabet Mantchou" of L. Langles, a syllabary of about 1,400 groups. The character is identical with the Mongolian, and both are supposed to be derived from the Oigourian of the Oigoors, whose letters were the same with, or merely variations of, those called Tangoutan, and were first introduced among the Mongols during the reign of Jenghis Khan. It is written in columns, from the top of the page downwards, like the Chinese, with which, however, neither it nor the language bears any affinity or resemblance.

Although the Manchus have but one kind of character, there are four different ways of writing it: the first is when they write with respect, in addressing the Emperor, or high officers of his court; it is larger than the ordinary character, and written with the greatest precision and elegance. The second is less elaborate. The third is the ordinary running hand in general use. These three modes of writing are equally legible, but not equally beautiful. The fourth is a more concise and abbreviated character, for minutes and extracts.

What is most singular in this language is, that the verbs are changed as often as the substantives governed by the verb are different; as, for instance, the verb *to make* must be changed as often as the substantive that follows it: we say, "to make verses," "make a noise," "make" a statue, table, chair, clock, &c. Such modes of expression are not permitted by them; if they make use of the verb in familiar conversation, it is pardonable, but they never suffer it in composition, not even in their ordinary writings. They cannot bear the repetition of the same word in two consecutive lines, and never use pronouns, having little occasion for them; the arrangement of their words alone supplies this deficiency, without leaving any obscurity or ambiguity.

The language is remarkable for the great number of expressions it furnishes for the abbreviation of discourse, and to express the nature, qualities, properties, and attributes of persons and objects, animate and inanimate. Very short words convey, with the greatest precision and perspicuity, ideas which, without their assistance, could not be expressed but by very long phrases. This is particularly observable when they speak of animals, whether domestic or wild, aquatic or volatile, which could only be exactly described by circumlocution in the languages of western nations. As, for example, the dog: besides the common names of every species of dog, they have words which denote the age, color, particular marks, skin, hair, height, figure, size, speed, good and bad qualities, &c. The same of a horse, an animal so useful to them, and for which they have a great predilection, they have invented terms still more multiplied than the dog; as, for example, "being tied up, he cannot stand still;" "fond of company;" "frightened at the fall of his rider;" "suddenly encountering a wild beast;" "with a rider on his back;" his action, pace, speed; "how many different shakes he gives his rider," &c.: for these, and a great many other locutions, they have a single, appropriate word, to express. It is much easier to acquire than the Chinese, and is likewise the court language at Pekin.

They have no national literature; most of the books published in the language are translations from Chinese, made under the superintendence of the imperial academies of Pekin and Moukden. The illustrious and

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learned Kang-hi, one of the ablest sovereigns that ever sat on the throne of China, compiled a dictionary under the title of "Mirror of the Manchu Language," and translated into this, his vernacular idiom, the history of China, and the classic books of Confucius, which he published in 1708. In his dictionary the words are distributed into several classes. The first treats of the heavens; the second, of time; the third, of the earth; the fourth, of the emperor, government, ceremonies, customs, music, books, war, hunting, man, drinking, eating, silks, cloth, dress, labor, workmen, instruments, barks, corn, herbs, birds, animals, wild and domestic, fishes, reptiles, &c. Each of these classes is divided into chapters and articles; all the words are written in capitals, and under each are found, in smaller characters, the definition, explanation, and usual meaning of the word.

These works were revised, augmented, and republished by his grandson, Kien-lung, in 1772. All Manchu candidates for office are compelled to study both languages, and must submit to rigid examinations in both, before they can be promoted.

The study of Manchu is cultivated in Russia. At St. Petersburg and Cazan, various works in the language, including grammars and dictionaries, have been published within a few years past. At the university of Cazan there are professorships of Manchu and the principal oriental languages. The "Bibliotheque Royale" of Paris contains a large collection of Manchu books and manuscipts. The acquisition of the language is greatly facilitated by the "Alphabet Mantchou," above mentioned, in 8vo., and the "Dictionnaire Manchou-Français," in 3 vols. 4to., by M. Amyot, in which the words are arranged and classified according to the plan of the "Mirror of the Manchu Language;" and the "Dictionnaire Mandchou-Français," by Klaproth.

The latest information we possess respecting Manchuria is derived from the report of the Rt. Rev. Dr. Ferréol, vicar apostolic of Corea and the Loo-choo islands, to his superiors, published in the "Annales de la Propagation de la Foi," for May, 1846.

4. Island of Tarakay, or Saghalien.

Tarakay is usually represented on the maps and described in geographical works as Saghalien. By the aboriginal inhabitants, the Ainos, it is called Sandan; by the Manchus, Saghalien-anga-hata, "the island of the mouth of the Black river," because it is opposite the mouth of the Amúr; and by the Japanese Oku-yeso, "further Yeso," Tchoka, Chish, and Karafouto. The Chinese call the natives Olunchun, Kooyeh, and Feyak.

In "Grosier's General Description of China," it is called Saghalien-Oola; and he states that the only knowledge the Chinese had of it was derived from the Katchell tribes inhabiting the banks of the Amúr, near its mouth. In his map of China, Chinese Tartary, and the countries conquered by China, Tarakay is described as Saghalien-oola-hata, "Island of the Black river," belonging to Russia.

This island is situated in the northern Pacific, and extends from south of 46° to 54° 20′ north latitude, and between 142° and 145° east longitude, along the eastern coast of Manchuria, with which it is connected near 51° 30′ by a sand-bank or low narrow neck of land separating the gulf of Tartary from the gulf of Saghalien. The latter is a circular

basin 50 miles wide, which receives the waters of the river Amúr, and is called by Kruzenstern the Liman of the Amúr, having its outlet in the sea of Okotsk by a channel about five miles wide, near the north part of the island. On the southern extremity it is divided from the Japanese island of Yeso by the strait of La Peyrouse, about 18 miles wide, and in which the tide runs with great velocity. It is nearly 600 miles in length, and varies in breadth from 25 to 120 miles.

In 1643 two Dutch vessels, the ship Kastirkom, commanded by Martin Gertin Devries, and the yacht Breskins, under the command of Hendrick Cornelius Schaep, were sent by Anthony Von Dieman, governor general of Batavia, to explore the northern seas of Japan, and were the first European navigators that visited the island. They supposed it to be part of the continent of Asia, and described it as the land of *Eso* or *Yeso*, the name originally given to all the islands lying between Kamtschatka and Japan, and they called the Kurile islands *Company's land*, (Urup.) They discovered and named Aniva bay and Patience bay. The natives were friendly and hospitable; exchanged their furs, fish, oil, &c., with the Japanese for cloth, trinkets, &c.; wore valuable silver ornaments, and informed them there were several mines of that metal in the country.

By the Japanese and Chinese accounts it would appear they have a very imperfect knowledge of the island, which does not form a part or dependency either of Japan or China. Rensifee Sendai, one of the most eminent Japanese geographers, gives a brief description of the island in his *San-kokf-tsou-ran-to-sets*, or "General Outlines of the Three Kingdoms," published at Yedo in 1786, with an introduction written by Katsouri-Gava, court physician, commending the work to the favorable notice of the Siogoon. The author states in his preface that he resided several years in the island of Yeso, where he drew a map of that and the adjacent islands and countries, which agrees in the most essential particulars with those that had been previously published by his countrymen, Faksikf and Kanefori. In his description of the island of Yeso he gives the following account of Tarakay:

"To the north of Yeso there is another country, separated from its northwestern point by a strait 6 to 7 ri* wide, called the island of Karafouto, or Karafto, but its true name is Taraïkai, or Tarakai. There are 22 villages on it, and it is 300 ri in circuit. The author cannot, however, vouch for the accuracy of this statement, for several geographers simply call the country an Island on the coast of Eastern Tattan, (Tartary.) Beyond the inhabited part there is a long rocky promontory trending in a southwestern direction seaward, as may be seen by the map. Doctor Faksikf calls this country Yetso in his map of the world; and it is also called Karafouto and Naroubusi. Towards the northwest is a rugged chain of lofty and steep mountains, over which there is no practicable route. Beyond this chain to the northwest is the country of Santan and the Matsiou. We have no precise knowledge of Santan: the Matsiou are the Manchus of the Chinese, and this country does not appear to be far from Karafouto."

In the Japanese map of the world, to which Sendai refers, Tarakay is represented as forming part of Manchuria; the Amúr is called the great river Amuri-gawa, or Sagarïian, separating Yéroppa (Europe) from Aziya,

* A degree at the equator contains 21½ Japanese ri.

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(Asia,) and is placed several degrees to the north of this island, having the island of Sagarïan at its embouchure, and to the eastward of Kamtschatka, the country of the Orosya, (Russians.) He describes Tarakay as entirely independent of Japan, and states that "the natives send their young men among the Manchus and Yesoites to learn the languages of those countries, so as to become qualified to carry on trade with them. At Karafouto, the principal village, the Yesoites receive in exchange for the productions of their country, blue glass, eagles' wings, tobacco pipes, silk stuffs embroidered with dragons, satin dresses, cloths of various colors, and cotton goods. The blue glass, as well as eagles' wings, which come from Karafouto, are also found in Yeso; the tobacco pipes, on the contrary, are of Tartar workmanship, as they bear inscriptions in Manchu letters. These goods are procured from Pekin by the Manchus, and brought to Karafouto, and are frequently received at Matsmay by the Yesoites."

"In the sea between Karafouto and Yeso there are many hidden sand-banks and thousands of rocks, which make the two routes to it by sea extremely difficult; and on this account the commerce between the two countries has always been inconsiderable. To the east of Karafouto is the high sea; to the northwest lies Tartary, but at what distance is not positively known. From thence they bring green and blue beads, eagles' wings, and the stuffs worn by the Yesoites; the designs of these stuffs resemble those manufactured in China, from whence they are probably brought into Tartary. Karafouto, although so near to Yeso, is separated from it by a very rapid current, rendering the passage between the two countries extremely dangerous. In the sea to the east of Yeso is the Archipelago called by the Japanese Tsi-Sima, or "thousand islands,' (the Kuriles,) as may be seen on the map of that country. It consists of 37 islands. The inhabitants of Yeso frequent two of them, which are called Kounaziri (Kunachair) and Yedorofu," (Iturup.)

One of the Japanese names for Tarakay is Oku-Yeso, "Interior Yeso;" and in Kempfer's and other contemporaneous maps of Japan, it is represented as forming part of Tartary, and separated from Kamtschatka by a narrow strait. The fact of Yeso and Tarakay being separate islands remained doubtful until 1787, when La Peyrouse sailed through the strait now bearing his name, to the north of Yeso, the discovery of which first established with Europeans their separation from each other.

The island is naturally divided into three tracts: the mountainous, which occupies the southern portion; the level, in the middle; and the hilly tract, which extends over the northern districts. The mountain region is the largest, and comprehends more than one-half of the island, terminating on the north at cape Délisle de la Croyère, near 51° north latitude. A chain of mountains begins at cape Crillion, and continues in an uninterrupted line northward to an elevated summit called peak Benizel, where it seems to be united to another and lower chain, which traverses the eastern peninsula, and encloses the bay of Aniva on the east. Cape Aniva is formed by a high isolated hill, which is connected by a low isthmus with a chain of hills which lie further north, and joins the principal range of peak Benizel. Further north occur other summits, as peak Lemanon, peak Mongez, and mount Tiara; the two last mentioned are north of 50° north latitude. None of these summits have been measured, but their elevation probably does not exceed 5,000 feet above the

level of the sea. Along the western coast the mountains in some places come close up to the water's edge, but a narrow level tract generally separates them from the shore, and this tract is covered with high trees, while the declivities of the mountains are mostly bare, probably owing to the rapidity of their slope. Extensive flats occur at Aniva bay and the bay of Patience. The low country which skirts the shore on the eastern side of the mountains appears to be more extensive and less interrupted than that along the western shores. On the eastern side the shore in some places is level and low, and in others elevated. The country extending from 51° to 53° north latitude is so low that the shores are not visible at the distance of five or six miles, and it is sandy and overgrown with bushes. The interior is in general level, partly sandy and partly swampy, and a greater part of it is covered with short bushes, or small trees. A number of low sand-hills are dispersed over the country, which are destitute of trees, and appear like islands in a sea of verdure. The hilly part occupies the most northern part of the island, or that which extends from 53° north latitude to cape Elizabeth. The coast is, in general, high and steep, being mostly composed of perpendicular white cliffs. There are only a few tracts in which the coast sinks down to the level of the sea; and here the villages of the natives are built. The interior consists of a succession of high hills, covered with lofty trees to the very summit; the valleys which intervene between them are partly wooded, and partly covered with a fine close turf. This part of Tarakay seems to possess a considerable degree of fertility.

The forests consist of oak, maple, birch, medlar, willow, but chiefly pine and fir. Large tracts are covered with juniper trees. Gooseberries, raspberries, and strawberries abound, and also wild celery and watercresses. The wild animals are chiefly sables, foxes, martins, deer, and bears. The sea supplies the inhabitants with the means of subsistence in a great variety of fish. Whales are numerous on the coast, hitherto little frequented by whalers, and train-oil is an article of export.

The inhabitants are aborigines of the Ainos race, and have settlements on different points of the coast. They are represented by La Peyrouse to be very superior in bodily strength to the Japanese, Chinese, and Manchus; their features are more regular, and more nearly resembling the form of Europeans. They are called by the Japanese Mozia; are mild, peaceable, generous, and warmly attached to each other; are very honest, well-disposed, and bear an excellent character with the Japanese. They worship the sun, moon, the sea, a God of the heavens, and believe in the existence of the devil. They have no writing or money in use among them, but keep their reckoning on sticks of wood.

The Japanese have the two trading establishments of Salmon-Trout bay and Tamary-Aniva, on *Aniva bay*, at the southern extremity of the island, from which the southern islands of Japan are supplied with furs, peltries, seal-skins, dried fish, whale oil, &c., and give in return lackered wooden eating and drinking vessels, tobacco and tobacco pipes, kitchen utensils, rice, coarse cotton cloth, trinkets, &c. Tobacco is a staple article of traffic, and always in great request among the various tribes of the Ainos and Tungousan races. Kruzenstern saw immense quantities of whales in Aniva bay. Salmon and a variety of other fish are caught in great abundance, and cured here by the Ainos fishermen in the service of the Japanese. The shores are covered with crabs and oysters; several large

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streams of fresh water flow into the bay, and the adjacent forests abound in game and fur-bearing animals. The fishery and trade with the natives, which is of the greatest importance to the inhabitants of Japan, was formerly free, but is now an imperial monopoly, yielding large profits to the government, and is the source of great dissatisfaction to the people of northern Japan. Cape Aniva is in latitude 46° north, and longitude 145° 60′. They have no other settlement on the island, nor do they frequent any other part of it. No Chinese authorities have ever been seen there, nor is it enumerated among the possessions of the Chinese. According to the erudite Klaproth, Tarakay is not under the dominion of Manchurian China, as was once supposed, for it is entirely omitted in the great Chinese government geographical description of the empire, published at Pekin in 1790, and translated by him; and it does not appear that the Russians have ever made any trading settlement on the island, which has been rarely visited by their vessels or those of any other European nation.

La Peyrouse spent three months in exploring the gulf of Tartary, as far as the fine bay on the coast of Manchuria, which he named *Castrie's bay*, inhabited by a tribe of Orotches. He ascertained satisfactorily from the natives that there is no navigable communication between that gulf and the estuary of the Amúr, called the gulf of Saghalien. About 30 miles to the north of that bay they assured him there is a sand-bank, or low neck of land, over which the traders, who descend the Amúr to traffic with the natives of the gulf of Tartary, are obliged to drag their canoes. They called the island of Tarakay, Tchoka. He discovered three good harbors, or roadsteads, on the northwest coast of the island, to which he gave the respective names of *Langle's bay*, 47° 49′, *Estaing bay*, 48° 59′, and *Jonquiere bay*.

Patience bay, 49° north latitude, and 146° east longitude, on the southwest of the island, is very extensive, and well adapted for a whaling and trading station. One of the most eligible locations for the establishment of a trading mart is on its northern extremity, at *Nodeshla bay*, lying between capes Elizabeth and Maria, in 54° 24′ north latitude, and 142° east longitude. There is a lake of fresh water in its vicinity, into which several fine streams empty. The neighborhood is represented by Kruzenstern to be delightful, and the surrounding mountains covered with fine forest trees. It has a good and safe roadstead, with many local advantages for such a settlement; is situated within about one degree of the outlet of the estuary of the great Manchurian river Amúr, which he explored, and found to be 5 miles wide, 3½ to 4 fathoms depth on the bar, and the water perfectly fresh for some distance at sea. Kruzenstern also states that the northwest coast of the island is infinitely preferable to the southwest: between the mountains, which are entirely overgrown to their summits with the thickest forests, there are valleys covered with luxuriant grass, and very capable of cultivation.

Whales are very abundant in the Japanese seas, which are now much frequented by our whalers during the summer months; rendering it most desirable that some arrangements be speedily made, under the sanction of our government, with the independent chiefs of this island for the privilege of frequenting any of its bays and harbors, except Aniva bay, by American whale ships, for wood, water, provisions, recruitment or repairs, and for traffic with the natives.

By our convention with Russia, (see appendix B,) we possess, in com-

mon with that power, the right of navigation of the northern Pacific, and of fishing and resorting to any of the coasts of northeastern Asia, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives.

5. Russian and Japanese Kurile Islands, &c.

The Archipelago of the Kuriles consists of 22 islands, including Yeso, and is about 600 miles in extent, connecting the peninsula of Kamtschatka with the island of Niphon. The northern islands were first discovered and occupied by the Russians in 1713. They derive their name from the Russian word kuril, "to smoke," from the smoking volcanoes on some of the islands. They are naturally divided into two chains: one lying south of the Boussole strait, in 46° 30′ north latitude; the other to the north of it. The southern chain is called the Greater Kuriles, and more properly belongs to Japan; but several of the islands have been successively occupied by the Russians for trading with the natives, and they even claim, in common with the Japanese, Kunachir, Urup, and Iturup. The northern chain, embracing islands No. 1 to No. 16, called the Little Kuriles, are dependencies of Kamtschatka, and are comprehended in the Russian government of Eastern Siberia. Most of the natives of this chain have been baptised, and are occasionally visited by Russian missionaries of the Greek church. The population is about 1,400.

The Kuriles are called by the Japanese Tsu sima, and also Kooroomitsi; the latter signifying "road of sea-weeds," from the great abundance of the *fucus saccharinus*, or "sea-cabbage," an article of food in general use among all classes, with which they abound. They are thinly inhabited by tribes of Ainos, are mostly uncultivated, and abound in valuable fur animals. The natives subsist by hunting, fishing, and catching whales.

The following islands of the chain belong to Russia:

No. 1. The nearest Kurile island to Kamtschatka is called *Shoumtshu*. The channel between Lopatka and this island is about 10 miles in breadth. The length of the island, from northeast to southwest, is 34 miles, and the breadth about 20 miles. It is a flat island, with moderate ridges of hills, and watered throughout, and has a small lake nearly in the centre. It is rich in minerals, but is chiefly visited for the sea-otter and red fox, with which it abounds; its salmon is in much request.

No. 2. The second island is called *Poromuchir*, between which and the former island is a strait three quarters of a mile in breadth. It lies from northeast to southwest, and is twice as large as the first island. It is hilly and well watered; has no timber, but has valuable mines. It produces the red fox, wolf, sea-otter, &c.

No. 3. *Shirinki*. The distance from the last named island to this is computed to be about 17 miles. It is remarkable for a bee-hive shaped mountain of considerable altitude. This island is nearly as broad as it is long, and about 27 miles in circumference. It abounds with sea-lions and various marine animals, which are carried there by the floating ice. The want of a safe anchorage prevents this island from being much frequented.

No. 4. *Makan Kur Assey* island lies 40 miles from the latter, and is in length 14 miles, and about seven in breadth. It is covered with brush-

wood, is badly watered, but supports the red fox and sea beavers, and a large number of seals are caught on it.

No. 5. *Anakutan* island is situated about 23 miles distant from the latter. This island is in length 66 miles, and in breadth about 10 miles. Three summits of mountains exhibit themselves, which are exhausted craters. The red fox and sea beavers are numerous.

No. 6. *Amakutan* island is not more than 4 miles from the latter. It is 14 miles in length and 7 in breadth; produces foxes, and its shores abound with sea-lions and otters.

No. 7. *Syaskutan* island is separated from the latter about 33 miles, and the current between them is most rapid. Its length is about 54 miles, and only about 4 in breadth. Its productions are similar to those of the former island.

No. 8. *Ikarma* is a volcanic island, about 8 miles from the latter, and only about 5 miles in circumference.

No. 9. *Tschimkutan* island is 20 miles distant from the former, round in form, and about 10 miles in diameter. The coast is mountainous and rocky.

No. 10. *Mussyr* island is 24 miles from the 9th island, and not more than 2 miles in diameter: it produces a large quantity of wild fowl.

No. 11. *Rach-Koke* island is 80 miles from the last mentioned, and its length and breadth about 14 miles. This island looks like a solitary mountain shooting upwards from the sea. A continued burning of this island has filled up 13 fathoms of water, and converted a large place into shoals and banks.

No. 12. *Mutova* island is situated 30 miles from the former, and is 20 miles long and 17 broad. There is a volcanic mountain to the south which emits smoke; to the north are several rich valleys and habitable plains. About 100 of the inhabitants pay tribute to Russia.

No. 13. *Russegu* or *Raschaua* island is 20 miles distant from the latter, and in extent about 20 miles every way. This island has several lofty mountains, rocky shores, and sandy bays. It is covered with excellent timber, and nourishes sea birds, beavers, and seals.

No. 14. *Ussussyr* island lies 12 miles from the former: it is, properly speaking, two islands lying close together, occupying a space of 17 miles each way. It abounds with rocks, cliffs, and hot springs. The productions are similar to the latter.

No. 15. *Keoli* island is situated at the distance of 24 miles from the island of Ussussyr, and is 20 miles in length, and only 7 in breadth. This island has three mountains of considerable altitude. The white and black-bellied red fox, so much esteemed for his skin, is here found in abundance. Between the three last named islands the currents are very rapid, and the sea rises to a great height.

No. 16. *Semussyr* or *Mareekan* island is 20 miles distant from the latter. The extraordinary length of this island gives it a peculiar appearance to the mariner. Its length is ascertained to be about 87 miles, and not more than 7 in breadth. Four mountains are visible on the island, with evident traces of volcanic eruptions about them. The timber is excellent, and the various animals in request are numerous. The passage from this to the next island of the south chain is upwards of 134 miles in extent, and is called Boussole strait by La Peyrouse.

To the Japanese properly belong the following islands:

No. 17. *Tshirpo-Oi*, and the two other adjacent small islands, are estimated in length and breadth about 10 miles. A volcanic eruption at some remote period has covered these islands with stones, so that they are perfectly useless.

No. 18. *Urup* island is about 134 miles in length and 14 in breadth. Its physical aspect is lofty mountains and deep glens. On the northern side lie four small isles, which produce good timber and abundance of vegetables. Streams from the mountains traverse the island and fall into the sea. This island is considered to be rich in minerals, but is only visited for the red and white foxes, which are very numerous. The commandant of the Russian Kuriles usually resides on this island.

No. 19. *Iturup* or *Etoorpoo* island lies 20 miles distant from the foregoing, and is about 200 miles in extent. Several lofty mountains adorn this island, which is covered with forests of noble timber, consisting of larch, pine, oak, birch, cypress, &c. The other productions are black bears, sables, foxes, fish, otters, salmon, sturgeon, &c. In stormy weather, whales and dolphins are thrown on the shore. The inhabitants are the genuine aborigines, or hairy Kuriles, known to the Japanese by the various names of Yeso, Ainus, Astoumi-Yebis, "eastern barbarians," Morin and Momin, "hairy men," "hairy people." The earliest mention made of them in history was under the Japanese name of Momin, in a Chinese work called Chan-hai-king, written during the dynasty of Han, B. C. 150. Their country is described as situated beyond the Eastern sea, and the bodies of its inhabitants covered with hair. They congregate in villages, and pay a nominal tribute to Russia. On this island is the town of *Ourbitch*, with a Japanese fort and a port not far from a volcano of the same name. It contains several good anchorages, and rivers, into which ships may safely enter.

No. 20. *Kunassyr* island is situated about 30 miles distant from Etoorpoo. Its estimated length is 100 miles by about 33 in breadth, and is entirely surrounded by mountains and lofty summits. In the centre of the island are large tracts of low land covered with good timber. The productions of the southern portion are a great variety of vegetables and fish. A pearl-bearing muscle as large as a dessert plate is found here, and the inhabitants sell large quantities to the Japanese traders. Tribute is also paid to Russia in this article.

It was on this island that Captain Golownin of the Russian navy, while engaged in exploring the southern Kuriles in 1811, was seized and imprisoned by the Japanese authorities, and detained in captivity at Matsmai until 1813, in retaliation of a hostile attack made in 1807 by an armed party of Russians, under Lieutenant Chwostoff, upon the Japanese settlements in the bay of Aniva, island of Tarakay.

No. 21. *Tchikota* island is 47 miles distant from the latter island. Its length is about 80 miles, and breadth 28 miles. The features are lofty mountains, fertile plains, and several lakes, which teem with excellent fish. At the southern extremity are two small islets, which are covered with good timber.

No. 22. *Yeso.*—This island, the southernmost and 22d of the chain, is a dependency of Japan, and lies in 41°–47° 30′ north latitude, and 140°–147° east longitude. It is about 300 miles in extreme length, and about the same breadth. Bounded on the west by the gulf of Tartary, on the east by the islands of Kunachir, Iturup, and Tchikota, and the northern

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Pacific ocean; on the south by the island of Niphon, from which it is separated by the strait of Sangar, 18 miles wide; and on the north by the island of Tarakay.

Besides the "Outlines of the Three Kingdoms," by Rensifée Sendai, there are two other Japanese works on this island—one called *Yeso-ki*, or "Description of Yeso," by Araï-si Kogo-no-Kami, instructor of Siogoon Isoena-Yosi," written in 1720. The other is called "*Yeso-ki*, with the History of the Rebellion of Samsayla, by Kenamon, Japanese interpreter," written in 1752.

In Balbi's "Abrégé de Géographie," edition of 1842, adopted by the University of France, this island is divided into the *Government of Yeso*, embracing the southwestern peninsula of the island whereon Matsmay and Chakodade are situated; and the *Aino-Koumi*, or "country of the Ainos," in which we are to distinguish the districts subject to the Japanese lying on the southern and eastern coasts, containing Atkis and Edermo, from those entirely independent of Japan, and comprehending all the rest of the island.

Yeso signifies "the coast" in Japanese, and its inhabitants are the aboriginal Ainos. By some geographers the island is erroneously called Matsmay, the name of the southern province and capital. By the Kamtschatkadales it is called Chicha, chish being the Japanese word for needles and iron, which were first introduced into that peninsula from Yeso by Japanese traders before the arrival of the Russians in those seas. The Japanese call the natives of the southern part of the island Koutsi-Yeso, or "Yeso of the mouth of the country," and those of the northern part Oku-Yeso, or "Yeso of the interior;" and the mountaineers Yama-Soumi-Yeso. The ignorance that so long prevailed respecting its extent and position has been justly described by M. Buache in his "Considerations Géographiques et Physiques" in the following terms: "Jesso, after having been transported to the east, attached to the south, and afterwards to the west, was at last found in the north."

The whole island is divided into six provinces or districts, of which *Matsmay*, or "South of the Pines," is the southernmost, and contains the chief town and residence of the hereditary Prince governor. The name was conferred by imperial letters patent of Siogoon Yori-firo, in 1594, on the Japanese prince Nobou-firo, whose ancestors conquered the southern part of the island, and built the town in 1443. The town of Matsmay is situated on the strait of Sangar, in latitude 41° 32′ north, and longitude 219° 56′ west, on a large commodious bay, with good anchorage in 4 fathoms. The harbor is constantly filled with Japanese vessels trading to every part of the empire. It has a population of about 50,000, and may be considered the most important town in this extremity of Asia. The place is well fortified and garrisoned; guards are constantly kept up on the coast to observe narrowly everything that passes. It has the small bays of Koru-yesi on the east, and Otube to the west of the town.

To the southwest of Matsmay, at the entrance of the strait of Sangar, are two small islands—Oos-Sima, in latitude 41° 31′ 30″ north, and longitude 220° 40′ 45″ west, and Kos-Sima, in latitude 41° 21′ 30″, and longitude 220° 14′ west. Both islands are steep, rugged, and of volcanic origin. The island of Okosiri lies to the eastward of Yeso, and north of Oos-Sima, in latitude 42° 9′, and longitude 220° 30′ west, and is considerably larger than either of the others, being 11 miles long and 5 broad. Cape Sangar

lies in latitude 41° 16′ 30″ north, and longitude 219° 46′ west. The western entrance to the strait, according to Kruzenstern, is only 9 miles wide.

Chakodade, the second town in magnitude on the island, is also situated on the strait of Sangar, southeast of Matsmay, on the declivity of a high circular hill, which rises above the peninsula there formed. It is washed on the south by the bay of Sangar, and on the north and west by the bay of Chakodade, which is very convenient for receiving a large fleet. The peninsula forms its junction on the east by a narrow strip of land; so that there is at once a view of the open sea and the low grounds.

On the northern side of the bay a spacious valley extends over a circuit of fifteen or twenty miles, bounded on three of its sides by hills. In the centre of this valley lies the village of Onno, the inhabitants of which are chiefly occupied in agriculture. The other villages which are situated on the coast are for the most part inhabited by fishermen. The hill, at the foot of which the town is built, serves as an excellent landmark for ships entering the bay, as it is easily recognised at a distance by its circular form, and is detached from every other elevated object. On the western side this hill is formed of huge masses of rock, in one of which there is a cavity perceptible from the sea. The depth of water close in land is very considerable on the southern and western sides of the peninsula; but as there are neither sand-banks nor rocks to be apprehended, the coast may be approached without danger. There are, however, numerous sand-banks on the northern side, and consequently only small vessels can get up to the town. From the projecting cape opposite the town a sand-bank of unequal depth extends one-third of the breadth of the bay. On the northern and eastern sides of the bay the depth of the water gradually diminishes towards the shore.

The Japanese towns and villages on the island are large, have regular streets, and the houses, on account of earthquakes, are all neatly built of wood. Every house has a kitchen garden, and many are furnished with orchards. The cleanliness which prevails in the streets and houses is truly astonishing. The inhabitants, says Golownin, are extremely lively, and content and cheerfulness are painted on every countenance. The boundary between the Japanese and Yesoite villages is about 100 miles from Chakodade.

The principal bays on the southeastern coast of the island are *Volcano bay*, in latitude 42° 19′ 20″ north, and longitude 141° 7′ 36″ east, secure and spacious, having the inner and well-sheltered harbor of *Edermo;* the *bay of Good Hope*, and *Atkis bay*, now beginning to be frequented by our whalers. The best harbors on the northwest coast are in *Soukhtalen bay* and *Strogonov bay*. Near the centre of the island is a lake called Oonoma, about 15 miles long and nearly as broad, having its outlet in the river Isikari, a very rapid stream, which falls into Strogonov bay.

The aspect of the island, particularly in the southern provinces, is wild and mountainous. A rugged chain traverses it from northwest to southeast. Active and extinct volcanoes are visible. The northwestern provinces are said to be more fertile than the southern, producing everything necessary to support life, and are well cultivated by Japanese emigrants.

The timber forests consist of oak, pine, birch, elm, scented cypress, and other valuable woods; ginseng and various medicinal plants are found; deer, elk, bears, wolves, wild goats, sables, foxes, and other wild animals, are numerous. The bears are uncommonly fierce, and attack

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men as well as other animals. Among the birds are three species of falcon and lammergeyers; and in summer, geese, swans, and ducks. Salmon, cod, herring, mackerel, and other varieties of fish and shell fish, tripang, beavers, sea-otters, seals, morses, sword-fish, whales, &c., are very plentiful on the coast; and Rensifée Sendai, in his description of the island, avers that an enormous sea-monster, called by the natives *Okime*, resembling, by all accounts, the kraken of the Norwegian seas, has been seen on the coast of Yeso.

The Yesoites are generally tall and strongly made, very active, and far more handsome and manly than the Russian Kuriles. They appear to be a distinct race of people from the inhabitants of the other islands; and have a language of their own, which, though it contains many Kurile words in common use, is totally unintelligible to the other Kuriles.

The principal occupation of the natives is hunting, felling timber and burning charcoal, fishing and gathering *kambou*, (fucus saccharinus,) called by the Russians sea-cabbage, which is found in great abundance on the coast, and is a favorite article of food among all classes in the Japanese empire.

The Kambou is spread out upon the sand to dry; they then collect it together in heaps, resembling hay-cocks, and cover it over with matting until the time arrives for loading the vessels which carry it to the ports of the southern islands of Japan. Everything produced by the sea is considered eatable by the Japanese; fish, marine animals of every description, sea plants and weeds, are all made to contribute to their support.

There is a trading factory established by the Prince governor in each of the provinces of the island, where, on making his agent a small present, the Yesoites are allowed the privilege of bartering their furs, dried fish, &c., for such articles of Japanese manufacture as they may want. The Japanese traders carry on a clandestine traffic with the Russians at the adjacent Russian Kurile islands, for dried fish, whale-oil, bear and seal skins, eagles' wings and tails, and also for woollen cloths of various colors, chiefly red and yellow, glass ware, glass beads, strings of amber, hardware, boots, &c. of European manufacture, for which they pay very dear rates, and give in exchange rice, clothes, tobacco pipes, cotton manufactures, domestic utensils, and other things.

The Japanese give a high price for eagles' wings and tails, as they use the feathers for their arrows. The yellow cloth is reserved for distinguished visitors; a piece of a suitable size is usually spread out where it is intended the guest shall seat himself. Cloths of other colors are made into wearing apparel. Woollen cloth is not manufactured by the Japanese, no sheep being raised in any part of their dominions.

The Yesoites make their dresses out of various fibrous substances—bark of trees and skins of animals; and they also receive clothing in exchange for their commodities from the Japanese, Chinese, Manchus, and Russians; on which account a great diversity of habiliments is often observed among the members of a family occupying the same dwelling. The women are employed in weaving cloth for garments, and other necessary domestic work. In summer they live in huts made of wood, covered with bark; and in winter in huts of earth, the floor covered with mats. Their weapons are bows with poisoned arrows, spears, and Japanese swords. They are not permitted the use of powder or fire-arms. The smoking of tobacco is a favorite amusement with both sexes.

Polygamy is allowed among them; some of the chiefs have a number of wives. They live in admirable harmony with each other, and are in general mild and good hearted, hospitable, friendly, and polite. They have no writing, consequently no written laws; everything is handed down by tradition from generation to generation. The chiefs are elected by the natives, and confirmed by the Prince governor. Many of the natives are Budhists, and all are left to their own choice of religion, laws, customs, and dress. The island serves as a place of exile and punishment for political offenders from Japan.

Matsmai was visited by European traders as early as 1612. when the English had a factory at Firando, in Japan; they sold the Yesoites pepper, broadcloth, and elephants' teeth, and received in exchange bars of gold and silver. There are said to be several rich mines of those metals, as well as of copper, in the island, which the Japanese government will not allow to be worked, from an apprehension that foreigners, particularly the Russians, would be tempted to conquer and occupy the country.

According to a Japanese author, the Empress Catharine is reported to have said, "that it should always be the object of her children and grandchildren to seek to increase the Russian empire, and extend its frontier." "The Orotz," (Russians,) says the same author, "obeyed this injunction, and occupied the whole of the country of Kamtschatka. They named a governor, and obliged each inhabitant to bring in as tribute a deer skin. They then began to trade with the island of Yeso, receiving pepper, sugar, and linen, in exchange for gold and skins. We Japanese gather neither gold nor silver; we even make a secret of having such costly articles, for fear the Russians should take possession of the country. Yeso is to our kingdom as the lips and teeth are to the body. We must always be on our guard." (See appendix C.)

By a letter received from a gentleman who has long resided in Japan, as physician to the Dutch factory of Dezima, we learn that the courtesy, moderation, and forbearance of Commodore Biddle and his officers, during the short stay of the American squadron in the bay of Yedo, in July, 1846, had inspired both the government and people with the highest opinion of the nation he represented, and has favorably disposed them towards it. The Japanese government had caused orders in writing to be drawn up, to be delivered to the commanders of foreign vessels, allowing them to anchor north of the Covalhos, near the entrance of the bay of Yedo.

In the *Loo choo islands*, dependencies of the Prince of Satzuma, island of Kiu-siu, two Catholic missionaries have been permitted to reside since 1844. The Rev. Mr. Forcade, one of the number, in a letter to his superiors, dated Great Loo-choo, August 12, 1845, states that he had acquired a knowledge of the language, and compiled a dictionary of more than six thousand words; that everything at Loo-choo is Japanese in worship, language, dwelling-houses, furniture, manners, and customs; that he had not yet seen a Chinese junk in the port of Nafa, while there were constantly at anchor ten to fifteen Japanese vessels. The island is now frequently visited by European and American vessels. In 1846 an American whale ship foundered on a rock near Loo choo; she was raised, repaired, and sent on her voyage by the assistance of the subjects of the Prince of Satzuma.

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Port Melville, called by the natives Ou-ting, or Vouching, on the western coast of the island, has a good, safe anchorage in 19 to 20 fathoms water, protected from all winds; and offers peculiar advantages and facilities for careening and repairing vessels, so much wanted in those seas. Its shores are studded with populous villages, and the country around is fertile and well cultivated.

6. Steam Communication with China.—Superior Commercial Advantages of Chusan, &c.

In addition to the steamers now in active progress of construction at this port for the transportation of the United States mail, passengers, and freight, between Panama and Columbia river, the increasing importance of our trade with China and the Indian Archipelago would warrant the immediate establishment of another line from Panama to Shanghai, Canton, Manilla, &c., either in connexion with that line or from Panama direct, to touch and coal at the Sandwich islands. From New York to Panama is about 1,950 miles, from Panama to Sandwich islands 4,780, thence to Shanghai or Chusan 4,470—in all 11,200 miles; and it is calculated the passage could be performed by American steamers within 45 days. From Panama, by the great circle, to the Aleutian or Fox islands, is 5,500 miles; thence, through the strait of Sangar and sea of Japan, to Shanghai and Chusan, is 2,700 miles—in all 8,200 miles. This route is about 1,200 miles shorter than the former, and must eventually obtain the preference, as it will form a connecting link with the line about to be established from Panama to Oregon; and on the Asiatic section of the north Pacific, will pass in the vicinity of the Kurile and Japanese islands, and the eastern coast of Manchuria and Corea. From Panama to Tehuantepec is about 1,200 miles, to Acapulco 1,500, Manzanillo 1,800, San Blas 1,962, Mazatlan 2,100, Guaymas 2,450, San Diego 2,760, Monterey 3,120, San Francisco 3,200, Columbia river 3,570, and Yedo, Japan, 7,950 miles.

Coal of an excellent quality and in great abundance has been found at the following places on the American coast of the Pacific, viz: Panama; island of Santa Cruz, near Santa Barbara; bay of San Francisco; Vancouver's island, in the straits of San Juan de Fuca, and Puget's sound; and its existence has been ascertained at various other points near the coast. In China it is found in inexhaustible quantities on the banks of the great river Yangtszekang, at Shanghai, and the island of Formosa; in Borneo, and several of its adjacent islands; and in the island of Ceram, in the Indian Archipelago; at Junk Ceylon, on the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, where the natives offer to deliver it in Penang at $3 per ton; and at the Nicobar islands, in the bay of Bengal, belonging to Denmark, and recently colonized by the Danes. It is found in Assam and Aracan. Excellent bituminous coal is also very abundant, and has been used for fuel from time immemorial in the Japanese islands, which, in the course of events, must ere long be opened to our commerce. Extensive coal fields have been discovered in Australia and New Zealand.

The Chinese island of *Chusan*, besides its superior local advantages for trade, is most eligibly situated for a halting and coaling station for such line of steamers; rendering it highly desirable and important that the ports of the Chusan Archipelago should be opened to American commerce. The island is about 23 miles in length by 7 to 11 in breadth,

situated 7 miles from the main land of China, and distant 40 miles from Ningpo. The population of the whole group is estimated at 300,000.

Tinghae, the capital, is in 30° 10′ north latitude, and 122° 14′ east longitude. Population about 30,000. Besides Tinghae, the Chusan group possesses several fine bays and harbors, with good and safe anchorage for the largest vessels, with plenty of good water, and admirable sites for dock-yards, so much wanted for the repair of ships in the China seas. The rise and fall of the tide is twelve and a half feet. The climate is considered the healthiest of any part of the coast of China, the thermometer rarely rising in summer to 86° Fahrenheit. It is accessible to vessels proceeding in any direction to or from Chusan; is in the route of an immense Chinese coasting trade, and of the junks which trade with Manchuria, Corea, Japan, Loo-choo islands, Indian Archipelago, Manilla, Borneo, Cochin-China, Siam, Batavia, Singapore, and Malacca. Its geographical position, at the central point, and to the windward of the coast of China, near the Peiho and Yellow rivers, opposite the Great Yangtszekang river, give it unrivalled natural advantages for commerce over every other port on the coast of China. It is within a short distance of Chapu, the seat of the China-Japanese trade, within two days' sail of Japan; the same from Corea, and five days' sail from Pekin.

Chusan was captured by the British during their late war with China, and occupied by their forces until January, 1846, when it was surrendered to the Chinese, under the treaty, in exchange for Hong Kong.

In Gutzlaff's "Retrospect of the Two Years of Peace," he describes the island as "fertile, containing a dense, industrious, agricultural population; and for the whale fishery presents great facilities, for during summer the fish go to the Japanese seas, and along the coast of Corea, whither they have never yet been pursued. Vessels, therefore, fitted out in this island, would be just in the track.

"As a commercial emporium, few places in Asia can vie in point of situation with Chusan. On the opposite main are the most flourishing cities, as respects manufactures as well as commerce. In its neighborhood the largest rivers of China disembogue, and these will always be the high road of commerce.

"We would look upon Chusan as another Malta, not in point of natural strength, but of political importance for the maintenance and undisturbed enjoyment of a commerce which, after the opening of Japan and Corea, and access to Manchuria, will certainly rival the whole of our Mediterranean trade."

The port of *Shanghai*, lying about one degree north of Chusan, being immediately adjacent to the richest districts of the Chinese empire, and especially to those which produce the principal articles of export, promises to become a formidable rival to Canton, and will inevitably draw from it a considerable portion of its traffic. According to the report of the select committee of the House of Commons of the 9th July, 1847, "on commercial relations with China," Shanghai already furnishes 16,000 out of the 20,000 bales of silk, and 10,000,000 out of the 57,622,802 lbs. of tea, which China, in 1846, appears to have furnished for British markets.

Sir John Davis, in a despatch of the 24th February, 1847, states that "Shanghai must be expected to attract to itself, in due time, the largest portion of the British trade, it seeming to be impossible that teas should

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long continue to bear the heavy charge of transport to Canton from the north, when they can be delivered so near the place of production."

The river Woosung, on which the city of Shanghai is situated, 14 miles from the sea, comes out of the Ta-hoo or "Great lake," Chang-keaow-kow, and traverses the Yunho, or "Great canal," and thus communicates with the Yangtszekang, the Yellow river, and Pekin; from the Yun-ho it enters the Pang-shan lake, and flows by the beautiful city of Suchau, the most commercial, wealthy and luxurious city of the empire, with a population of nearly 2,000,000, celebrated for the variety and excellence of its manufactures, the politeness and intelligence of its inhabitants, and the beauty of its women. This river enables the inhabitants to trade and communicate with the remotest parts of the empire, from Pekin to Yunnan, and from the eastern coast to the extremity of Central Asia. Shanghai is the port of many great cities, besides Suchau, from which it is distant about 40 miles; the way to it is by the route of rivers, canals, and small lakes, through a continual range of villages and cities. The aggregate population of the whole district is estimated at 5,000,000.

Coal, of the description termed kennel coal, is very abundant at Shanghai, and is burnt in British steamers navigating the China seas. It is apparently worked near the surface, and a better sort could most probably be obtained by mining.

Shanghai is a better market for superior textures of silk than Canton; sewing silk of every kind, in colors, is prepared in Henchai and Nankin. The crapes made in this district are superior to those generally seen in Canton. Most of the fabrics made here are with thrown silk. The silk of the workmen in this district, together with the well known enterprise of the manufacturers, have established the character of their goods throughout the empire.

The chief articles manufactured are damasks, satins, mazarines, and crapes, also figured and plain heavy serges. A peculiar description of singularly woven figured silk, called *Keh sz'* is manufactured at Suchau, in forming which are the several processes of weaving, printing, embroidery and sewing, exhibiting figures of men, flowers, gardens, &c., and is said to surpass anything known in Europe in its representation of figures and flowers. In their establishments for the culture and manufacture of silk they have an ingenious apparatus for avoiding double cocoons, and a simple process for reeling the fine white silk, named *t's-ih-li*, and the well known cocoon thread. There are also at Suchau extensive manufactories of iron, ivory, bone, gold, silver, glass, paper, and cotton.

The safest article of export, recommended by Montgomery Martin, is the Hongchow and Nankin plain white, and the Tong-pa and Ching-tong yellow pongees. If purchased in the gum, and not boiled off, the purchaser will not be so liable to be cheated, as they are frequently increased in weight, and improved in their apparent quality with congee, or "rice paste." Rhubarb may be obtained fully as cheap here as at Canton, and green tea 20 per cent. cheaper. The most important articles of import from the United States are cotton goods and lead. Our coarser cotton fabrics are preferred to those of the English, and we supply China with lead cheaper than any other country.

In addition to teas and silks, among the exports are camphor, china root, cassia, and the best porcelain. Articles are also brought here from Japan, Siam, Cochin-China, and Tonquin, such as copper, sugar, gamboge,

raw silk, stic-lac, liquid indigo and plumbago, good hemp, and a superior description of fine flax. Provisions of all kinds are very abundant and cheap.

Shanghai is rapidly becoming a place of great commercial importance, on account of the large number of merchants who are crowding there from all parts of the empire, as well as from Siberia and Central Asia, to make purchases. It exports largely, and more than any other emporium in China, to Tientsin, the port of Pekin, on the Pei-ho, which is covered with its junks. Trade appears to be in a very flourishing condition, and it is said 1,000 large-sized junks pass in and out of the harbor weekly.

The Woosung river discharges into the Yangtszekang, and is almost half a mile in breadth, and has about five fathoms in mid channel; the entrance is through a maze of sand-banks, without a mark; the tide rises from 15 to 18 feet. The anchorage at the mouth of the river is in latitude 31° 25′ north, longitude 121° 1′ 30″ east. The heat is very great in July, August and September, but at other periods the temperature is very agreeable, and snow falls in winter, remaining on the ground some days.

It appears to have been the uniform policy of the Chinese government to concentrate the foreign trade, as much as possible, to certain privileged marts, in order to subject it to a more rigid system of supervision and monopoly, and more available for exaction. This will account for its reluctance to open the northern ports of the empire to foreign commerce, and free trade has thus far been a failure in China; but that government will, ere long, be compelled to succumb to the more liberal progressive commercial policy of the age.

The rule on which the Chinese government acts in its dealings with foreigners is thus translated by Prémare: "The barbarians are like beasts, and not to be ruled on the same principles as citizens. Were any one to attempt controlling them by the great maxims of reason, it would tend to nothing but confusion. The ancient kings well understood this, and accordingly ruled barbarians by misrule; therefore to rule barbarians by misrule is the true and best way of ruling them." Lord Napier observes that "the whole system of government here is that of subterfuge, and shifting the blame from the shoulders of the one to the other."

The commanding position and local advantages of *Quelpaert* island, latitude 33° 20′ north, and longitude 126° east, lying in the Corean Archipelago, for trade with the Corean peninsula, east coast of Manchuria, and Japan, as well as for whaling, were briefly indicated in my letter to the Hon. James Buchanan, Secretary of State, of the 28th November, 1846, printed document of the House of Representatives No. 96, of the last session. The British have since taken possession of this island, with the intention of permanently occupying it as another link in the long chain of their maritime stations in the Indian Archipelago, and seas of Eastern Asia, and by which they will be enabled to open up the trade of Corea, the northern provinces of China, Manchuria, and the Japanese islands.

Their possessions in those seas, including this island, now embrace Port Essington, on the Cobourg peninsula, Northern Australia; Cape York, and the adjacent islands on Torre's straits; the southeast coast of Papua; the Straits settlements of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore; the island of Labuan, on the northwest coast of Borneo; the island of

Hong Kong, on the south coast of China; and the island of Maratan or Maratubo, on the southeast coast of Borneo, in latitude 2° 14′ north, and longitude 106° 2′ east. This island is situated in the sea of Celebes, near the northwestern entrance of the strait of Macassar, and is said to be a most eligible point for a commercial settlement, as it would not only command the entire trade of the east and north coasts of Borneo, but would have a large share of that of the Sooloo group, Celebes, &c., and prove a formidable rival to the Dutch port of Macassar, in Celebes, now a free port.

The commander of her Britannic Majesty's surveying ship Bramble, landed in April, 1846, at a cape in Papua, or New Guinea, which he called Cape Possession, in latitude 10° 19′ south, and longitude 148° east, where he hoisted a British flag, and took possession of the coast in the name of her Britannic Majesty. There is an extensive range of mountains visible from the coast, 9,000 to 10,000 feet high, which he called Mount Victoria; there are also several intervening ranges of mountains of inferior altitude, covered with primitive forests, which gave him reason to suppose that the country was well watered and fertile.

The whole coast appeared thickly inhabited. Their villages consisted of large and respectable looking huts, the land near them presenting a very agreeable and fertile appearance. They were frequently visited by the natives, who brought off cocoanuts, sugar-cane, sago, a sort of arrow-root, as well as specimens of their arts and manufactures, such as bows, arrows, spears, ornaments, &c., which they readily exchanged for such trifles as were offered them. They have double and single canoes; some of the former being capable of carrying from fifty to one hundred men, and the latter two or three. At Bramble Key, on the same coast, there is a large quantity of guano, a vegetable resembling spinach, and turtle may also be procured here at particular seasons of the year.

The previous surveying expedition in her Britannic Majesty's ship Fly, discovered in 1845, on the same coast, the delta of a large river, 5 miles wide, in latitude 8° 40′ south, and 143° 30′ east longitude, and which they supposed to be navigable a long distance in the interior.

The island is inhabited by two distinct races of people, the Papuas and Horaforos, who subsist upon the spontaneous productions of the earth, and by fishing. No European nation, except the Dutch, has heretofore had any commercial intercourse with the island, and they have no settlement on it. The natives of Ceram and Goram are the principal traders with Papua. The chief articles of import are iron tools, chopping-knives and axes, blue and red cloth, Chinese beads, plates, basins of China, and other similar articles, in exchange for *slaves*, amber, ambergris, tripang, edible birds' nests, tortoise shell, pearls, pearl shells, mother-of-pearl, black loories, large and red loories, birds of paradise, and many other kinds of birds, which the Papuans have a peculiar way of preparing; wild nutmegs, rose maloes, ebony, iron wood, various odoriferous, medicinal, and dye woods, camphor, sago, cocoa, palm oil, gold dust, and diamonds. One of the most important articles of export is a bark called Massoy bark, which is taken by the Dutch to Java, where the powder made of it is extensively used by the natives for rubbing the body, and fetches $30 per picul of 133⅓ pounds.

7. Special Mission to the East—Steam navigation on the Indus and Brahmaputra, &c.—Extensive caravan trade with Northwestern and Central Asia, &c.

In view of our expanding commerce on the Pacific, and of the importance of adopting early measures for opening and extending our commercial intercourse with all the oriental nations, I take leave most respectfully to invite your favorable consideration of the proposed mission to the East, which I had the honor of submitting to Mr. Buchanan in my above mentioned letter of the 28th November, 1846.

In addition to the oriental nations therein briefly noticed, embracing an aggregate population of upwards of 140,000,000, and with which the United States have not made treaties—the recent annexation of the States of Sinde and the Punjaub, including the provinces of Cashmere and the Hazarahs, to the British Indian empire—the general tranquillity now reigning in the kingdoms of Beloochistan, Afghanistan, Koondooz, Bokhara, Khaurism, Kokan, or Ferghana, and their dependencies, together with the political, scientific, and commercial mission sent by the governor general of British India, in August last, to Tibet and Chinese Turkestan—will open new markets for an extensive and profitable commerce in those vast regions of northwestern and Central Asia by the route of the Indus, in which, by the negotiations now in progress between Mr. Bancroft and Lord Palmerston, it is presumable we may shortly be allowed to participate.

It is worthy of remark that a portion of those Asiatic countries embrace the Indo-Scythia, Bactria, Transoxiana, Marycanda, Chorasmia, Parthiana, and Parapomisus, of classical antiquity; and the Turan, Turkist'han, Sogd, or "valley," and Maver ul-naher, or "the province beyond the river," of the early Arabian geographers, which they extolled as "the most delightful of all places which God created." "For eight days," says Ibn Haukal, "we may travel in the country of Sogd, and not be out of one delicious garden. On every side, villages with cornfields, fruitful orchards, country houses, gardens, meadows intersected by rivulets, reservoirs, and canals, present a most lively picture of industry and happiness." The hospitality of the inhabitants he describes, from his personal observations, as corresponding to the abundance that prevailed.

The erudite Professor Lassen, of Bonn, has discovered and identified the ancient name of the Afghans with that of *Uskanghar*, in the catalogue of nations tributary to the Great King, engraven in cuneiform characters on the monuments of Persepolis; they are descendants of the Hebrew tribes.

Those countries were celebrated before the memorable Indian expedition of Alexander, B. C. 327, for the great variety and value of their commercial products, their rich mines of gold, precious stones and minerals, such as rubies, turquoises, amethysts, tæjeloves, ladgword or lapis-lazuli, &c., and as the thoroughfares of an extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans of Bactrian camels, between India, China, and the western nations.

The chief cities of this region of Central Asia were then, as now, Balk, (called by the natives Omm el-Baldan, or "Mother of Cities," the capital of the ancient Greek kingdom of Bactria,) Samarkand, and Bokhara. At a later period, Caubul and Candahar became, and still continue to be, the marts of an extensive commerce. Sultan Baber, who was a

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native of Ferghana, and king of the Turki race in 1504, gives the following description of the two last named cities, in his "Memoirs:"

"On the road between Hindostan and Khorasan there are two great marts: the one Caubul, and the other Candahar. Caravans from Ferghana, Turkestan, Samarkand, Balk, Bokhara, Hissar, and Badakshan, all resort to Caubul; while those from Khorasan repair to Candahar. This country lies between Hindostan and Khorasan. It is an excellent and profitable market for commodities. Were the merchants to carry their goods as far as Khita, (northern province of China,) or Rúm, (Asiatic Turkey,) they would scarcely get the same profit on them. Every year, seven, eight, or ten thousand horses arrive in Caubul. From Hindostan, every year, fifteen or twenty thousand pieces of cloth are brought by caravans. The commodities of Hindostan are slaves, white cloths, sugar candy, refined and common sugar, drugs, and spices. There are many merchants that are not satisfied with getting thirty or forty for ten. The productions of Khorasan, Rúm, Iran, (Persia,) Chin, (China proper,) may all be found in Caubul, which is the very emporium of Hindostan. Its warm and cold districts are close by each other. From Caubul you may in a single day go to a place where snow never falls, and in the space of two astronomical hours you may reach a spot where snow lies always, except now and then when the summer happens to be peculiarly hot.

"In the districts dependant on Caubul there is great abundance of the fruits of both hot and cold climates, and they are found in its immediate vicinity. The fruits of the cold districts in Caubul are grapes, pomegranates, apricots, peaches, pears, apples, quinces, jujubes, damsons, almonds, and walnuts; all of which are found in great abundance. The fruits it possesses peculiar to warm climates are the orange, citron, the amlúk, (a large berry,) and sugar-cane. I caused the sugar-cane to be brought, and planted it here. They have numbers of bee-hives, but honey is brought only from the hill country on the west. The rawash (rhubarb) of Caubul is of excellent quality: its quinces and damask plums are excellent, as well as its bádrengs, (a large green fruit.) There is a species of grape which they call the water-grape, that is very delicious: its wines are strong and intoxicating.

"In the country of Caubul there are many and various tribes. Its valleys and plains are inhabited by Turks, Aimáks, and Arabs. In the city and the greater part of the villages, the population consists of Tájiks. Many others of the villages and districts are occupied by Pashâis, Parâchis, Tájiks, Berekis, and Afghans. In the hill country to the west reside the Hazâras and Nukderis. Among the Hazâra and Nukderi tribes there are some who speak the Moghul language. In the hill country to the northeast lies Kaferistân, such as Kattor and Gebrek. To the south is Afghanistân.

"There are eleven or twelve different languages spoken in Caubul: Arabic, Persian, Túrki, Mongoli, Hindi, Afghâni, Pashâi, Parachi, Geberi, Bereki, and Lamghânri."

The Bolor-Tag, the Imaus of the ancients, which forms the meridian axis of Central Asia, has been for many centuries the boundary between the empires of China and Independent Turkestan. The "Dark or Cloudy Mountain," and various other etymologies, have been assigned for the origin of its name; but the most probable derivation, according to Humboldt and the traditions of the neighboring nations, is from a corruption of

Vaidurya, the Sanscrit for lapis-lazuli, for which the mountains of that chain have been celebrated from the earliest ages.* The culminating points of the Bolor are about 20,000 feet above the sea level; but where it intersects the other chains parallel to the equator, such as the Thian shan or "Celestial mountains," the Kouen lun, and the Himalaya, the elevation is greater. It is crossed in three principal points, viz: that of Yarkand to the north, that of Pamér, and the one traversed by the Jesuit Goes, in 1603. But the pass by lake Sir-i-kol, or Victoria lake, in the high table land of Pamér, the source of the Amu Derya or Oxus, in 37° 27′ north latitude, and 75° 40′ east longitude, is the most frequented. This route was re discovered and described by Lieutenant Wood, of the Indian navy, in 1838, and is about 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. He verifies the general accuracy of the account of Pamér, given by Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, who visited it in 1280. The mountain in the vicinity of the lake is called by the natives Bami Dunya, or "Terraced roof of the world."

The productive and valuable ruby mines of Badakshan, in the Khanat of Koondooz, yielding the celebrated Balais ruby, a crystal of a pale rose color, are situated in the mountain district of Gharan, on the right bank of the Oxus, which is about 1,000 miles in length, navigable for large vessels upwards of 600 miles, and falls into lake Aral. This river, the lake, and the Caspian, were in early time the great channels of communication, for the purposes of trade and war, for a large portion of the route between the Indus and the Black Sea.

Badakshan, when visited by Marco Polo, was governed by princes who were lineal descendants of Alexander, by the daughter of Darius, king of Persia. The Badakshan horses have always been celebrated for their superior size, great speed, and capacity for endurance. It was believed that there still existed in the province, horses of the breed of Alexander's celebrated Bucephalus, which were all foaled with a particular mark on the forehead. This filiation is also noticed and confirmed by Abu'lfazl, and other Arabian historians. From the close connexion of the countries of the Oxus with Arabia, it may be presumed the breed was originally derived from the pure Arabian stock. Tamerlane, by his conquests in China and India, Persia, and Turkey, introduced the finest horses of those distant countries to his capital of Samarkand, and his native and adjacent city of Shuhr-Subz, in which neighborhood, according to Sir A. Burnes, are now found the most matchless horses of the East. Elphinstone observes, that "by far the best breeding country for horses in the Caubal dominions is Balk; and it is from that province, bordering on Badakshan and the Turcoman country lower down the Oxus, that the bulk of those exported are brought." We have authentic accounts of their performing a journey of 600 miles in six days. Speed is at all times looked on as an inferior quality to bottom. The Turcoman horse in winter is swaddled in three thick felts of sheep's and goat's wool, which are impervious to the wind and rain, and is left out in the open air day and night. At night the snow is piled around him, as a further protection. In so dry a climate, this is considered far better for him than the confined

*The workmen in the lapis-lazuli mines enumerate three descriptions of this mineral: these are, the noeli or indigo color, the asmani or light blue, and the sure-si or green, which are of the relative value in the above order. The richest colors are usually found in the darkest rocks. The beautiful blue called ultramarine, is obtained from the lapis-lazuli.

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air of a stable, and he preserves the sleekness of his skin throughout the winter.

Among the Uzbecks of Turkestan, horse flesh is preferred to beef or mutton; and *koamis* (fermented mare's milk) is almost the only liquor used by them for convivial purposes. It is said to be very palatable and wholesome, and is reputed a sovereign remedy in consumption.

The city of Bokhara, "The Holy," "The Treasury of Sciences," has a population of about 150,000, and is the mart and entrepôt of a very extensive caravan trade with Russia, Siberia, and the principal countries of Eastern, Central, and Western Asia. Much has been done to facilitate the sale and transport of merchandise, by the construction of numerous caravansaries and vast and commodious bazars, which are filled with many of the products and manufactures of Asia, Africa, and Europe. It is also the chief seat of Mohammedan learning in Independent Turkestan. The number of its colleges, or medrasses, amounts to 366, several of which are richly endowed, and all of them are well attended by students from the neighboring countries. Their course of study generally lasts seven or eight years. M. Khanikoff, a Russian traveller, who visited Bokhara in 1842, says "it is the first place among the kingdoms of Central Asia for learning."

The Khan of Taskhend, one of the chief towns of Ferghana, lying on the Syr Derya, is now reckoned among the vassals of the Emperor of Russia, and at no distant day his territories will form an integral part of the Russian empire. A very extensive caravan trade is carried on between this town and Petrapaylock, in Siberia, in which about 3,500 camels are employed.

Were Bokhara, Khaurism, Kokan, and Koondooz, to be connected by steam communication, for which the Oxus, the Syr Derya or Jaxartes, and lake Aral, as well as the hard, level desert, afford such facilities, they would form a powerful commercial confederation—give laws to Central Asia, and make their influence be felt from Siberia to the Himalaya, and from the Caspian to China.

The religious forms and ceremonies of several of the Tartar nations of Central Asia bear a strong resemblance to those of the Budhism of the Grand Lama of Tibet and the Roman Catholic church. They have a Pontiff; Patriarchs, intrusted with the spiritual government of the provinces; a council of superior Lamas, who meet in conclave to elect a Pontiff, and whose insignia resemble those of Roman cardinals; convents of monks and nuns; prayers for the dead; auricular confession; intercession of saints, fasts, kissing of feet, litanies, processions, and holy water. These points of similitude evidently show their derivation from the Nestorian Christianity, which was extensively spread throughout Tartary during the middle ages, and that the institution of the Lamas, which only dates from the 13th century of our era, has been based upon that of the Nestorians. A list of 25 Metropolitans, in Asia, which were subject to the Patriarch of the Nestorians between A. D. 800 and 1200, will be found in the 3d volume of the "Bibliothecæ Orientalis" of S. Assemanus, a work of high authority and vast erudition.

According to all accounts in which the state of these countries is described, no traces of Christianity subsist among them, with the exception of the Catholic religion preached anew by the modern missionaries of

the church of Rome. The religion of the Dalaï-Lama, on the contrary, is preserved, extended, and established among the people of Tangut, Mongolia, the Tartars, Tibetans, and other nations of Central Asia, China, Japan, Corea, &c. We may therefore reasonably conclude that the Nestorian bishops and priests, who for so long a period propagated their doctrines throughout Asia, deprived, at so great a distance, of all intercourse with societies really Christian, departed farther and farther from Christianity, and gave themselves up to the superstitious practices of the people among whom they lived, till every trace of the Christian character was effaced, and Nestorianism finally became merged in Lamaism.

The Indus (Sindhu in Sanscrit) is now regularly navigated by steamers from the port of Kurrachee to Attock—a distance, by the course of the river, of 942 miles—in connexion with a line from that port, the emporium of the Indus, to Bombay. Its mean width is 680 yards, and in the dryest season of the year, 9, 12, 13, and 15 feet are the usual measures of depth below Attock. The sources of this great river have never been fully explored. It is certain that it rises in the Himalaya mountains near Tibet. It is probable that the Skayúk, from Karakorum, and the river Ladak, from near the "Sacred Lakes" of Rawán-Hrad and Manasaróvara—held in superstitious reverence by the Hindoos—are its principal affluents. It receives the Abá Sin, and passes on to Attock, where it is joined by the Caubul. One of the sources of this tributary descends from Pamér, and is nearly as remote as the principal branch. From Attock to the sea it is familiarly known to the natives by the name of "Sind," or "Attock." The water is sweet and good, and the current runs about four miles an hour. It is subject to very sudden rises, and as rapidly falls. A few miles below Tatta it divides into two large arms, which subsequently are further broken into numerous branches, forming the Delta of the Indus, the base of which, measured in a straight line from the western to the eastern embouchure, conveys the main body of the Indus towards the ocean, preserving a similar magnitude to that of the parent stream; but from the loose and changeable nature of the soil, the mouths are constantly changing. The influence of the tide is irregular, and varies from four to twelve feet, and is not visible at a greater distance than 60 to 65 miles from the sea. The inundation of the Indus commences about the end of April, and attains its maximum height, which, below the latitude of Haiderabad, is about twelve feet above the ordinary channel, during July and August, after which it continues gradually to subside until September.

An enlightened plan was conceived by the Emperor Firoz III, in the fourteenth century, for uniting the Indus and the Ganges by means of the Sutledge and Brahmaputra, thus connecting Assam with the west of India, developing a grand scheme of internal navigation of upwards of 5,000 miles in extent across that continent. The commerce carried on by means of the Indus during the reign of Aurungzebe, in the seventeenth century, was immense, employing not less than 40,000 boats of large tonnage between Lahore and Tatta. In some of the districts near the Indus, manufactures of silk goods are extensively carried on. The manufactured plain and striped silks are considered to surpass in beauty those of any other country, and large quantities of them are every year exported to Caubul and Candahar.

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The chief trading marts on the banks of the Indus, and in the Punjaub, are Tatta, Haïderabad, the capital of Sinde, and the residence of the Ameers; Halla, Sihwan, the opulent town of Shikapoor, noted throughout India, Central and Western Asia, for the extensive banking and exchange transactions of its wealthy Hindoo bankers; Bukhur, Mitun Cote, Dhera Ghaza Khan, where the great festival of Sukhee Sarwur and fair of five days is held annually near the gorge of the Taht-i-Suleiman mountains; Dhera Ismael Khan, Kalabagh, Attock, Loodiana, Umritsir, Moolтan, Bhawalpore, Lahore, &c. The banks of the Chenab and the Ravee abound in coal mines. From the above named entrepôts there is an extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans of camels, with the various countries of Central, Western, and Northern Asia, to the west—and also with the great trading marts of Kashgar, and Yarkand in Chinese Turkestan, Lhà-sà, or "land of gods," and other chief towns in Tibet, to the east of the Hindú-Kush, and north of the Himalaya; all which produce many articles of great commercial value, and take in exchange a great variety of the products and manufactures of China, India, and the western nations.

Yarkand has 200,000 inhabitants, and is surrounded by a number of towns and villages, which are very populous. Traffic is very active, as Chinese traders from Shanse, Keagnan, and Chekeang, proceed thither to meet traders not governed by China. Raw silk is cultivated in large quantities; but the staple article is the wool of the shawl goat, (akheha.) The dumba sheep, with a large tail, is abundant. The celebrated *yu*, or jade-stone, is found near Yarkand in great abundance. Large quantities of gold and silver brocades are manufactured. Merchandise pays a duty of ten per cent.

Tibet possesses the precious metals in great abundance. The first rate Chinese sycee—the native silver of the country—contains some parts of gold, and is said to surpass in fineness and purity that of any other country in the world.

Leh, the capital of Ladak, or Little Tibet, from its central situation, has become the great thoroughfare of the caravan trade from Yarkand, Hlasa, and Russia, to Cashmere, Lahore, and India. The route from Serinagur, the capital, to Leh, 150 miles, crosses the Himalaya mountains in latitude 34° 5′ north. The trade is extensive, and a source of profit to the Ladakians. The principal article of export is wool of the wild goat, the common breed of this and the neighboring countries, of which the Cashmere shawls are manufactured. The fleece is finer in Ladak than elsewhere, and Leh is the chief entrepôt of the wool. It is also supplied from Rodok and Tibet, and 800 camel loads of the picked wool is exported annually to Cashmere. The hair is made into ropes, coarse sacking, and blankets, for home consumption. Much of the transportation over the mountains of Ladak is done upon sheep, each carrying twenty-five to thirty pounds weight. The largest trade of Ladak is with Yarkand.

Captain Conolly, in his "Journey to the North of India," in 1830, states that English goods generally sold in Bokhara at the rate of 150 to 200 per cent. profit upon prime cost at Bombay; and that the net profit of the Lohani Afghan merchants gained upon the sale of British goods at Candahar and Herat, was 100 per cent. upon prime cost in British India. Mohun Lal, the Cashmerian, states, in his travels in Afghanistan, that at Candahar and Herat a particular description of cotton, woollen, and

silk goods, subject to a duty of only 10 per cent., readily sell from twice to four times their prime cost at Bombay. White cotton goods find a ready sale in Cashmere, in return for shawls and various kinds of Cashmerian fabrics. The coarse though more durable cotton goods of the Russian are greatly preferred throughout Central Asia to those of English manufacture, which of late years have been too much fabricated for the cheap sale of a showy but slight article.

The whole foreign trade of Caubul in 1835 was estimated by Mr. Masson, the late British agent in Afghanistan, at about £1,000,000 sterling; since which time, it is stated to have greatly increased.

A valuable commerce in wool has been opened by the British with the Belooch and Afghan tribes, and has extended even as far as the eastern portion of the province of Korasan. The flocks of sheep possessed by the nomad and other tribes of Central Asia are exceedingly numerous, and the expense of transit by means of camels is trifling. An unlimitd supply of wool is obtained at a comparatively low price.

Sinde and the Punjaub are as quiet and peaceful as any of the provinces of British India, and, by the latest accounts, more prosperous than most of them. Very large appropriations have recently been made by the native governments for the construction of roads, to facilitate commercial intercourse throughout their own territories, and with the adjoining countries. Associations have been formed by the native chiefs for the purpose of improving the agriculture of the country; and native workmen have been sent to Bombay to become proficient in various branches of industry, and learn how to construct implements that may be of advantage to them at home.

Nearly all the Malwa opium is shipped at Kurrachee. It is stated, on good authority, that the production of the drug in that district, in 1847, amounted to 30,000 chests. The product of Patna, Benares, &c., on the other side of India, including that of Damaun, is estimated at about the same quantity. These 60,000 chests find their way almost exclusively to the markets of China, where they are sold and bought nominally, as a contraband article, at $600 per chest, more or less, = $36,000,000.*

Besides the route of the Indus there is an extensive commercial intercourse, by caravans, with Beila, Kelat, Candahar, Herat, Caubul, and the chief trading marts of Central Asia, through the richest and most populous portion of Beloochistan, from the Belooch port of Sonmeanne, in the province of Lus, west of Kurrachee. There is also another route through Persia, from the port of Bushire, or Abushire, "the father of cities," in the Persian gulf. Ispahan is the principal emporium of Persia, and on the great line of communication between Afghanistan, India, Chinese Turkestan, Tibet, and China, on the east; and Turkey, Egypt, and the Mediterranean, on the west. A considerable number of its chief merchants have capitals embarked in trade, which vary from $400,000 to $800,000 each; and not only control, in a great degree, the whole trade

* It is estimated by Montgomery Martin that the number of opium smokers in China exceeds three millions. The pernicious practice is rapidly increasing among all classes of the Chinese, attended with the most deleterious consequences to the health, morals, and welfare of its votaries. It is, moreover, highly detrimental to their legitimate commerce, by draining the country of its specie, and thus depriving them of the means of extending their trade with foreign nations; and it is to be feared will finally lead to the general demoralization, empoverishment, and ruin of the empire.

of Persia, but are able also, it is said, to influence prices in the markets of Western and Central Asia.

Russia imports, overland, raw cotton from Persia, Khaurism, Bokhara, and Kokan, and other countries of Central Asia. It is short staple, and only fit for spinning by hand, or to be converted into wadding. The importation of cotton, wool, and yarn, from those and other countries, into Russia, is progressively increasing; the latter is principally employed in weaving cloth of an ordinary texture, and for making candle-wick. The cotton cloth called *Persians*, formerly extensively manufactured in Shiraz and Ispahan, and now successfully imitated in England, Germany, and Russia, forms the largest amount of the imports from those countries into Persia. The demand for cotton prints, and American cotton goods, is said to be rapidly increasing in all the countries of the East.

Tibet is accessible on the east by the route of the great river Brahmaputra, or "son of Brahma;" the Dzangbo, its principal upper affluent, having its sources near those of the Indus, but flowing in an opposite direction, passes near Tshoo Lomboo, and within about 30 miles of Lhasa. After leaving the mountain ranges of the Himalaya, it runs through the valley of Assam 500 miles in a southwest direction, where it receives 34 rivers descending from the north, and 24 from the south mountains of that province, all of which are navigable from the sea for steamers and trading vessels of some size, as far as Sonpura, 12 miles above Sudya, and 600 miles from the sea, or about the 96th meridian. The Brahmaputra falls into the bay of Bengal, near the mouth of the Ganges, and its entire length, including the Dzangbo, is about 1,500 miles.

The *ficus elasticus*, or India-rubber tree, abounds in all the forests of Assam, and frequently attains the height of 100 feet. The juice is procured by the natives from transverse incisions made in the larger roots of the tree, which are for the most part half exposed. The flow of the juice takes place principally from the bark; half a maund, or 41 pounds, may be considered a fair average of each bleeding. This province alone, it is calculated, will be able to meet all demands for that highly useful article. The tea tree is indigenous to the soil, and is successfully cultivated on the plantations belonging to the "Assam Tea Company" of London, and the company have established a line of steamers between Calcutta and Sudya. Several of their shipments of Assam tea have averaged 2*s.* 6*d.* sterling per pound in London.

Cotton is not grown in the province, but cotton goods are extensively imported from Bengal. The trees producing lac are also of great importance to the province. Still more important are several species of *Tetranthera*, on which is fed the Assam silk-worm, producing the silk known in common as *mazan kuri* and *moonga*. Three-fourths of the upper classes of the Assamese are clothed in silks of domestic manufacture. A sample of a new rice denominated *bocca dhanya*, the produce of a certain part of the province, has lately been sent from Gowhatty to Calcutta. The chief quality of this rice is, that if it is kept for twenty minutes either in cold water or milk, it is sufficiently cooked, and becomes eatable.

At a late meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society of London, a specimen was presented of the inner bark of a tree indigenous in Assam, called *odassi* by the natives, strips of which are made into rope for the capture of wild elephants. The fibre is very strong, especially when wet, and

the donor of the sample is of the opinion that it might be advantageously introduced into the manufactories of England.

Among the Abors, or "Independent" tribe of this province, every village forms a democratical republic by itself, and is governed by laws enacted by all the inhabitants in a formal meeting. This meeting is called *Roj*, which evidently signifies the "sovereignty," or "republic." It is held in the morning, and every male inhabitant has an equal vote. Some few, either by their superior wealth, hereditary reputation, or real ability, exert a very strong influence over the rest, and can readily sway them to any measure they like. The *Roj*, however, is extremely jealous, and very vigilant in pursuing their democratical rights. Hence they have laws which make the public burdens fall equally on all. In the middle of the village is the *morang*, a large building, which serves as a hall of audience and debate, as a place for reception of strangers, and as a dwelling for the bachelors of the village generally, who by their laws are not entitled to the aid of the community for the construction of a separate house. Their orators seemed to have studied rhetoric, and to have considered its effects upon the minds of their countrymen: they speak in a remarkably emphatic style, dwelling upon each word and syllable. They are wonderfully fond of holding their political meetings, at which they are heard with the utmost patience, and without any interruption; and in this particular they are certainly much superior to many civilized nations. If, in an affair of importance, the assistance of their neighbors is required, they send an ambassador to the other republics, who are charged to make proposals, or to accept what has been proposed by another community.

The other principal native Assamese tribes are the Singphos, Booteas, Ratteras, Duplas, Nishmis, Miris, Khasias, Doms, Kacharis, Gelongs, and Nagas. Various dialects are spoken, but the Assamese is the principal language. Portions of the Holy Scripture, and also numerous tracts and elementary works, have been translated into it by the Rev. N. Brown, A. M., and his colleagues of the American Baptist mission to Assam. One of the number, the Rev. O. T. Carter, of the Sibsigar station, commenced in January, 1846, a monthly periodical of a religious and miscellaneous character, in the Assamese, called the Orunodoi, or "Rising Dawn."

S. POLICY OF ENCOURAGING IMMIGRATION OF CHINESE AGRICULTURAL LABORERS TO CALIFORNIA.—RAILROAD FROM THE MISSISSIPPI TO THE BAY OF SAN FRANCISCO.

With the view of bringing the fertile lands in California under early cultivation, I would suggest the policy of encouraging immigration of agricultural laborers from China to that territory. No people in all the East are so well adapted for clearing wild lands and raising every species of agricultural product, especially rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and silk, as the Chinese. They are the principal cultivators, agricultural laborers, mechanics, and ship-carpenters, throughout the various islands of the Indian Archipelago, Java, Borneo, Penang, Singapore, Malacca, Siam, Cochin China, the Philippine islands, &c., where they are estimated to exceed 2,000,000, nearly one-fourth of whom are established in Siam: the culture of sugar, the principal export of that country, is almost exclusively in their hands. A large amount of the traffic, and a greater proportion of

the carrying trade of those countries, is conducted by them. The better class of the settlers are described as enterprising, keen, laborious, and persevering; and those in traffic, expert, speculative, and judicious.

The establishment of a colony of Chinese cultivators at some eligible location on the coast of California, would, as a natural consequence, attract thither their trading junks, and lead to the opening of a direct commercial intercourse from thence with China, and all the eastern countries with which the Chinese carry on their junk trade. The superabundance of the population of that immense empire, annually compels vast numbers to emigrate. A channel for emigration once opened, great multitudes from that over-peopled country would wend their way to California. Some of their junks are of 1,500 to 2,000 tons burden, and frequently arrive at Singapore, and other places in the Indian Archipelago, with 1,200 emigrants on board, seeking employment. The junks are divided into seven or more different compartments, water-tight, usually belonging to different persons on board for the voyage. They are now beginning to build fast-sailing ships after our models. The greater proportion of emigrants are from Amoy, in the province of Fokien.

Emigration, instead of being prohibited as formerly, under severe penalties, is now encouraged by the Mandarins. A considerable number of Chinese coolies have been engaged to work for a term of years, at low wages, on the coffee and sugar plantations of the French island of Bourbon. Arrangements are in progress, under the sanction of the colonial authorities of Australia, to introduce the culture of sugar, cotton, and rice, on an extensive scale, in tropical Australia, and to supply the planters with predial laborers from China. Several ship loads of natives of the New Hebrides and Solomon's group have likewise been imported into the same colony, to serve as shepherds and agricultural laborers.

The commodious port of *San Francisco* is destined to become the great emporium of our commerce on the Pacific; and so soon as it is connected by a railroad with the Atlantic States, will become the most eligible point of departure for steamers to Oregon, Japan, China, the Indian Archipelago, &c. Coal of an intermediate species between bituminous and anthracite, burning more easily than the latter, but a little harder, and giving out less smoke than the former, has been recently found in large strata in its vicinity.

It is stated, on reliable authority, that the country along the valley of San Joaquin, between the bay of San Francisco and the Mississippi, is comparatively level, presenting less difficulties in execution, and more advantages in a commercial point of view, than any other projected route for a railroad between the Atlantic and Pacific, within the territorial limits and occupancy of the United States.

By this route it is proposed "that the railroad should start from the Mississippi, near the mouth of the Ohio, or at such a point that the navigation will never be interrupted by ice; thence to the vicinity of Arkansas; thence along the prairie ridge, which separates the waters which flow into Arkansas from those which flow into the Mississippi and Missouri, to the point where the road passes from Missouri to New Mexico, and by San Miguel, to Santa Fe; thence up the valley to Rio del Norte, to the mouth of Abeca creek; thence through a pine forest of low sandy hills, ninety miles, to the Rio de la Plata, which is a tributary of the San Juan, and this is a tributary of the Colorado. It should cross the last named river

to the northwest side, and proceed along the trail from Santa Fe to California to a point between the Mahawee river and the San Bernadine mountains; thence through about ten miles of low hills to the great valley of the San Joaquin; thence down that fertile valley about five hundred miles on a level, to the tide-water of the bay of San Francisco. By this route the road will pass over a dead level of about eight hundred miles at the eastern, and about five hundred miles at the western end; will have no mountains to cross; will be really free from snow in all parts; and will afford an outlet from New Mexico to both oceans, to terminate at the best port on the western coast of America." (See appendix D.)

9. Ship canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The five points indicated by the illustrious Humboldt, by which an artificial communication may be opened between the two oceans, are the following:

1. The isthmus of Tehuantepec, between the sources of the Rio Chimalapa, which has its outlet in the Pacific, and the Rio del Passo, which falls into the Huasacualco, and the latter which empties into the Atlantic.
2. The isthmus of Nicaragua, between the lake of Nicaragua, forming the source of the river San Juan, which has its embouchure in the Atlantic, and the gulfs of Nicoya and Papagayo, or port of Realejo, on the Pacific.
3. The isthmus of Panama.
4. The isthmus of Darien, or Cupica.
5. The isthmus between the Rio Atrato, which falls into the Atlantic, and the Rio Chocó, which falls into the Pacific.

With respect to the first of the above routes, which is about one hundred and twenty miles across in a straight line, the sand-banks and quicksands at or near the mouth of the Chimalapa, and moveable sand-bars of San Francisco, on the Pacific; the want of a good harbor at the embouchure of the Huasacualco on the Atlantic; the number of rapids on both rivers, and the intermediate elevations to be surmounted, would appear to render impracticable a ship canal at this point. M. Deflot de Mofras, late member of the French legation in Mexico, carefully explored this route by order of the French government in 1842, and made a topographical map of the isthmus, which is appended to the report of his surveys. After specifying in his report the various difficulties of the route, he states emphatically, "of all the communications between the Atlantic ocean and the South sea, that of the isthmus of Tehuantepec appears to us the last that should be adopted."

From the various surveys that have been made of the third, fourth, and fifth routes above indicated, it appears that neither of them is practicable for a ship canal, and would require the construction of intermediate railroads to complete the communication between both oceans.

M. De Mofras concurs with Humboldt in opinion that the second of the above routes, viz: lake Nicaragua and river San Juan, is the only practicable oceanic ship canal between the Atlantic and Pacific, and has incontestable advantages over all the others; though not the shortest, it is considered the best, on account of the good harbors which exist at each end, and the great natural advantages afforded by the river and the lake, and the favorable nature of the country through which the canal would

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have to be cut. Levels taken by eminent Spanish engineers, show that the lake is about 128 feet 3 inches above the level of the Pacific at low tide. The tide rises 12 feet on the coast at the port of San Juan of the South; and there is no essential difference between the levels of the two oceans.

The lake of Nicaragua is about 90 geographical miles long, by 40 wide in the widest part, with an average breadth of 20 miles, and is from 2 to 15 fathoms deep. A number of islands are scattered over its surface, the principal of which are Omotepa, Madera, Zapatera, Sanate, Salentinane, and Zapote. The first is the largest, and is inhabited by natives, who have two settlements on it called Moyogalpa and San Jorge. All the islands are well adapted for cultivation, and are covered with a variety of fine timber. The Rio Frio and several large rivulets empty into the lake. It is about 20 miles distant from lake Leon, or Managua, which is 35 miles in length by 16 in breadth, and united to the former by the river Tipitapa, navigable for small vessels to Pasquiel, within a mile of the rapids of that river, which have a fall of 13 feet. The lake is 28 feet 8 inches higher than the Nicaragua, about the same depth, and is fed by a number of small streams. It is about 29 miles from the port of Realejo, on the Pacific.

The western coast of the lake of Leon is twenty-six feet above the level of the lake. From hence the land rises gradually for a distance of 2,725 yards to an elevation of fifty-five feet six inches; here is then the culminating point, whence the ground gently descends to the ocean.

At a distance of eleven miles from the western shore of the lake, on the line which the canal should take to join Realejo, we find the river Tosta, which, at this spot, is thirty-four feet above the lake; and of course its source, issuing at the foot of the volcano Telica, must be much more elevated. This river would supply the canal with abundance of water, being, on an average, sixty-five feet wide, and six feet deep at low water. The rapidity of its current, which appears to be considerable, has not been estimated.

Captain Sir Edward Belcher, R. N., who explored this country in 1838, states:

"We pitched our observatory near the sea-margin, at the base of the volcano of Conseguina, or Quisiguina, and having completed the requisite observations, started with the *Starling* and boats to explore the Estero Real, which I had been given to understand was navigable for *sixty miles;* in which case, from what I had seen of its course on my visit to the Viejo, it must nearly communicate with the lake of Managua.

"After considerable labor, we succeeded in carrying the *Starling* thirty miles from its mouth, and could easily have gone further had the wind permitted, but the prevailing strong winds rendered the toil of towing too heavy.

"We ascended a small hill about a mile below our extreme position, from which angles were taken to all the commanding peaks. From that survey, added to what I remarked from the summit of the Viejo, I am satisfied that the stream could have been followed many miles higher; and I have not the slightest doubt that it is fed very near the lake of Managua. I saw the mountains beyond the lake on its eastern side, and no land higher than the intervening trees occurred. This, therefore, would be the most advantageous line for a canal, which, by *entire lake navigation*, might be connected with the interior of the States of San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and extended to the Atlantic. Thirty

navigable miles for vessels drawing ten feet, we can vouch for, and the natives and residents assert sixty more. But steamers will be absolutely necessary, to tow against the prevalent breezes."

The river San Juan is the common outlet of both lakes, and is about 104 miles long, having its embouchure in the port of *San Juan of the North*, on the Atlantic, in 10° 56′ 45″ north latitude, and 83° 43′ 14″ west longitude. It varies in width from 100 to 400 yards; has a gentle current of 1 to 1½ mile per hour, with a depth of 2½ to 9 fathoms at low water; the average depth of the channel is 3 to 5 fathoms, but it is subject to a considerable rise and rapid current during the rainy season, from May to November. It receives the waters of the rivers San Carlos, Sarapiqui, and numerous large creeks, and is navigable at all seasons for vessels drawing 3½ to 4 feet water. The principal, and in fact the only difficulty now experienced in navigating the river, is owing to four obstructions, consisting of ledges of rocks and large stones in its bed, called Machucha, Balas, Castillo, Viejo, and Toro, all within a space of ten miles, and between which the channel is 3 to 6 fathoms deep. The largest of these obstructions, that of Machucha, does not exceed a mile in extent.

The port of San Juan de Nicaragua, or Del Norte, according to the accounts given by Messrs. Baily, Rouhaud, Dumartray, and several other French officers, is extremely large and safe.

By inspecting the plan drawn on the annexed map, in 1832, by Mr. G. Peacock, of H. M. ship *Hyacinth*, it will be found that the bar is capable of admitting large ships, and that the roadstead affords a good shelter from the northerly winds which prevail with great violence in those roads.

The Colorado diverges from the San Juan in 10° 50′ north latitude, and after running in a southwesterly direction, falls into the sea in 10° 46′, forming a dangerous bar. This river abstracts from the main stream a considerable quantity of water, the opening from the San Juan being twelve hundred feet wide, and having in the deepest part nine feet of water at the lowest state of the river. From measurements of this section, carefully taken at two different periods, in May when at the minimum, and in July when much increased by freshes, it appears from calculation, that at the first period the loss of water from the river was 28,178 cubic yards per minute, and at the latter observation as much as 85,840 cubic yards. The main current being thus suddenly weakened, the motion of the water becomes sluggish, and the natural effect is, that deposites of sand and mud are formed, which gradually augment where the movement of the water is feeble; trunks of trees and other floating bodies grounding on these, small islets are formed by successive aggregations, which soon become covered with rank grass, reeds, and other herbaceous plants of rapid growth; a great number of these mounds have been thus raised, and the progress of formation is continually going on. The usual methods of clearing the beds of rivers could here be applied with facility and good effect, as the accumulations are nothing more than silt and sand, with occasional logs buried underneath. A dam across the Colorado branch, constructed on such of the well known plans as might be judged the most efficient, would be indispensable. Then the reforced body of water, aided, if necessary, by the resources of art, would, by the momentum of its increased velocity, soon clear a channel to the depth that should be deemed requisite: other parts of the river where such operations might be wanted, could be improved by nearly similar methods, as the

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bottom is every where composed of mud and sand, except about the rapids, where it is of rock or loose stones.

The port of *San Juan of the South*, on the gulf of Papagayo, in the Pacific, is in 11° 15′ 57″ north latitude, and 85° 52′ 56″ west longitude. It is small, but sufficiently commodious, surrounded by high land, except on the south-southwest, where it is open to the sea. The depth of water is from 3 to 6, 7, 8, and 9 fathoms, at the distance of 300 yards from the shore. The entrance is about 1,100 yards wide; the anchorage tolerably good, with a muddy bottom. The prevailing winds on this part of the coast are from the north and northeast, which sometimes blow with great violence, and make it difficult for vessels to enter the port. Fresh water may be had at a short distance from the beach; fish is abundant, but nothing else but fire-wood is to be had. The country is uninhabited, and there is no settlement nearer than the town of Nicaragua, 7 to 8 leagues distant.

The country is well suited to agriculture, and capable of almost every species of improvement; the climate is good and salubrious; the temperature moderate, as the heat seldom exceeds 84° to 86° Fahrenheit.

From this port to the embouchure of the river Lajas, on the western shore of lake Nicaragua, in 11° 24′ 7″ north latitude, and 85° 46′ 39″ west longitude, by a route following the lowlands, valleys, and ravines in the dividing ridge, is 28,408 yards—in a direct line, 20,401 yards; and the highest intervening peak 615 feet above the Pacific, according to the surveys made by Mr. Bailey, an English engineer, in 1837 and 1838.

The river Lajas varies from 25 to 100 yards in breadth, with depth of water from 1 to 3 fathoms; the bottom is of mud to a further depth of several feet, beneath which there is in some places rock or stone: this has been ascertained by repeated borings. The bank on one side is thickly wooded for a distance inland of about 300 to 400 yards: on the opposite side there is a dense growth of wild cane of great extent.

The port of *Realejo*, also situated in the State of Nicaragua, is in 12° 28′ north latitude, and 87° 12′ west longitude. It is a good and safe harbor, and there is sufficient depth of water for vessels to come within half a mile of the city. In the time of the Spanish government several large ships were built at this port, which has better and more durable timber, and affords greater facilities for ship building, than Guayaquil, or any other port to the south, on the Pacific.

Captain Belcher also surveyed the harbor of Realejo, in 1838, as given in the annexed map of Nicaragua: he states that "it has two entrances, both of which are safe, under proper precaution, in all weather. The depth varies from two to seven fathoms, and good and safe anchorage extends for several miles; the rise and fall of tide is eleven feet, full and change three hours six minutes. Docks or slips therefore may easily be constructed, and timber is readily to be procured of any dimensions; wood, water, and immediate necessaries and luxuries, are plentiful and cheap. The village of Realejo is about nine miles from the sea, and its population is about one thousand souls. The principal occupation of the working males is on the water, loading and unloading vessels. It has a custom-house and officers under a collector, comptroller, and captain of the port."

The proposed canal between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans, commencing at the port of San Juan, and terminating at the port of Realejo, would traverse, 1st, the river San Juan, which, according to Mr. Bailey,

is, with its windings, ninety English miles, and one hundred and four miles according to the narrative journal of Mr. G. Lawrance, master and assistant-surveyor of Her Majesty's surveying vessel *Thunder*, in March, 1840; 2d, the lake of Nicaragua, which is ninety geographical miles long; 3d, the river of Tipitapa, joining the lake of Nicaragua to that of Leon, a course of twenty miles; 4th, the lake of Leon or Managua, which is thirty-five miles; 5th, the isthmus between the lake of Leon and the port of Realejo, twenty-nine miles.

RECAPITULATION.

Length of the river San Juan - - - -	104	miles.
" " lake of Nicaragua - - -	90	"
" " river Tipitapa - - - -	20	"
" " lake Leon - - - -	35	"
" " isthmus between the lake Leon and the Pacific ocean - - - -	29	"
Total length of the communication between the two seas	278	"

Of which only about eighty-two miles would be required to be worked.

The government of the "Republic of Central America" having, in 1825, through Señor Cañas, its minister plenipotentiary to the United States, invited proposals for the construction of a ship canal by this route, I was induced to send out a special agent to Guatemala on the business in the fall of that year. The person I employed on that agency was the late Colonel Charles de Beneski, a Polish officer of superior talents and indomitable energy of character, who had served as military secretary and aid-de-camp to Iturbide, when emperor of Mexico. He met with great opposition from "The British Atlantic and Pacific Canal Company," which was then before the British Parliament for a charter, with a capital of one million sterling; and it was understood had offered their agent in Guatemala a bonus of £30,000, in the event of his obtaining from the federal government of Central America an exclusive grant to the company for the construction of the canal.

Notwithstanding the intrigues and machinations of his rivals and opponents, Colonel de Beneski succeeded on the 14th of June, 1826, in concluding a contract, as my duly authorized agent *ad hoc*, with Francisco Gomez de Arguello, Secretary of State and of the Treasury of the supreme government of the federal republic of Central America, acting in pursuance of a decretal order of the Congress of that republic, of the 20th May preceding, granting me and my associates the exclusive privilege of making the canal, and enjoying the sole profits thereof, under certain restrictions. The contract is sealed with the great seal of the republic, and is executed with all the authenticity of a public treaty. It is also duly attested under the seal of the legation of the United States, by Colonel John Williams, then resident American minister at Guatemala, who was present at the execution thereof.

With the view of giving an early inception to so magnificent an enterprise, under the most favorable auspices, on the 5th October of the same year I executed a deed of trust to my illustrious and lamented friend De

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Witt Clinton, then governor of the State of New York, investing him with plenary powers to organize a company with a capital of $5,000,000, the estimated cost of the work, to carry it into execution. Arrangements were made with our government to send out the late General Bernard and Captain Poussin, his aid, then topographical engineers in the service of the United States, to make careful surveys of the proposed route, and estimates of the cost of the canal. In the month of November following I went over to England, with the object of interesting British capitalists in the undertaking; but owing to political disturbances in Guatemala, which resulted in the dissolution of the republic of Central America, a general revulsion in commercial credit, and other untoward events at the time, my mission to England proved abortive; the company which had been provisionally organized by Governor Clinton never went into operation, and I sustained a very heavy pecuniary loss by the transaction.

The following copy of a letter from Governor Clinton to the gentlemen appointed his associate trustees, will show the high importance he attached to the enterprise, and the spirit in which it was intended to be carried into operation by himself and co-trustees. The execution of the deed of trust, on his part, was witnessed by the Hon. William L. Marcy, then comptroller of the State of New York, and was duly attested under the great seal of the State.

[Private.] Albany, *October* 6, 1826.

Gentlemen: Considering the importance of the grant made by the Central government of America to Mr. Palmer, its binding nature and authentic character, (having been attested by Colonel Williams, our minister,) I have considered it my duty to enter into the arrangements which will be shown to you, confidently hoping that you will associate your labors with mine in this great undertaking, and fully believing that no injurious responsibility can accrue, and that great good may be done. Early measures will be taken to procure an act of incorporation from our legislature, and the whole character of the transaction will be free from the taint of speculation.

I am sincerely yours,

DE WITT CLINTON.

S. Van Rensselaer,
C. D. Colden,
P. Hone, and
L. Catlin, Esqs.

From the best information I have been enabled to obtain on the subject, the difficulties to be surmounted in the construction of an oceanic canal by the above indicated route would appear to be rather political than physical, on account of the unsettled state of public affairs in Central America for many years past, without any stable government to negotiate with for the cession of the required portion of territory through which it is proposed to open the canal. It ought to be a national work, not a privileged monopoly, conferred on any private association or corporate body; open to the transit of vessels, merchandise, and passengers of all nations, upon the same footing, subject to fixed and uniform rates of toll; and, under the management of a local board of commissioners, not amenable to the

jurisdiction or control either of the government or public authorities, State or federal, of that republic, except in cases to be specially provided for.

Entertaining these views in regard to this magnificent project, I would respectfully recommend that negotiations be opened as early as practicable by our government with the actual government of "the States of Central America," for the purpose of obtaining permission to explore and survey the proposed route for a ship canal from one ocean to the other; and also to ascertain the terms and conditions upon which that government would agree to surrender its title and jurisdiction to the required portion of territory through which the canal may be opened in the State of Nicaragua, and that competent engineers be employed by our government, so soon as such permission is obtained, to explore and survey the isthmus at different points, and ascertain the most feasible route for a ship canal, in order to enable it to adopt such ulterior measures as may be deemed expedient and requisite to carry the enterprise into execution: and also that negotiations be opened by our government with such European governments as would probably be disposed to co-operate in promoting the object, especially those of Great Britain, France, Holland, Belgium, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, for the purpose of entering into arrangements to accomplish the great end in view, through common means and united exertions.

In 1842 the British authorities of the Balise took under their guardianship an Indian boy, chief of the Mosquito tribe of Indians, occupying the Mosquito shore of the bay of Honduras, and claimed in his favor not only the right of sovereignty of that territory from the cape of Honduras, but also the adjacent coast of Nicaragua to the mouth of the river San Juan of the North. The British consul, Mr. Walker, resident at Blewfields, is the guardian of the boy, who is dignified with the title of "King of Mosquitia," and is about 15 years of age. The consul governs in the King's name, and the minor is educated under his inspection, by English teachers, who give him daily lessons. It is understood at Blewfields by the most intelligent persons, that the port of San Juan will soon be occupied by British forces, in the name of the King of Mosquitia.

Señor Sebastian Salinas, Minister of Foreign Relations of the government of Nicaragua, has addressed an official communication to Mr. Chatfield, consul general of her Britannic Majesty to the States of Central America, in which, after remonstrating energetically against the assumed sovereignty of the pretended King of Mosquitia over any portion of the territory of Nicaragua, he concludes by declaring that Nicaragua will consider as an act of war any attempt on the part of the Mosquito Indians, and their confederate the British, to take possession of the port of San Juan; that she will resist all these encroachments to the death, and will appeal to the other Christian and impartial nations of the earth to aid and assist her against this unlawful usurpation and invasion of her territory. (See appendix E, and the annexed map of the State of Nicaragua.)

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PROSPECTUS.

THE

UNKNOWN COUNTRIES OF THE EAST;

THEIR

PRESENT STATE, PRODUCTIONS, AND CAPABILITIES FOR COMMERCE;

INCLUDING

A COMPREHENSIVE DIGEST OF THE PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES, TRADE, COMMERCE, TARIFFS, DUTIES, COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS, MONEYS, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, EXPORTS AND IMPORTS, OF THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF ASIA AND EASTERN AFRICA;

AMERICAN TREATIES WITH CHINA, SIAM, MUSCAT, AND SOOLOO; AMERICAN CONSULS AND MISSIONARIES IN THE EAST,
&c. &c. &c.

TOGETHER WITH BRIEF NOTICES OF

THE CUSTOMS, RELIGIONS, LANGUAGES, ETC., OF VARIOUS ORIENTAL NATIONS.

Collected from the latest accessible authorities—Asiatic, Oriental, European, and American—and intended as a guide for American commerce and intercourse with the East.

BY AARON H. PALMER,

Counsellor of the Supreme Court of the United States, Corresponding Member of the National Institute, Washington, and of the Royal Economical Society of the Philippines, Manilla, &c. &c. &c.

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REPUBLIK INDONESIA

Testimonial of the Hon. ROBERT J. WALKER, *Secretary of the Treasury, in favor of the work.*

NEW YORK, *August* 11, 1847.

SIR: I have read the synopsis of the book you are about publishing, entitled "The Unknown Countries of the East," as also considerable portions of the work itself. Independent of the value of the work as a literary production, it is eminently calculated to enlarge our commerce.

As soon as it is published, I will supply the several bureaus of the Treasury Department with copies, as also the principal custom-houses.

For myself, individually, as a small evidence of my appreciation of your great and valuable labors, I will take five copies, and regret that my limited means do not allow me to subscribe for a larger number.

Most respectfully, your obedient servant,

R. J. WALKER.

AARON H. PALMER, Esq.

SYNOPSIS OF THE COUNTRIES DESCRIBED IN THE WORK.

ISLAND OF ASCENSION. ISLAND OF ST. HELENA. COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE. *Cape Town, Simon's Town, Port Elizabeth, Port Natal.*

EAST COAST OF AFRICA, from *Port Natal* to the Island of *Socotra*, viz: *Delagoa bay, Inhambane bay, Sofala, the Cuama or Zambesi river, Quilimane, Great Lake N' Yassi, &c.*, in the interior, *Island of Mozambique, Querimba, Macaloe bay, Mongallou river, Lindy river.*

ZANGUEBAR. *Quiloa, Zanzibar, Latham's island*, covered with guano. *Mombas, Melinda, Patte, Lamoo, River Joob, Town of Joob or Soahel, Brava, Magadoxa.* ISLAND OF SOCOTRA.

Tribes of the east coast of Africa, and their languages, &c.

COMORO ISLANDS. *Comoro, Johanna.* Translation of letter from Sultan of Comoro Islands to the author, giving a list of articles suitable for that market. *Mayotta* and *Mohilla.*

ISLAND OF MADAGASCAR. *Bembatouka bay, St. Augustine's bay, Tamative, &c.*

ISLAND OF MAURITIUS. *Port Louis, &c., Seychelles*, and dependencies.

ISLE OF BOURBON. *St. Denis, &c.*

ABYSSINIA. *Ankober, Tigré, &c.* Ports of *Masuah* and *Dahlac*, on the Red Sea; *Berberah, Zeila*, and *Tajourah*, on the Gulf of Aden. Languages of Abyssinia.

THE RED SEA, OR ARABIAN GULF.

PORTS ON THE AFRICAN COAST. *Port Mornington, Suakin, Cossier, Suez,* PROJECTED CANAL from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea.

ARABIA.

THE HEDJAZ, and PILGRIMAGES TO MECCA. Ports on the Arabian coast. *Arabia Petræa.—Tor, Gulf of Akaba, Yambo, Djedda.*

YEMEN PROPER, AND THE IMAMAT OF SANA.—*Sana, Mareb* or *Saba. Himyarites, Himyaritic Inscriptions at Mareb, Arabic language, &c.*
Loheia, Hodeida, Bat-el-Fakih, Mocha.

ADEN, a dependency of Bombay. Halting station for the bi-monthly steamers between Suez, Bombay, China, &c.

SOUTHERN COAST OF ARABIA.—*Maculla, Island of Masera, Rass-el-gat, &c.*

IMAMAT OF OMAN OR MUSCAT.—*Muscat.* Town named *El-Ofir*, said to have been discovered within a few years past, on the coast of *Oman.* Treaty between the United States and the Iman of Muscat. *Bahrein Islands*, on the Arabain shore of the Persian gulf. *Bassorah*, (Asiatic Turkey,) on the Euphrates.

PERSIA.—Principal towns of Persia, and trading marts and ports on the PERSIAN GULF and CASPIAN. *Persian Language. Zend, Zendavesta.* Extracts from the translations of the inscriptions in the cuneiform or arrow-headed characters on the celebrated monument of Darius Hystaspes, at Behistun, by Major Rawlinson.

BELOUCHISTAN. Ports of *Posmee, Churbar, Gutter bay, Gwadel, Sonmeanne, &c.*

SINDE. *Hoïdrabad, Shikarpoor, Dhera Ghaza Khan, &c. Kurrachee*, principal port. Steam navigation on the *Indus*, and the rivers of the *Punjaub.* Recent establishment of a commercial line of steamers between *Bombay, Kurrachee, Attock*, and the principal towns of the Punjaub.

PUNJAUB. *Lahore, Umritsir, &c.* CASHMERE. *Serinagur.* New history of Cashmere, &c.

LADAK. *Leh, Iskardo, &c.*

AFGHANISTAN. *Caubul, Candahar, Peshwar, Herat.*

KHANAT OF KOONDOOZ. *Koondooz, Khooloom, &c.*
" BOKHARA. *Bokhara, Samarkand, Balk, &c.*
" KAURISM. *Khiva, Urghem, Anbari, &c.*
" KHOKAN. *Khokan, Tashkend, Turkestan, Andejan, Khojend.* Immense caravan trade of Central Asia, with the Punjaub, Caubul, China, Russia, and Siberia.
Rivers Amu Derya or *Oxus*, and *Syr Derya* or *Jaxartes*, and *lake Aral.*

PERPUSTAKAAN NASIONAL

HINDOSTAN.

CUTCH. Ports of *Mandavee, Luckput Bunder, &c.*

GUJERAT. Ports of *Surat, Cambay, Baroach, &c.*

BOMBAY. Progress of cotton culture in India, &c. *Goa Damaun, Diu,* (Portuguese.) LACCADIVE ISLANDS. MALDIVE ISLANDS. *Male.*

ISLAND OF CEYLON. *Colombo, Point de Galle, Trincomalee, &c.* Cingalese and Tamil languages.

TRANQUEBAR, ceded by Denmark to Great Britain in 1846.

PONDICHERRY &c., (French.) MADRAS. CALCUTTA. New Bengal tariff, with the differential duties. Statement of the progress of American trade with Calcutta, &c.

ANGLO BURMAN PROVINCES.

ASSAM. *Bisnuth, Gowhatty, &c.* Large forests of India-rubber trees; culture of tea, &c. ARAKAN, *Arakan, Akyab, &c.* TENNASSERIM. *Maulmain, Tavoy, Mergui, &c.*

BURMAH PROPER. *Ameerapoora, Rangoon.* Burmese language.

ANDAMAN ISLANDS.—(English.)

NICOBAR ISLANDS.—(Danish.)

SIAM. *Bankok Chantibun, &c.* Siamese language, &c. Treaty between the United States and the king of Siam. Onerous tonnage duties and monopoly of the foreign trade by the king; unsatisfactory state of our commercial relations with Siam.

ANNAM, or COCHIN CHINA. *Hué, Turon, &c.* Annamese language.

INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS OF PENANG, or PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND, PROVINCE OF WELLESLEY, MALACCA, and SINGAPORE. Description of *gutta percha*, a product of the Indian Archipelago, which is becoming an important article of export to Europe and the United States.

SUMATRA. Kindom of *Acheen, Quallah Battoo,* and the pepper ports, *Padang, Bencoolen, Palembang, &c.* BANKA RHIO.

JAVA.—*Batavia, Samarang, Sourabaya, &c.* Javanese, Pali, and Malay languages, &c. BALLY. LOMBOCK. SUMBHAWA. TIMOR. TIMOR-LAUT. SERAWATTA ISLANDS. BABA. TENIMBER ISLANDS. KI ISLANDS. ARRU GROUP. *Dobbo,* the mart of a considerable traffic. PAPUA. Account of the recent exploration of the island by H. B. M. ship Fly, &c. CERAM-LAUT. GORAM ISLANDS. BANDA, or SPICE ISLANDS. *Banda, Amboyna, Booroo, Ceram, Mysol.* GILOLO. TERNATE. TIDORE.

CELEBES. *Bonthain bay, Boolecomba, Salayer, Bouton, Gonong, Tello, Kemar, Manado, Sangir. Bujis of Waju,* the most enterprising and commercial nation of the Archipelago. Their language and litera-

ture; synopsis of their maritime code of laws, &c. Dutch port of MACASSAR. Proclamation of the governor general of Netherlands, India, of 9th September, 1846, declaring it a free port. Account of a voyage to Celebes, by *Rajah Brooke*, of Sarawak, Borneo.

BORNEO. *Borneo Proper. Island of Labuan, Territory of Sarawak,* and *Island of Maratabo*, British possessions. *Sambas, Pontianak, Banjarmassin, Coti, &c.*, Dutch settlements. Proclamation of the governor general of Netherlands, India, of the 28th February, 1846, defining the Dutch jurisdiction in Borneo, and appointing a Governor over the Dutch possessions of the island. Islands of *Balambangan, Banguey, and Cagayan Sooloo.*

SOOLOO GROUP. SOOLOO PROPER. *Soung.* Commercial treaty between the United States and the Sultan of Sooloo.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS. *Manilla.* Description of the Provinces of the Philippines and their dependencies, the MARIAN ISLANDS. Native languages of the islands. *Bashee Islands.*

NEW ROUTE OF STEAM COMMUNICATION BETWEEN ENGLAND, SINGAPORE, AND SIDNEY, through the INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO, by the way of BATAVIA, PORT ESSINGTON, and WEDNESDAY ISLAND, in TORRE'S STRAITS.

NORTH AND NORTHEAST COASTS OF AUSTRALIA.

PORT ESSINGTON. TORRE'S STRAITS. *Cape York*, recently surveyed; safe roadstead, &c.

LOOCHOO ISLANDS. *Napakiang, Ou Ting*, or *Port Melville*; safe harbor, possessing great facilities for careening and repairing vessels, &c. Tributary to China and Japan.

BONIN ISLANDS. *Port Lloyd, Fitton bay, &c.*

COREA. Port of *Fung-Chang. Quelpaert's island.* Commerce with Manchuria, China, and Japan. *Corean language.*

JAPAN. *Nangasaki, Ohosaca, Miaco, Yedo, &c.* Government, laws, religions, language, literature, &c. American intercourse with the Japanese, &c.

KURILE ISLANDS, Russian and Japanese, No. 1 to No. 22, the Japanese dependency of YESO, or MATSUMAY.

YESO. *Matsumay, Chakodade, &c.* Islands said to contain very rich mines of gold and silver; possesses several fine bays and harbors. Lucrative clandestine traffic of the Russian fur traders with the Japanese Kurilians. Whales very abundant in the vicinity of those islands.

ISLAND OF TARAKAY, or SAGHALIEN. Its ports on the gulf of Saghalien, sea of Japan, and gulf of Tartary, in the possession of the native *Ainos* tribes, favorably situated for fishing, whaling, and trading with the neighboring islands and countries of northeastern Asia. Convention between the United States and Russia, 5th April, 1824.

PERPUSTAKAAN NASIONAL
REPUBLIK INDONESIA

CHINA.

Tabular statistical view of *China proper*. Internal trade of China, northern, central, and southern. Principal articles of export and import. Coasting trade with China. Treaty between the United States and the Chinese empire. Tariff of duties on exports and imports. Description of *Canton, Amoy, Fuchau, Ningpo, Shanghai, Chusan, &c.*

COLONIAL DEPENDENCIES OF CHINA.

MANCHURIA. *Moukden.* Ports on the gulf of Tartary, *Castrie's bay, Ternoy bay, Saffren bay*, and on the gulf of Leaotong, *Kinchou, &c.* The great river *Amûr* or *Saghalien*, and its affluents; navigation of, now tacitly permitted by the Chinese government—navigable upwards of 500 leagues from its embouchure in the gulf of Saghalien. Native tribes inhabiting its banks, &c. Manchu language, &c.

MONGOLIA. *Ourga, &c.* Mongolian language.

SOUNGARIA, or THIAN SHAN PELOO. *Guldsha, &c.*

CHINESE TURKESTAN, or THIAN SHAN NANLOO. *Yarkand, Kashgar, Kouche, Khouten, &c., &c.* Oigoorian language, &c.

TIBET. *Lhasa, Tshoo Lomboo, &c.;* Budhist religion, the predominant creed in Asia; many of its forms and ceremonies borrowed from the early Nestorians. Tibetan language and literature.

SIBERIA. *Omsk, Tobolsk, Tomsk, Irkoutsk, Yakoutsk, Okotsk.* Valuable products and rich gold mines. Siberian mammoth. *Lake Baikal*, navigated by steamers. Peninsula of KAMTSCHATKA. Chief town *Petropaulski.* Immense extent of inland navigation on the rivers of Siberia, and extensive caravan trade with China and Central Asia. Its ports of *Okotsk* and *Ajan*, on the gulf of Okotsk, favorably situated for foreign commerce. Native tribes of Siberia, &c. Rapid extension of facilities for inter-communication by rivers, canals, and railroads in the Russian Empire.

RUSSIAN TRADE WITH CHINA AT KIATKA. Secret instructions of the Chinese Government to their traders at Kiatka, &c.

APPENDIX.

PROPOSED MISSION TO THE EAST AND CONSULAR PLAN for a portion of the countries described in the work; submitted by me to Hon. James Buchanan, Secretary of State, under date of the 28th November, 1846; by whom it was transmitted to the House of Representatives, in compliance with its resolution of the 9th February, 1847, and printed with the Public Documents of the last session of Congress.

STEAM NAVIGATION ON THE PACIFIC, &c.

SHIP CANAL FROM THE ATLANTIC TO THE PACIFIC, &c.

CATALOGUE OF THE AUTHORS CONSULTED IN PREPARING THE WORK.

"THE UNKNOWN COUNTRIES OF THE EAST"

Will form a superroyal octavo volume of 800 to 1,000 pages, to be printed on fine paper and new type.

Price per copy, in cloth, embossed and lettered	-	-	$5 00
" " full sheep, lettered	-	-	5 62½
" " calf, " -	-	-	5 87½
" " half Russia, " -	-	-	5 62½
" " full Turkey morocco, super-extra gilt	-		7 75

In addition to the American treaties with China, Siam, Muscat, and Sooloo, the work contains the British and French treaties with China; the British treaties with the independent eastern nations, excepting those with the native princes whose dominions are within the British East India possessions, or under British protection; and I shall endeavor to procure and give abstracts of the latest European treaties with all the oriental kingdoms and states. Brief bibliographical notices of the principal oriental languages, with lists of the best grammars, dictionaries, &c., are given for the guidance of the American student.

The authorities and sources of information for a considerable portion of the work have been derived through an extensive correspondence with the East, as director of the American and Foreign Agency of this city, first commenced in 1830; since when I have regularly received many of the leading journals, prices current, &c., of China, India, the Indian Archipelago, Australasia, and the Cape Colony.

In compiling it I have had the advantage of free access to the large and valuable collections of the latest foreign publications on oriental geography, philology, commerce, voyages and travels, in the East, imported by my friends Wiley & Putnam, Bartlett & Welford, and John Doyle, booksellers of this city. Much valuable information respecting the East has also been obtained from recent missionary periodicals, European and American, Protestant and Catholic.

In order to render the work as accurate and comprehensive as possible on the various important subjects of which it treats, I am induced to solicit the aid of Congress, to enable me to visit Europe to procure the latest maps, charts, hydrographical surveys, and reports of scientific explorations in the East by the English, French, Dutch, and Russians, together with official returns of the trade, commerce, &c., of Eastern Africa and Asia. These are chiefly to be found in the India House, Admiralty, House of Lords and House of Commons, London; and in the bureaux of the respective Ministers of Commerce and Marine, at the Hague, Paris, and St. Petersburg.

A hydrographical survey of the Archipelago of the Philippine islands was completed a few years since by order of the Spanish government and sent to Madrid, a copy of which, as it has not been published, I am solicitous of procuring for the work, as also the latest official returns of the trade and commerce of those islands, which are very productive, with an aggregate population of upwards of 4,200,000. Our trade with the colony, now restricted to Manilla, is of increasing value and importance, and susceptible of greater development by the adoption of a more liberal commercial policy on the part of the Spanish government.

PERPUSTAKAAN NASIONAL
REPUBLIK INDONESIA

The English have lately completed new hydrographical surveys of the east coast of Arabia, the Persian gulf, and the coast of China between Hong Kong and Shanghai, and the Pescadore and Chusan Archipelago. They are also progressing with surveys of the northern coasts of that empire, the Japanese seas, and the coasts of Corea and Manchuria. Baron Melvill de Carabee, an officer of the Dutch navy, has been engaged during the last twelve years in making scientific surveys of the Indian Archipelago and the Dutch East India possessions. The island of Madagascar, the east coast of Africa, and Abyssinia, have recently been surveyed by the French. The Russian surveys of the coasts of Siberia, Manchuria, the Russian and Japanese Kurile islands, and the northern Pacific ocean, are said to be the latest and best extant. These are of special importance to us at the present time in consequence of the great increase of our commerce and whale fishery in those seas, and the contemplated establishment of a line of American trans-Pacific steamers to China, to connect with the line now in progress from Panama to Oregon. Our present charts of those coasts, islands, and seas, are very inaccurate. The American whale ship Lawrence was shipwrecked, as before related, upon a ledge of rocks lying within three degrees of the Kurile islands, not laid down on any chart.

Besides the above mentioned official authorities, I am desirous of consulting the transactions of the principal Asiatic, Oriental, and Geographical societies of Europe* for the late and valuable information they embody respecting the geography, hydrography, ethnography, &c., of the eastern countries described in the work—all which would enable me to make it a reliable authority for intelligent legislation and action in the future diplomatic and commercial relations of the United States with the East—greatly enhance the value and utility of the work in every branch of the public service, and also be the means of vastly extending our oriental commerce. I have reason to believe that the national comity and courtesy of the British, as well as the other foreign governments, would be extended to me in furtherance of the proposed object, were it sanctioned by the authority of Congress.

The expenses of the journey to Europe, and for procuring and engraving on steel a series of the requisite maps, charts, &c., for the work, will not probably exceed $10,000, for which a special appropriation and subscription by Congress for 2,000 to 3,000 copies of the work is respectfully solicited. Were the appropriation and subscription to be immediately made, it could be got ready for delivery by the first of January, 1849. The copyright to remain my property; the original maps, charts, hydrographical surveys, &c., that may be procured by me in Europe, to be deposited in the library of Congress upon the completion of the work.

All which is respectfully submitted by your excellency's most obedient servant,

AARON H. PALMER.

*The Royal Geographical Society of Berlin reckons among its members the "Universal" Humboldt and the eminent geographer Carl Ritter. The works of the former on the geology, orography, &c., of Central Asia, and of the latter on the physical geography of the Asiatic continent, are generally acknowledged to be the best extant.


Outline Map
of
NORTH EASTERN ASIA.
and the
ASIATIC ISLANDS of the NORTHERN PACIFIC OCEAN.
drawn from the latest accessible authorities
by
AARON H. PALMER.
an Absentee late Merchant
GEOGRAPHICAL, POLITICAL AND COMMERCIAL
on
Siberia. Manchuria &c.
addressed to His Excellency James K. Polk, President of the United States
under date of the 15th June 1846 & authorized by order of the Senate of the United States
YAKOUTSK
SIBERIA
KOUTSK
OCHOTSK
SEA
KAMTSCHATKA
KORIAKS
SEA OF ANADYR
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS
FOX ISLANDS
ANDREANOVSKI ISLES
MANCHURIA
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APPENDIX A.

On the Tea plant, from "Fortune's Wanderings in China," and "Williams's Middle Kingdom."

"There are few subjects connected with the vegetable kingdom which have attracted such a large share of public notice as the tea-plant of China. Its cultivation on the Chinese hills, the particular species or variety which produces the black and green teas of commerce, and the method of preparing the leaves, have always been objects of peculiar interest. The jealousy of the Chinese government in former times, prevented foreigners from visiting any of the districts where tea is cultivated; and the information derived from the Chinese merchants, even scanty as it was, was not to be depended upon. And hence we find our English authors, contradicting each other; some asserting that the black and green teas are produced by the same variety, and that the difference in color is the result of a different mode of preparation; while others say that the black teas are produced from the plant called by botanists *Thea Bohea*, and the green from *Thea viridis*, both of which we have had for many years in our gardens in England. During my travels in China since the last war, I have had frequent opportunities of inspecting some extensive tea districts in the black and green tea countries of Canton, Fokien, and Chekiang: the result of these observations is now laid before the reader. It will prove that even those who have had the best means of judging have been deceived, and that the greater part of the black and green teas which are brought yearly from China to Europe and America are obtained from the same species or variety, namely, from the *Thea viridis*. Dried specimens of this plant were prepared in the districts I have named, by myself, and are now in the herbarium of the Horticultural Society of London, so that there can be no longer any doubt upon the subject. In various parts of the Canton provinces where I have had an opportunity of seeing tea cultivated, the species proved to be the *Thea Bohea*, or what is commonly called the black tea plant. In the green tea districts of the north—I allude more particularly to the province of Chekiang—I never met with a single plant of this species, which is so common in the fields and gardens near Canton. All the plants in the green tea country near Ningpo, on the islands of the Chusan Archipelago, and in every part of the province which I have had an opportunity of visiting, proved, without exception, to be the *Thea viridis*. Two hundred miles further to the northwest, in the province of Kiang-nan, and only a short distance from the tea hills in that quarter, I also found in gardens this same species of tea. Thus far my actual observations exactly verified the opinions I had formed on the subject before I left England, viz: that the black teas were prepared from the *Thea Bohea*, and the green from *Thea viridis*. When I left the north, on my way to the city of Foo-chow-foo, on the river Min, in the province of Fokien, I had no doubt that I should find the tea hills there covered with the other species, *Thea Bohea*, from which we generally suppose the black teas are made; and this was the more likely to be the case as this species actually derives its specific name from the Bohea hills in this province. Great was my surprise to find all the plants on the tea hills near Foo-chow exactly the same as those in the green tea districts of the north. Here were, then, green tea plantations on the black tea hills, and not a single

plant of the *Thea Bohea* to be seen. Moreover, at the time of my visit, the natives were busily employed in the manufacture of black teas. Although the specific differences of the tea plant were well known to me, I was so much surprised, and I may add amused, at this discovery, that I procured a set of specimens for the herbarium, and also dug up a living plant, which I took northward to Chekiang. On comparing it with those which grow on the green tea hills, no difference whatever was observed. It appears, therefore, that the black and green teas of the northern districts of China (those districts in which the greater part of the teas for the foreign markets are made) are both produced from the same variety, and that that variety is the *Thea viridis*, or what is commonly called the green tea plant. On the other hand, those black and green teas which are manufactured in considerable quantities in the vicinity of Canton, are obtained from the *Thea Bohea*, or black tea.

" In the green tea districts of Chekiang, near Ningpo, the first crop of leaves is generally gathered about the middle of April. This consists of the young leaf buds just as they begin to unfold, and forms a fine and delicate kind of young hyson, which is held in high estimation by the natives, and is generally sent about in small quantities as presents to their friends. It is a scarce and expensive article, and the picking off the leaves in such a young state does considerable injury to the tea plantation. The summer rains, however, which fall copiously about this season, moisten the earth and air; and if the plants are young and vigorous, they soon push out fresh leaves. In a fortnight or three weeks from the time of the first picking, the shrubs are again covered with fresh leaves, and are ready for the second gathering, which is the most important of the season. The third and last gathering, which takes place as soon as new leaves are formed, produces a very inferior kind of tea, which is rarely sent out of the district. The mode of gathering and preparing the leaves of the tea plant is very simple. We have been so long accustomed to magnify and mystify everything relating to the Chinese, that, in all their arts and manufactures we expect to find some peculiar practice, when the fact is, that many operations in China are more simple in their character than in most other parts of the world. To rightly understand the process of rolling and drying the leaves, which I am about to describe, it must be borne in mind that the grand object is to expel the moisture, and at the same time to retain as much as possible of the aromatic and other desirable secretions of the species. The system adopted to attain this end is as simple as it is efficacious. In the harvest seasons, the natives are seen in little family groups on the side of every hill, when the weather is dry, engaged in gathering the tea leaves. They do not seem so particular as I imagined they would have been in this operation, but strip the leaves off rapidly and promiscuously, and throw them all into round baskets, made for the purpose out of split bamboo or ratan. In the beginning of May, when the principal gathering takes place, the young seed-vessels are about as large as peas. These are also stripped off and mixed with the leaves; it is these seed-vessels which we often see in our tea, and which has some slight resemblance to young capers. When a sufficient quantity of leaves are gathered, they are carried home to the cottage or barn, where the operation of drying is performed."

This is minutely described, and the author continues:

" I have stated that the plants grown in the district of Chekiang pro-

duce green teas, but it must not be supposed that they are the green teas which are exported to England. The leaf has a much more natural color, and has little or none of what we call the 'beautiful bloom' upon it, which is so much admired in Europe and America. There is now no doubt that all these 'blooming' green teas which are manufactured at Canton are dyed with Prussian blue and gypsum, to suit the taste of the foreign 'barbarians;' indeed the process may be seen any day, during the season, by those who give themselves the trouble to seek after it. It is very likely that the same ingredients are also used in dying the northern green teas for the foreign market; of this, however, I am not quite certain. There is a vegetable dye obtained from *Isatis indigotica* much used in the northern districts, and called *Teinsing*; and it is not unlikely that it may be the substance which is employed. The Chinese never use these dyed teas themselves, and I certainly think their taste in this respect is more correct than ours. It is not to be supposed that the dye used can produce any very bad effects upon the consumer, for, had this been the case, it would have been discovered before now; but if entirely harmless or inert, its being so must be ascribed to the very small quantity which is employed in the manufacture."

In short, the black and green teas which are generally exported to England and the United States from the northern provinces of China, are made from the same species; and the difference of color, flavor, &c., is solely the result of the different modes of preparation.

"The native names given to the various sorts of tea are derived for the most part from their appearance or place of growth; the names of many of the best kinds are not commonly known abroad. *Bohea* is the name of the Wu í hills, (or Bu-í, as the people on the spot call them,) where the tea is grown, and not a term for a particular sort among the Chinese, though it is applied to a very poor kind of black tea at Canton. *Sunglo* is likewise a general term for the green teas produced on the hills in Kiangsu. The names of the principal varieties of black tea are as follows: *Pecco*, 'white hairs,' so called from the whitish down on the young leaves, is one of the choicest kinds, and has a peculiar taste; *Orange Pecco*, called *shang hiang* or 'most fragrant,' differs from it slightly; *Hungmwey*, 'red plum blossoms,' has a slightly reddish tinge; the terms *prince's eyebrows, carnation hair, lotus kernel, sparrow's tongue, fir-leaf pattern, dragon's pellet*, and *dragon's whiskers*, are all translations of the native names of different kinds of Souchong or Pecco. *Souchong*, or *siau chung*, means *little plant* or sort, as *Pouchong*, or *folded sort*, refers to the mode of packing it; *Campoi* is corrupted from *kan pei*, i. e. carefully fired; *Chulan* is the tea scented with the chulan flower, and applied to some kinds of scented green tea. The names of green teas are less numerous: *Gunpowder*, or *ma chu*, i. e. hemp pearl, derives its name from the form into which the leaves are rolled; *ta chu*, or 'great pearl,' and *chu lan*, or 'pearl flower,' denote two kinds of *Imperial*; *Hyson*, or *yu tsien*, i. e. before the rains, originally denoted the tenderest leaves of the plant, and is now applied to *Young Hyson*; as is also another name, *mei pien*, or 'plum petals;' while *hi chun*, 'flourishing spring,' describes *Hyson*; *Twankay* is the name of a stream in Chehkiang, where this sort is produced; and *Hyson skin*, or *pi cha*, i. e. skin tea, is the poorest kind, the siftings of the other varieties; *Oolong*, 'black dragon,' is a kind of

black tea with green flavor. Ankoi teas are produced in the district of Nganki, not far from Tsiuenchau fu, possessing a peculiar taste, supposed to be owing to the ferruginous nature of the soil. De Guignes speaks of the Pu-'rh tea, from the place in Kiangsu where it grows, and says it is cured from wild plants found there; the infusion is unpleasant, and used for medical purposes. The Mongols and others in the west of China prepare tea by pressing it, when fresh, into cakes like bricks, and thoroughly drying it in that shape to carry in their wanderings.

"Considering the enormous labor of preparing tea, it is surprising that even the poorest kind can be afforded to the foreign purchaser at Canton, more than a thousand miles from the place of its growth, for eighteen cents and less a pound; and in their ability to furnish it at this rate, the Chinese have a security of retaining the trade in their hands, notwithstanding the efforts to grow the plant elsewhere. Comparatively little adulteration is practised, if the amount used at home and abroad be considered, though the temptation is great, as the infusion of other plants is drunk instead of the true tea. The poorer natives substitute the leaves of a species of Rhamnus or Fallopia, which they dry; Camellia leaves are perhaps mixed with it, but probably to no great extent. The refuse of packing-houses is sold to the poor at a low rate, under the names of tea endings and tea bones; and if a few of the rarest sorts do not go abroad, neither do the poorest. It is a necessary of life to all classes of Chinese, and that its use is not injurious is abundantly evident from its general acceptance and extending adoption; and the prejudice against it among some out of China may be attributed chiefly to the use of strong green tea, which is no doubt prejudicial. If those who have given it up on this account will adopt a weaker infusion of black tea, general experience is proof that it will do them no great harm, and they may be sure that they will not be so likely to be deceived by a colored article. Neither the Chinese nor Japanese use milk or sugar in their tea, and the peculiar taste and aroma of the infusion is much better perceived without those additions; nor can it be drunk so strong without tasting an unpleasant bitterness, which the milk partly hides. The Japanese sometimes reduce the leaves to a powder, and pour boiling water through them in a cullender, in the same way that coffee is often made."

APPENDIX B.

Convention between the United States and Russia, signed at St. Petersburg on the $\frac{5}{17}$th of April, 1824.

"ART. 1. It is agreed that in any part of the great ocean commonly called the Pacific ocean, or South sea, the respective citizens or subjects of the high contracting powers shall be neither disturbed nor restrained, either in navigation or in fishing, or in the power of resorting to the coasts, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives; saving always the restrictions and conditions determined by the following articles:

"ART. 2. With the view of preventing the rights of navigation and of fishing, exercised upon the great ocean by the citizens and subjects of the high contracting powers, from becoming the pretext for an illicit

trade, it is agreed that the citizens of the United States shall not resort to any point where there is a Russian settlement without the permission of the governor or commander; and that, reciprocally, the subjects of Russia shall not resort without permission to any establishment of the United States upon the northwest coast.

"ART. 3. It is, moreover, agreed that hereafter there shall not be formed by the citizens of the United States, or under the authority of the said States, any establishments upon the northwest coast of America, nor in any of the islands adjacent, to the north of 54 degrees 40 minutes of north latitude; and that, in the same manner, there shall be none formed by Russian subjects, or under the authority of Russia, south of the same parallel.

"ART. 4. It is nevertheless understood that during a term of ten years, counting from the signature of the present convention, the ships of both powers, or which belong to their citizens or subjects, respectively, may reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interior seas, gulfs, harbors, and creeks upon the coast mentioned in the preceding article, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives of the country.

"ART. 5. All spirituous liquors, fire arms, other arms, powder, and munitions of war of every kind, are always excepted from this same commerce permitted by the preceding article; and the two powers engage, reciprocally, neither to sell, nor suffer them to be sold, to the natives by their respective citizens and subjects, nor by any person who may be under their authority. It is likewise stipulated, that this restriction shall never afford a pretext, nor be advanced in any case, to authorize either search or detention of the vessels, seizure of the merchandise, or, in fine, any measure of constraint whatever towards the merchants or the crews who may carry on this commerce; the high contracting powers reciprocally reserving to themselves to determine upon the penalties to be incurred, and to inflict the punishment in case of the contravention of this article by their respective citizens or subjects."

APPENDIX C.

The following account of the shipwreck of the American whale ship Lawrence, Captain Baker, of Poughkeepsie, New York, upon rocks not laid down on any chart, lying within about three degrees of the Kurile islands, is contained in a letter of George How, second mate of the ship, dated at Batavia, 28th December, 1847, published in the "Singapore Free Press" of the 6th January, 1848:

"The *Lawrence*, under the command of Captain Baker, sailed from the port of Poughkeepsie, New York, on the 10th July, 1845, bound on a whaling voyage. On the 27th May, 1846, in latitude 44° 30′ north, longitude 153° east, in the vicinity of the Japan islands, we encountered a heavy gale, at which time we had a whale alongside, and kept the ship drifting free. At about 10 or 11 o'clock at night she struck on some rocks, and immediately fell over on her starboard side and bilged. Captain Baker then ordered his boat to be lowered, and taking some men with him, got into the boat, saying, as he left the ship's side, "each man for him-

self," or some other words to that effect. It was very dark at the time, and after he left the ship I saw nothing more of him. The first mate, Mr. Myers, then attempted to lower his boat with eight men in her, in doing which he accidentally slipped the bow tackle, which plunged her bows under water; and on the boat coming up under the counter, she was stove to pieces, and all except one man, whom I saved, must have perished. I could hear their cries in the water, but could not see any of them, as it was so dark. I then got the remaining boat ready and left the ship with seven men, who, I think, were all that were left of the crew. We took with us a little bread and water, and some harpoons and cordage, and steered about southwest. On the second day all the water and food we had were consumed, and from that day to our making the land we had nothing to subsist on. It snowed all the time, and we had hardly any covering on our bodies to protect us from the piercing cold. One of the men, named Hiram Yates, who was sick when he left the vessel, died on the third day, and we buried him in the sea. At last, on the 3d June we perceived land, for which we steered, and entered into a large bay where we could discover no marks of any human being. We landed and caught a seal, the meat of which we cooked and ate together with some grass we found near the beach. It was the only food we had tasted since the last four days. We then strolled along the beach, leaving one man to take care of the boat; and striking inland for about a mile, we came to a bamboo cottage, with a river running between it and us. We hailed repeatedly, but nothing made its appearance. We then sat down for about an hour, expecting to see somebody go in or out of the house; but as this did not happen, and it was getting dark, we returned to the boat. The man we had left in her told us that during our absence he had been visited by two men, whom he invited to come and sit with him, but they refused to do so. They then inquired of him, by signs, how many of us there were; and on his intimating to them our number, they appeared frightened and ran away.

"The next morning we got into the boat and steered for the mouth of a river on one side of the bay. As we approached it we saw what appeared to us to be a fort, with spears glistening in the sun above the walls; but on coming nearer we found it was a piece of cloth, extending about three-quarters of a mile, and painted so as to represent a fort with guns. Here, as we landed, about 60 men, armed with swords and spears, ran towards us and motioned us to go away. We, however, continued approaching them until we got very near, when we all fell on our knees before them. One of them came up to me and would have struck me down with his sword, but his hand was held back by an old man who stood behind him. I made signs to them that we were harmless people and wanted food. After much talking amongst themselves, they brought us some rice and fish, which we ate. They then again motioned us to be off. I took them to our boat and made signs to them that it was impossible for us to go to sea in such a small thing, and that if they would give us the materials for building a larger one, we would go away in it. On this there was another consultation amongst them, and one of them wrote something on a piece of paper and sent a man away with it. In about half an hour he returned with a letter, which was read aloud by one of them, and we were then ordered to get into our boat again, after being searched and deprived of everything we had about us. They then got another boat to tow ours up

the river, along which we proceeded in this way until we got into a lake, on one side of which stood a house covered all round with mats, which we were made to enter. We remained in it until night, when they came again with lanterns and ordered us to follow them, motioning to us that if we endeavored to go in any other direction we would be killed. We followed them on foot for 3 or 4 hours until we came to a town, where we were introduced into a brick building that appeared to us to be the prison of the town. They then locked us all up in a small cell, and kept a vigilant watch over us the whole of the night. In the morning we were blindfolded and led to the house of the governor, where we were questioned and examined, and asked if we were Englishmen, after which they led us again to our prison. Not a day passed without our being examined and questioned regarding our country, religion, and every other particular that could be thought of. They made themselves understood to us by signs, and principally by drawings on paper, at which they were very expert. In this prison we continued for about 11 months, and not once did we set a single foot out of it during that time. Every day we had an allowance of rice, fish, and water, and once they gave us a sort of liquor called sakie. We drank it, and it naturally revived us and made us feel a little more cheerful; they then again examined us and took down our depositions in writing, thinking, perhaps, that under the influence of the liquor we would give them whatever information we had before endeavored to suppress. About this time all the men, with myself, fell sick; and what with this, the miserable situation we were in, and the bad treatment we met with from our guards, who frequently struck us and insulted us in every possible way they could, we gave up all hopes of ever getting out of our prisons alive. We got better, however, and were informed that we had to go on to Jeddo, where the Emperor lived. They put us on board of a junk and stowed us all in the hold—a dark, filthy place; and during the time we were in her, some 3 or 4 months, not a single moment were we allowed to step on deck to breath the fresh air, or see the light.

"One day we were made to wash ourselves, and clean clothes were given us, and we were conducted into the cabin, which was beautifully fitted up with silk and gold ornaments. They then gave us each a carpet to sit upon, and made us understand that we had arrived at a city called Matsamai, where the Emperor's son lived, and that he was coming on board to see us. By and bye we heard a great stir outside, and all the people about us fell on their faces to the ground, and we were made to do the same. Shortly after, the prince entered the cabin, accompanied by a numerous suite. We were then again examined before him; and this time the questions were put to us by a Japanese who spoke Dutch, and who communicated with us through one of our men, Murphy Wells, who also spoke a little Dutch. This lasted for about an hour, after which the prince departed; and in the evening we received a box of sweetmeats, which they said was from him. He is a very young man, of handsome appearance, and on the whole seemed kindly disposed towards us. The next day we continued on our voyage, and were again left to the mercy of our jailors. We then arrived at another city, when we were each put into a box, the lid of which was fastened down upon us, and in this way we were carried to the town-hall. Here we underwent another examination, the questions being put to us by the same interpreter who acted in that capacity at Matsamai. Their chief object in this, as in all the examina-

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tions we went through, was to find out whether we were not really Englishmen; and I am of opinion that had we confessed ourselves of that nation, we would all have been killed. The interpreter told us to beware how we tried to mislead them, as they would find out who we were when we got to Nagasakie. They then brought a box from which they took out a print of the crucifixion, and told us to put our feet upon it. On our hesitating to do so, the guards drew out their swords and threatened to kill us, and so compelled every one of us to trample on the print, and spit upon it. A couple of epaulets were then shown to us—one an English naval officer's, and one an American—and we were asked which of them belonged to our country. After this we were again conducted to prison. One day we were again summoned to the town-hall, where we were surprised to see a man in European dress sitting amongst our judges. He took no notice of us at first, but sat writing and talking to the Japanese. At last he addressed us in Dutch, to which we did not reply; then in French, which we also did not understand. He then spoke English, and said: 'If there are any John Bulls amongst you, you had better not say anything about it.' He then interrogated us concerning our country, our religion, and the circumstances relative to our shipwreck, &c. &c., all which were again interpreted to the Japanese, and noted down in writing by them. He then told us he had some hopes we would all be set at liberty. The council then broke up, and we were taken again to prison. At this place one of the men tried to escape from prison, and was inhumanly murdered by the Japanese. He had made known his intentions to us previously, and we did all we could to dissuade him from it, but to no purpose, as he said he would rather die than suffer so much any longer. At last, after seventeen months in all of close and strict confinement, privation, and ill-treatment, we were liberated and sent to the Dutch factory. Here we were received by the director of the factory, Mr. Levyssohn, in whom we recognised the European who interrogated us at the town-hall, and to whose active and humane exertions we were indebted for our release: not only for this, but also for the kind, generous, and hospitable treatment we met with at his hands during the rest of our stay in Japan, are we under deep and lasting obligations to him.

"Ten days after, we were put on board the Dutch ship *Hertogenbosch*. Here we received the best possible treatment and attention until our arrival here, when we were handed over by the authorities to the United States consul, who, although in a very weak state of health, extended his protection towards us, and furnished us with a few articles of clothing, &c., we were so much in need of; for all which we feel extremely grateful.

"Your obedient servant,

"GEORGE HOW,

"*Second mate of the late ship Lawrence*,

"*for self and fellow-sufferers*."

The inhospitable and rigorous treatment of those shipwrecked American seamen by the Japanese, is in striking contrast with the philanthropy and kindness displayed by Captain Mercator Cooper, of the American whale ship Manhattan, in rescuing twenty-two Japanese mariners from a desert island and sinking junk, and making a considerable deviation from his voyage to land them at Yedo, the 17th of April, 1845; for which he

received the thanks of the Siogoon, and marked attentions of the high officers of his court, together with abundant supplies of wood, water, and provisions, free of charge, as stated in the before mentioned document, No. 96, H. R.

The "New Bedford Mercury" of the 16th May, 1848, contains the following account of the rescue of the crews of two Japanese junks in 1847, and the new whale fishery opened in the Japan seas; extracted from the "Polynesian" of the 25th December, 1847:

The whale ship Frances Henrietta, Captain Poole, of this port, fell in with, at sea, in May, latitude 42° north, longitude 150° east, a Japanese junk of 200 tons, dismasted, rudder gone, and otherwise injured in a typhoon *seven months previous*. The original number of the crew was seventeen, but when Captain Poole discovered them they were reduced to four, and in a famishing condition. The crew had drawn lots for some time past as to who should be killed and eaten; the one upon whom the lot fell, if able, fighting for his life, and in some instances succeeded in killing one of the others, in which case the murdered man was first eaten. The survivors were shockingly scarred with dirk and knife wounds; as if their lives had been often attempted by their companions. Captain Poole kept them on board his ship for thirty days, and then put them on board some fishing boats, close in shore, about latitude 40° north. They were exceedingly grateful, and manifested much emotion on leaving the whaler. The junk had not much of a cargo on board, or was in such a disgusting condition that the crew of the Frances Henrietta did not like to examine her minutely. They obtained, however, a number of interesting curiosities, such as books, idols, swords, pictures, fans, boxes, china ware, boxes of tools, &c., &c.

The Bremen ship Otaheite, Captain Wieting, had previously picked up another Japanese junk, relieved the distressed crew, and taken to Honolulu several thousand dollars worth of her cargo, which was sold at auction at that place, December 8th, and brought good prices, the sales realizing about $1,300, exclusive of twelve thousand pounds of beeswax, which was reserved to be sent to Europe. The Polynesian says:

"The junk's cargo appeared to consist of 'notions,' and the samples of Japanese merchandise were sufficient to show that they have many articles that could be profitably exported, and that their own skill and comfort could be materially increased by a foreign trade. Some copper, brass hoop, iron and iron wire, white lead, glue, ginger, and cinnamon, were of excellent quality. Their wrought copper utensils resemble in design and shape the metallic and earthen manufactures of the Mexicans and Peruvians of the 15th century; while their tools, although made of good iron and steel, are simple enough in construction to provoke the merriment of the greenest son of New England."

The Polynesian alludes to the landing at Japan, in April, 1847, of Capt. Jackson, of the whale ship Inez, of this port, under more favorable auspices than had before been allowed. The Japanese appeared friendly, offered to supply him with wood and water, but would permit no further intercourse and desired his departure; and it thinks the signs of the times are threatening to the exclusive policy which has been so rigidly maintained hitherto by the Japanese government.

"England, France, and the United States ardently desire to effect a

breach in this policy. They perhaps have too high a sense of national honor to do this by mere force of arms, but circumstances now appear to be preparing the way for their intervention in some shape. We believe the whaling fleet are destined to do something in this cause. A new fishery has been opened in the Japanese seas. Hundreds of enterprising whalers will the ensuing season cruise in all directions about their shores and in the bays in search of their game. The Japanese have no naval force to enforce respect to their inter-channel rights. The doctrine of a closed sea, however much they may desire to see preserved, they are powerless to enforce. The whalers will be tempted to land for wood, water, provisions, &c. Stress of weather, or some other contingency, may force some ashore. In this way some intercourse must be established. Humanity or necessity will demand it. Will the Japanese refuse? If they continue their policy of gratuitous hospitality, their patience may become exhausted at the increasing demands upon it, or their avidity may be awakened to receive something in return. If they abuse those who may thus be placed within their power, they afford the pretext which is so eagerly desired for interference on the part of some foreign power. If they commence trading in any way, the door for innovation is opened, and it will never be closed. Junks in distress will undoubtedly be met with by whalers. In case of such an event, we hope the master will have public spirit enough to carry the crew, with as much of the merchandise as he can save, to its port of destination. Such honorable conduct will favorably impress the Japanese, and we feel sure the master who thus acts will not suffer in his interests by so doing. The Japanese merchants will appreciate the deed, and through them the government may become more lenient. If they should decline to receive the rescued property or to pay a fair salvage, the master will then have a perfect right to it. But such a course cannot do otherwise than create a kindly feeling towards whale ships, and they may have occasion, cruising as they will in a comparatively unknown and dangerous sea, to require similar generosity at the hands of the Japanese. At all events, we hope masters of whale ships will lose no oportunity of favorably impressing the Japanese in regard to the respective nations they represent, and that they will make note of all information they can procure. Capt. Jackson's example in both these respects is deserving of commendation. We have not a doubt that if he should by chance drop into the same bay again, his old friends would secretly be rejoiced to see him. From his journal, they evidently were pleased to leave him there, but were afraid of their own government, and consequently made known to him, with courtesy, their wishes that he might leave.

"It would be good policy for the United States, England, and France, to keep each a national vessel cruising in Japanese waters while the whaling fleet is there. Their presence might be productive of good to both parties, and they would familiarize the Japanese with the sight of their flags."

APPENDIX D.

The very able and interesting "Geographical Memoir upon Upper California, in illustration of his map of Oregon and California, by John Charles Frémont, printed by order of the Senate, June 5, 1848," con-

tains much new and valuable information respecting the productive resources of that territory, derived from his various topographical surveys in the valleys of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, and the western slope of the Sierra Nevada. It is to be hoped that Congress, in view of Colonel Frémont's eminent qualifications and the great utility of his labors to the country, in illustrating the geography and topography of our territorial possessions on the Pacific, will enable him "to complete a map of Oregon and California, with topographical and descriptive maps of their most valuable parts, and a general map of the whole from the Mississippi river to the Pacific ocean."

The following extracts are taken from his memoir:

"*Western slope of the Sierra Nevada.*—The western flank of this Sierra belongs to the maritime region of California, and is capable of adding greatly to its value. It is a long wide slope, timbered and grassy, with intervals of arable land, copiously watered with numerous and bold streams, and without the cold which its name and altitude might imply. In length it is the whole extent of the long valley at its base, five hundred miles. In breadth, it is from forty to seventy miles from the summit of the mountain to the termination of the foot hills in the edge of the valleys below, and almost the whole of it available for some useful purpose—timber, pasturage, some arable land, mills, quarries—and so situated as to be convenient for use, the wide slope of the mountain being of easy and practicable descent. Timber holds the first place in the advantages of this slope, the whole being heavily wooded, first with oaks, which predominate to about half the elevation of the mountain; and then with pines, cypress, and cedars, the pines predominating; and hence called the pine region, as that below is called the oak region, though mixed with other trees. The highest summits of the Sierra are naked, massive granite rock, covered with snow, in sheltered places, all the year round. The oaks are several varieties of white and black oak, and evergreens, some of them resembling live oak. Of the white oak there are some new species, attaining a handsome elevation, upon a stem six feet in diameter. Acorns of uncommon size, and not bad taste, used regularly for food by the Indians, abound on these trees, and will be of great value for stock. The cypress, pine, and cedar are between 100 and 250 feet high, and five to twelve feet in diameter, with clean solid stems. Grass abounds on almost all parts of the slope, except towards the highest summits, and is fresh and green all the year round, being neither killed by cold in the winter, nor dried by want of rain in the summer. The foot hills of the slope are sufficiently fertile and gentle to admit of good settlements; while valleys, coves, beaches, and meadows of arable land are found throughout. Many of the numerous streams, some of them amounting to considerable rivers, which flow down the mountain side, make handsome fertile valleys. All these streams furnish good water power. The climate in the lower part of the slope is that of constant spring, while above the cold is not in proportion to the elevation."

"*Bay of San Francisco and dependent country.*—The bay of San Francisco has been celebrated, from the time of its first discovery, as one of the finest in the world, and is justly entitled to that character even under the seaman's view of a mere harbor. But when all the accessory advantages which belong to it—fertile and picturesque dependent country; mildness and salubrity of climate; connexion with the great interior valley of the Sacramento and San Joaquin; its vast resources for ship timber, grain and

cattle—when these advantages are taken into the account, with its geographical position on the line of communication with Asia, it rises into an importance far above that of a mere harbor, and deserves a particular notice in any account of maritime California. Its latitudinal position is that of Lisbon; its climate is that of southern Italy; settlements upon it for more than half a century attest its healthiness; bold shores and mountains give it grandeur; the extent and fertility of its dependent country give it great resources for agriculture, commerce, and population.

"The bay of San Francisco is separated from the sea by low mountain ranges. Looking from the peaks of the Sierra Nevada, the coast mountains present an apparently continuous line, with only a single gap, resembling a mountain pass. This is the entrance to the great bay, and is the only water communication from the coast to the interior country. Approaching from the sea, the coast presents a bold outline. On the south, the bordering mountains come down in a narrow ridge of broken hills, terminating in a precipitous point, against which the sea breaks heavily. On the northern side, the mountain presents a bold promontory, rising in a few miles to a height of two or three thousand feet. Between these points is the strait—about one mile broad in the narrowest part, and five miles long from the sea to the bay. Passing through this gate,* the bay opens to the right and left, extending in each direction about 35 miles, having a total length of more than 70, and a coast of about 275 miles. It is divided, by straits and projecting points, into three separate bays, of which the northern two are called San Pablo and Suisoon bays. Within, the view presented is of a mountainous country, the bay resembling an interior lake of deep water, lying between parallel ranges of mountains. Islands, which have the bold character of the shores—some mere masses of rock, and others grass covered, rising to the height of three and eight hundred feet—break its surface, and add to its picturesque appearance. Directly fronting the entrance, mountains a few miles from the shore rise about 2,000 feet above the water, crowned by a forest of the lofty *cypress*, which is visible from the sea, and makes a conspicuous landmark for vessels entering the bay. Behind, the rugged peak of *Mount Diavolo*, nearly 4,000 feet high, (3,770,) overlooks the surrounding country of the bay and San Joaquin. The immediate shore of the bay derives, from its proximate and opposite relation to the sea, the name of *contra costa* (counter coast, or opposite coast.) It presents a varied character of rugged and broken hills, rolling and undulating land, and rich alluvial shores backed by fertile and wooded ranges, suitable for towns, villages, and farms, with which it is beginning to be dotted. A low alluvial bottom land, several miles in breadth, with occasional open woods of oak, borders the foot of the mountains around the southern arm of the bay, terminating on a breadth of twenty miles in the fertile valley of St. Joseph,* a narrow plain of rich soil, lying between ranges from two to three thousand feet high. The valley is openly wooded with groves of oak, free from underbrush, and after the spring rains covered with grass. Taken in connexion with the valley of San Juan, with which it forms a continu-

* Called *Chrysopylæ* (golden gate) on the map, on the same principle that the harbor of *Byzantium* (Constantinople afterwards) was called *Chrysoceras* (golden horn.) The form of the harbor, and its advantages for commerce, (and that before it became an entrepot of eastern commerce,) suggested the name to the Greek founders of Byzantium. The form of the entrance into the bay of San Francisco, and its advantages for commerce, (Asiatic inclusive,) suggest the name which is given to this entrance.

ous plain, it is fifty-five miles long and one to twenty broad, opening into smaller valleys among the hills. At the head of the bay it is twenty miles broad, and about the same at the southern end, where the soil is beautifully fertile, covered in summer with four or five varieties of wild clover several feet high. In many places it is overgrown with wild mustard, growing ten or twelve feet high, in almost impenetrable fields, through which roads are made like lanes. On both sides the mountains are fertile, wooded, or covered with grasses and scattered trees. On the west it is protected from the chilling influence of the northwest winds by the *cuesta de los gatos*, (wild-cat ridge,) which separates it from the coast. This is a grassy and timbered mountain, watered with small streams, and wooded on both sides with many varieties of trees and shrubbery, the heavier forests of pine and cypress occupying the western slope. Timber and shingles are now obtained from this mountain; and one of the recently discovered quicksilver mines is on the eastern side of the mountain, near the Pueblo of San José. This range terminates on the south in the *Anno Nuevo* point of Monterey bay, and on the north declines into a ridge of broken hills about five miles wide, between the bay and the sea, and having the town of San Francisco on the bay shore, near its northern extremity.

"Sheltered from the cold winds and fogs of the sea, and having a soil of remarkable fertility, the valley of St. Joseph (San José) is capable of producing in great perfection many fruits and grains which do not thrive on the coast in its immediate vicinity. Without taking into consideration the extraordinary yields which have sometimes occurred, the fair average product of wheat is estimated at fifty fold, or fifty for one sown. The mission establishments of *Santa Clara* and *San José*, in the north end of the valley, were formerly, in the prosperous days of the missions, distinguished for the superiority of their wheat crops.

"The slope of alluvial land continues entirely around the eastern shore of the bay, intersected by small streams, and offering some points which good landing and deep water, with advantageous positions between the sea and interior country, indicate for future settlements.

"The strait of *Carquines*, about one mile wide and eight or ten fathoms deep, connects the San Pablo and Suisoon bays. Around these bays smaller valleys open into the bordering country, and some of the streams have a short launch navigation, which serves to convey produce to the bay. Missions and large farms were established at the head of navigation on these streams, which are favorable sites for towns or villages. The country around the Suisoon bay presents smooth low ridges and rounded hills, clothed with wild oats, and more or less openly wooded on their summits. Approaching its northern shores from *Sonoma* it assumes, though in a state of nature, a cultivated and beautiful appearance. Wild oats cover it in continuous fields, and herds of cattle and bands of horses are scattered over low hills and partly isolated ridges, where blue mists and openings among the abruptly terminating hills indicate the neighborhood of the bay.

"The *Suisoon* is connected with an expansion of the river formed by the junction of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, which enter the Francisco bay in the same latitude, nearly, as the mouth of the Tagus at Lisbon. A delta of twenty-five miles in length, divided into islands by deep channels, connects the bay with the valley of the San Joaquin and Sacra-

mento, into the mouths of which the tide flows, and which enter the bay together as one river.

" Such is the bay, and the proximate country and shores of the bay of San Francisco. It is not a mere indentation of the coast, but a little sea to itself, connected with the ocean by a defensible gate, opening out between seventy and eighty miles to the right and left, upon a breadth of ten to fifteen, deep enough for the largest ships, with bold shores suitable for towns and settlements, and fertile adjacent country for cultivation. The head of the bay is about forty miles from the sea, and there commences its connexion with the noble valleys of the San Joaquin and Sacramento.

" *Coast country north of the bay of San Francisco.*—Between the Sacramento valley and the coast, north of the bay of San Francisco, the country is broken into mountain ridges and rolling hills, with many very fertile valleys, made by lakes and small streams. In the interior it is wooded, generally with oak, and immediately along the coast presents open prairie lands, among heavily timbered forests, having a greater variety of trees, and occasionally a larger growth than the timbered region of the Sierra Nevada. In some parts it is entirely covered, in areas of many miles, with a close growth of wild oats, to the exclusion of almost every other plant. In the latter part of June and beginning of July, we found here a climate sensibly different from that of the Sacramento valley, a few miles east, being much cooler and moister. In clear weather the mornings were like those of the Rocky mountains in August, pleasant and cool, following cold clear nights. In that part lying nearer the coast, we found the mornings sometimes cold, accompanied with chilling winds; and fogs frequently came rolling up over the ridges from the sea. These sometimes rose at evening, and continued until noon of the next day. They are not dry, but wet mists, leaving the face of the country covered as by a drizzling rain. This sometimes causes rust in wheat grown within its influence, but vegetables flourish and attain extraordinary size.

" I learned from Captain Smith, a resident at *Bodega*, that the winter months make a delightful season—rainy days (generally of warm showers) alternating with mild and calm, pleasant weather, and pure bright skies—much preferable to the summer, when the fogs and strong northwest winds, which prevail during the greater part of the year, make the morning part of the day disagreeably cold.

" Owing probably to the fogs, spring is earlier along the coast than in the interior, where, during the intervals between the rains, the ground becomes very dry. Flowers bloom in December, and by the beginning of February grass acquires a strong and luxuriant growth, and fruit trees (peach, pear, apple, &c.) are covered with blossoms. In situations immediately open to the sea the fruit ripens late, generally at the end of August, being retarded by the chilling influence of the northwest winds: a short distance inland, where intervening ridges obstruct these winds and shelter the face of the country, there is a different climate and a remarkable difference in the time of ripening fruits; the heat of the sun has full influence on the soil, and vegetation goes rapidly to perfection.

" The country in July began to present the dry appearance common to all California as the summer advances, except along the northern coast within the influence of the fogs, or where the land is sheltered by forests, and in the moist valleys of streams and coves of the hills. In some of these was an uncommonly luxuriant growth of oats, still partially green,

while elsewhere they were dried up; the face of the country presenting generally a mellow and ripened appearance, and the small streams beginning to lose their volume, and draw up into the hills.

"This northern part of the coast country is heavily timbered, more so as it goes north to the Oregon boundary, (42°,) with many bold streams falling directly into the sea."

"The climate of maritime California is greatly modified by the structure of the country, and under this aspect may be considered in three divisions: the *southern*, below point Concepcion and the Santa Barbara mountain, about latitude 35°; the *northern*, from cape Mendocino, latitude 41°, to the Oregon boundary; and the *middle*, including the bay and basin of San Francisco and the coast between point Concepcion and cape Mendocino. Of these three divisions the rainy season is longest and heaviest in the north, and lightest in the south. Vegetation is governed accordingly—coming with the rains—decaying where they fail. Summer and winter, in our sense of the terms, are not applicable to this part of the country. It is not heat and cold, but wet and dry, which mark the seasons; and the winter months, instead of killing vegetation, revive it. The dry season makes a period of consecutive drought, the only winter in the vegetation of this country, which can hardly be said at any time to cease. In forests, where the soil is sheltered; in low lands of streams and hilly country, where the ground remains moist, grass continues constantly green and flowers bloom in all the months of the year. In the southern half of the country the long summer drought has rendered irrigation necessary, and the experience of the missions, in their prosperous day, has shown that in California, as elsewhere, the dryest plains are made productive, and the heaviest crops produced, by that mode of cultivation. With irrigation a succession of crops may be produced throughout the year. Salubrity and a regulated mildness characterize the climate; there being no prevailing diseases, and the extremes of heat during the summer being checked by sea breezes during the day, and by light airs from the Sierra Nevada during the night. The nights are generally cool and refreshing, as is the shade during the hottest day.

"California, below the Sierra Nevada, is about the extent of Italy, geographically considered in all the extent of Italy from the Alps to the termination of the peninsula. It is of the same length, about the same breadth, consequently the same area, (about one hundred thousand square miles,) and presents much similarity of climate and productions. Like Italy, it lies north and south, and presents some differences of climate and productions, the effect of difference of latitude, proximity of high mountains, and configuration of the coast. Like Italy, it is a country of mountains and valleys: different from it in its internal structure, it is formed for *unity;* its large rivers being concentric, and its large valleys appurtenant to the great central bay of San Francisco, within the area of whose waters the denominating power must be found.

"Geographically, the position of this California is one of the best in the world; lying on the coast of the Pacific, fronting Asia, on the line of an American road to Asia, and possessed of advantages to give full effect to its grand geographical position."

APPENDIX E.

The States of Central America are Costa Rica, Guatimala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and San Salvador: they are divided into forty eight *partidos*, or districts, having each of them a capital. Besides these capitals, the number of towns and villages in the whole republic amounts to two hundred and fifty-three.

The following table will give the names of the districts, their capitals, and their produce.

The State of Guatimala is divided into thirteen districts, viz:

Districts.	Capitals.	Produce.
Zacatepeque	Guatimala-nueva	Cochineal, cotton, common cloth, fruits.
Chimaltenango	Chimaltenango	Wheat, maize, European fruits.
Solola	Solola	Cattle.
Totonicapan	Totonicapan	Goat hair, with which they manufacture stuffs and garments; wheat, ware, guitars, wooden tools, &c. &c.
Gueguetenango	Gueguetenango	The same produce as Totonicapan; it has also lead mines.
Guesaltenango	Guesaltenango	Idem.
Suchiltepéque	Mazatenango	Cocoa, cotton, cattle, timber, &c.
Escuintla	Escuintla	Indigo, cattle, cotton.
Chiquimula	Chiquimula	Gold and silver mines, cattle, horses, mules, indigo, cotton.
San Augustin	San Augustin	The same as at Chiquimula; cocoa, wheat, &c. &c.
Vera-Paz	Cohan	Sugar-cane, spices, cotton, linen manufactures, dyewoods.
Salama	Salama	Sugar and sarsaparilla.
Peten	Remedios	Timber of all sorts.

The State of San Salvador is divided into three districts, viz:

San Salvador	San Salvador	Indigo, cochineal, cocoa, balms, saffron, cattle, cotton, cloth, saddlery, bridles of horses gilt, palm-nuts, fruits, sugar, and tobacco.
Zonzonate	Zonzonate	Cotton, wheat, cloth, indigo, cattle, hats, sugar, matting, artificial flowers made of shells, the exportation of which to Peru and Chili amounts yearly to £10,000.
San Miguel	San Miguel	Indigo, cochineal, cotton, leather, netting, hammocks, sacks made of aloes, gold and silver mines.
San Vincente	San Vincente	The same produce as at San Miguel.

The State of Honduras is divided into twelve districts, viz:

Districts.	Capitals.	Produce.
Comayagua	Comayagua	Gold, silver, copper, and iron mines.
Tegucigalpa	Tegucigalpa	Same produce.
Choluteca	Choluteca	Same produce.
Macaome	Macaome	Same produce.
Cantaranas	Cantaranas	Same produce.
Juticalpa	Juticalpa	Same produce.
Gracias	Gracias	Wheat, sugar, indigo, tobacco, precious stones.
Los Llanos	Los Llanos	Tobacco, &c. &c.
Santa Barbara	Santa Barbara	Same produce.
Truxillo	Truxillo	Same produce.
Lloro	Lloro	Same produce.
Segobia or Somoto	Segobia, or Somoto	Naphtha, tobacco, cattle, and silver mines.

The State of Nicaragua is divided into eight districts, viz:

Leon	Leon	Indigo, timber, cattle, &c.
Grenada	Grenada	Same as above, and cocoa.
Managua	Managua	Ditto.
Realejo	Realejo	Ditto.
Sutiaba	Sutiaba	Ditto.
Massaya	Massaya	Ditto, and manufactured hats.
Nicaragua	Nicaragua	Ditto, cocoa, &c.
Matagalpa	Matagalpa	Wheat and cattle.

The State of Costa Rica is divided into eight districts, viz:

San Jose	San Jose	The State of Costa Rica possesses gold, silver, and copper mines.
Cartago	Cartago	
Ujarras	Ujarras	
Borrica	Borrica	
Iscan	Iscan	
Alajuela	Alajuela	
Eredia	Eredia	
Bogases	Bogases	

I am indebted to the kindness of my friend Señor Ygnacio Gomez, now minister plenipotentiary of the State of Central America to the Holy See, for the following account of the ports of that republic on the Pacific.

"*Ports of Central America on the Pacific ocean, from south to north, or rather from southwest to northeast.*

"Punta Arenas. It belongs to the State of Costa Rica. It consists of an inner and an outer harbor. The first is only accessible for vessels not drawing above eight or nine feet water; the second is well sheltered from the winds by two islands, which also shelter it from the swell. The anchorage is good, though all cargoes must be taken from and on board by

boats a pretty good distance; large vessels remaining one or two miles off the landing places.

"Costa Rica has another port on the Pacific, CALDERAS. It is a remarkably good harbor, well situated and safe; but the government ordered the custom-house and officers, some time since, to remove to Punta Arenas, on the northeast side, on account of the unhealthy climate of Calderas.

"There is also the port of TERCOLAS, higher up the bay, where it is now thought to move the port. It possesses signal advantages, a very convenient harbor, and a fertile territory, and is nearer the capital of the State.

"All these ports are south, but near the celebrated coast of *Nicoya*, where pearl fisheries have long existed and where pearls are abundant: a beautiful, picturesque, and fertile country, full of rich valleys, watered by numerous streams, and where population is only wanting to make it one of the happiest and most prosperous regions in the world. On this coast is *San Juan del Sur*, and other harbors.

"The next port northward on the Pacific is REALEJO. It belongs to the State of Nicaragua. It is a good and safe harbor, and there is a sufficient depth of water for vessels to come within half a mile of the city. In the time of the Spanish government several vessels, some even of 500 tons, were built at Realejo, which has better and more durable wood, and affords facilities for shipbuilding superior to Guayaquil, or any other arsenal in the Pacific.

"LA UNION, or (as it was formerly named) *Conchagua*, follows. It belongs to the State of San Salvador, and is one of the most magnificent seaports in the world. It is a most beautiful bay, its entrance and the scenery around being of the wildest and most picturesque that can be imagined. It possesses anchorage from three to twelve fathoms of water, free from shoals and perfectly well protected from all winds, being about 3½ leagues in diameter and 10 or 11 in extent. It is surrounded on three sides by high land, and the entrance is protected by several beautiful islands, with many deep and safe channels. It is considered the best harbor we possess.

"Coal may be easily obtained here, there being abundant mines of it some 25 or 30 miles distant, or perhaps less, through level roads, where seams of it are to be seen.

"The State of San Salvador possesses also, north of *Conchagua*, or (as it is now called) *La Union*, the port of *La Libertad*. It is the nearest to the capital of the State, but not a very safe harbor.

"It possesses, moreover, the port of ACAJUTLA, also known on some maps by the name of *Sonsonate*, because it stands near the town of this name. It was a place of importance in the time of the Spanish government, and possesses some excellent buildings. The port is sheltered by a neck of land protecting it from the westerly swell; the beach is nevertheless bathed by a strong surf, which requires some care to prevent ordinary boats from being swamped.

"This port, *Realejo*, and *Union*, are naturally good, and might be made the best ports in the world with but a trifling expense. Still, such as they are, they are superior to Valparaiso, Callao, Rio Janeiro, and many others which are a good deal frequented on the American coast, and as good as any in the known world.

Ocos and *Yztapa* are the last of the ports of Central America on the South sea; but they are inferior to the former named, and cannot be denominated very good ports, being, like *Libertad*, little more than open roadsteads. They are the only ports the State of Guatimala possesses on the Pacific ocean. Yztapa is the place where Alvarado (the Spanish conqueror) built his flotilla and sailed with troops to Peru, in 1525–'28.

"WASHINGTON, *December* 24, 1847.

"Y. G."

"I forgot to mention the port of SAN LORENZO, a new settlement on the opposite side of the bay of Conchagua. It is safe and of easy access, and belongs to the State of Honduras. The coal mines, before alluded to, are nearer to *San Lorenzo*, or quite as near as they are to the port of *La Union*, and cargoes are admitted free, as a premium or temptation to all vessels visiting said port of Honduras.

"The situation of the aboved-named ports is as follows, or pretty nearly: Commencing on the most northerly part of the southwest coast, the first is *Ocos*. A little below is *Yztapa*. Some 45 leagues to the eastward is the port of *Acajutla*. Twenty or twenty-two leagues further along the coast is *La Libertad*. Eight or ten leagues further to the eastward is the bay of Conchagua, at the head of which, on the west side, is the port of *La Union*. On the opposite side is *San Lorenzo*. A few leagues southwest of the Conchagua bay is *Realejo*. Fifty or fifty-five leagues to the eastward of this port is that of *San Juan del Sur*, to which place it was proposed to bring the canal connecting the two oceans. Along this coast (the rich Nicoya coast) there are many creeks which would make most convenient ports; but the only ones made use of are *Punta Arenas* and *Caldera* to the southwest.

"*Ocos*, *Yztapa*, and *Libertad*, might be made safe harbors with but a breakwater and a wharf; the rest are naturally good ports, especially *Realejo* and *Union*.

"Y. G."

APPENDIX F.

THE ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.

The Aleutian islands derive their name from the Russian word *aleut*, which signifies a "bold rock." The group is situated in the North Pacific ocean, between cape Alaska in North America, and the peninsula of Kamtschatka in Asia; describing a circular arc which extends from 163° of west to 166° of east longitude, comprehending 31° of longitude. The islands which form the two extremities of the chain, viz: Oonemak, which is separated by a narrow channel from cape Alaska, and Behring's island, which approaches nearest to the coast of Asia, are both in the 55th parallel of north latitude, while the others extend in a curve towards the south, the centre one of the chain being situated in the 53d parallel.

The number of islands composing the entire chain is very considerable; above forty have received names. The most important of those situated to the eastward—the Fox islands—are Oonemak, Oonalashka, and Oomnack. Those composing the Andrenovian division are smaller

than the other, and are seldom visited. The principal of them are Amlak, Atchka, Tschetchina, Ayag, Kanaga, and Takavangha. The two last-mentioned have volcanoes, and Tschetchina possesses a high hill, which is apparently an extinct volcano. The division nearest to the Asiatic coast contains, among other islands of less importance, Semitchi, Ottoo, Agattoo, Copper island, and Behring's island.

The small group lying southeast of Behring's island are considered by the Russians as the real Aleutian isles. They were first discovered in 1745, by Michael Nevottsikof, a native of Tobolsk, commander of the exploring vessel called the Eudokia, fitted out from the Kamtschatka river. The southern group are sometimes called the Nearest Aleutian isles, and the Fox islands the Farthest Aleutian isles.

The coasts of all the Aleutian islands are rocky, and the navigation among them dangerous. They are mostly destitute of trees, but are abundantly supplied with springs and streams of fresh water. Great quantities of drift wood from the American coast are continually thrown upon their shores. Potatoes, and several other esculent vegetables, arrive at tolerable perfection. The land animals on the islands are bears, wolves, beavers, ermines, and river-otters. The sea-otter is nearly exterminated by the hunters. Red, gray, brown, and black foxes are seen in great variety on the Fox islands; seals, walruses, and whales are abundant on the coast, and sea-lions are occasionally met with. The kinds of fish most usually caught are salmon and halibut; the latter of these are sometimes of an immense size.

The only occupations of the islanders are fishing and hunting, and the preparation of implements necessary for those pursuits. The population has greatly diminished since the settlement among them of the Russian fur-traders. The civil and military administration of the islands is vested in the Imperial Russian-American Company, which has a factory at Oonalashka.

The otter chase still constitutes their chief occupation. In former times the inhabitants of the Aleutian islands paid a tribute of furs, but since the establishment of the company they have been exonerated from this, personal service being substituted instead of it: every native of these islands, or that of Kodiak, is obliged to place himself for three years at the disposition of the company, which may employ him, as it pleases, either in hunting, fishing, or agriculture.

In the month of December every year, the company announces the number of men and small boats it will require for beaver hunting. The hunters are then chosen, the preference being given to families having the greatest number of sons: these the company furnishes with arms, powder, lead, dried fish, tobacco, and the utensils necessary for repairing the boats. Immediately upon the breaking up of the ice, the baydars quit the creeks in which they had been laid up during the winter, and repair to the place of rendezvous; the different expeditions afterwards set off for the points assigned them, each under the direction of an *ancient* chosen by his companions. Kodiak generally furnishes one hundred and fifty boats, Oonalashka one hundred, Atchka fifty, and other islands a less number.

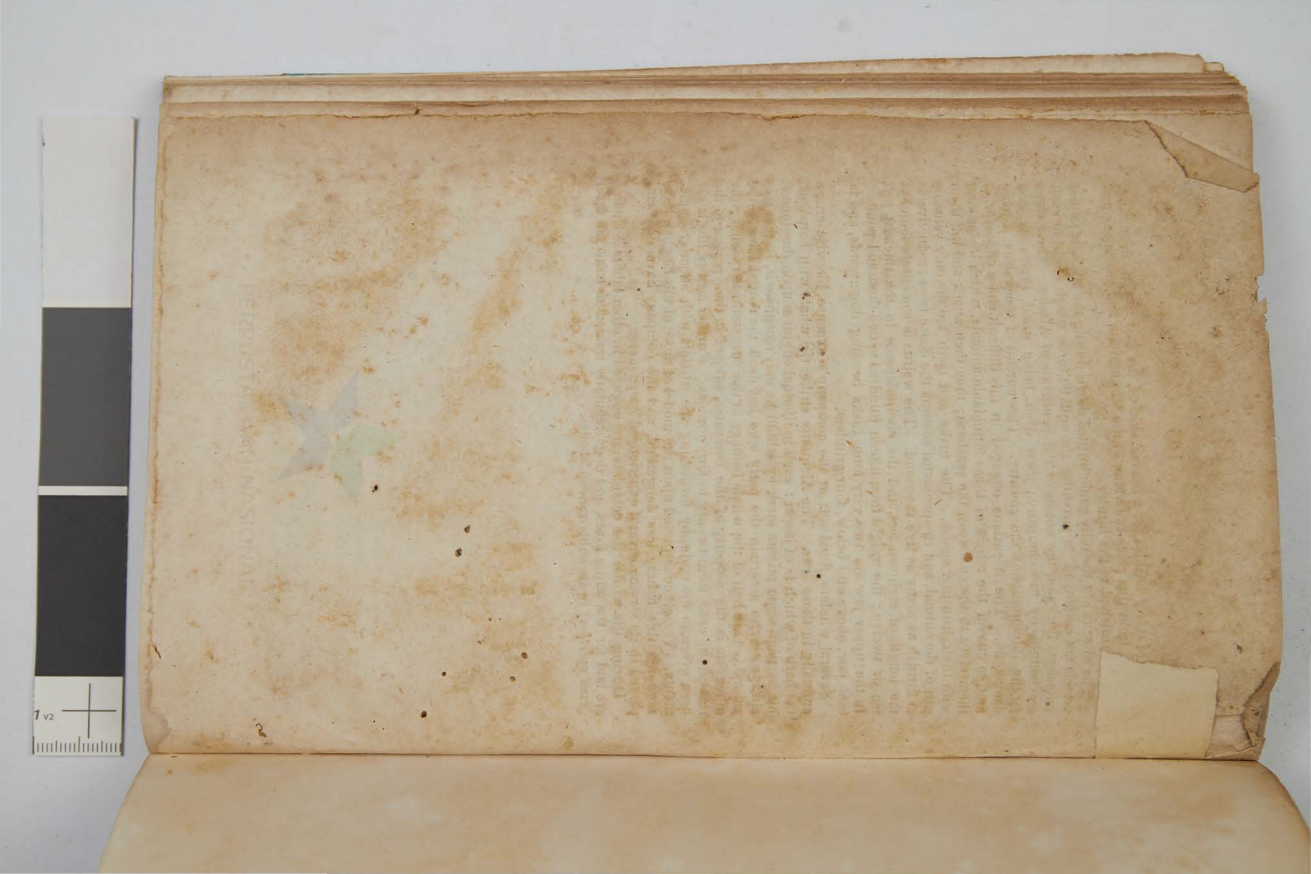
Upon their return in the month of August or September, these different detachments deposite the produce of their chase in the stores of the company, which pay them according to the stipulated tariff, giving at

the rate of thirty roubles for a beaver skin of the first quality, deducting, however, from this price the value of the ammunition and provisions previously furnished to the hunter.

The otter is not the only game hunted down during the summer; other vessels are employed in pursuing the aquatic birds which alight in such numerous flocks on the coasts of the peninsula of Alaska. Their skins are bought by the company; their flesh, being dried, serves as food for the inhabitants of the country. The pursuit of the walrus is more dangerous. The Aleutians engaged in this difficult chase endeavor, at first, to cut off the retreat of these formidable animals, which lie basking themselves in the sun upon the seashore; they then attack and kill them with their hunting spears. The tusks and teeth are the only valuable part of the animal, and in successful seasons the chase is so productive as to furnish as many as five thousand. The walrus is sometimes found of the length of eighteen feet, and the circumference in the thickest part ten or twelve; the weight from fifteen hundred to two thousand pounds. In the upper jaw are two very long tusks bending downwards, and in each jaw, above and below, four grinders.

Several whalers, fitted out at the company's expense, likewise cruise annually in those seas. The Aleutians strike the whale with harpoons, the barb of which is of jasper: each individual engraves upon the stone of his harpoon some private mark by which he may recognise it, so that it is always easy to ascertain the party who has dealt the mortal blow to the animal. One half of the whale belongs to the successful harpooner; the other one is the property of the company, subject to their paying to the rest of the crew from twenty to forty roubles. Further facility has lately been given to the trade, by furnishing the whalers with superior implements. Vessels constructed upon the model of those of the English have rendered this fishery less dangerous, and the company have now employed in its service several experienced harpooners.

During the winter the colonists are engaged in other labors. Snares are laid for the white foxes, and dogs regularly trained to track the zizel (*mus cytellus*) in its subterranean abodes.



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ZAENUDIN



PERPUSTAKAAN NASIONAL
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