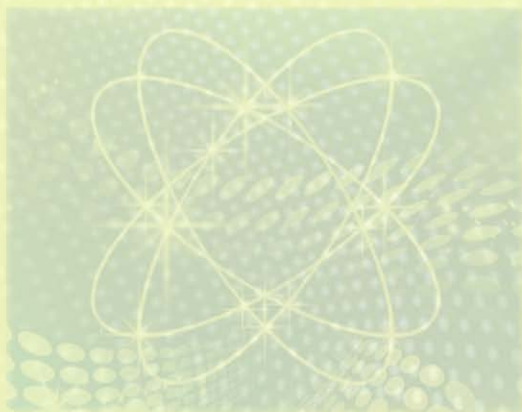


中国总论

卷2（下）



Mats of rattan for table furniture, and of grass for floors, are all made by hand. The latter is manufactured of two or three sorts of grass in different widths and patterns, and though the amount annually sent to the United States and elsewhere exceeds five million yards, it forms a very small proportion to the home consumption. Floor matting is put up in rolls containing twenty mats, or forty yards. *Musk*, though still in demand, is often and much adulterated, or its quality impaired by disease. It comes in bags about as large as a walnut; when good, it is of a dark purplish color, dry and light, and generally in concrete, smooth, and unctuous grains; its taste is bitter and smell strong; when rubbed on paper the trace is of a bright yellow color, and the feel free from grittiness. A brown unctuous earth is sometimes mixed with it, and the bags are frequently artificial; the price is about forty-five dollars a pound for the best quality.

Nankeen is a foreign name given to a kind of reddish cotton cloth manufactured near Nanking and Tsungming Island; it was once largely exported, but the product has now nearly ceased. It is the most durable kind of cotton cloth known, and its excellence always repays the cultivator. The opening of the country to foreigners, and the disorders ensuant on the Tai-ping rebellion, altered the character of the *silk* trade. The loss of capital and dispersion of workmen in the vicinity of Canton nearly destroyed the export of raw silk and piece-goods formerly made at Fatshan, and the pongees once woven there are seldom seen. The elegant crape shawls and scarfs, gauzes and checked lustrings, satins and lining silks, which were sent abroad from Canton, have all dwindled away. Raw silk makes the bulk of the export, amounting to over a hundred thousand bales, of which nearly two-thirds goes to Great Britain. The annual average for the six years ending 1860 was seventy-eight thousand five hundred bales; in 1836 it was twenty-one thousand; the price of the best sorts was about five hundred and fifty dollars a pecul. Silk goods are exported to the annual value of about two million taels; they consist chiefly of gauzes, pongees, handkerchiefs, scarfs, sarsnet, senshaws, levantines, and satins; ribbons, sewing-thread, and organzine, or thrown silk, are not much shipped. The silk trade is more likely to increase than

any other branch of the commerce, after tea, and the Chinese can furnish almost any amount of raw and manufactured silks, according to the demand for them. *Soy* is a name derived from the Japanese *sho-ya*; it is made by boiling the beans of the *Dolichos soja*, adding an equal quantity of wheat or barley, and leaving the mass to ferment; a layer of salt and three times as much water as beans are afterward put in, and the whole compound stirred daily for two months, when the liquid is pressed and strained. Another method of making the condiment has already been mentioned in Volume I., p. 365.

Besides the articles above-mentioned, there are many others which singly form very trifling items in the trade, but their total exportation annually amounts to many lacs of dollars. Among them fire-crackers, and straw braid woven in Shantung from a variety of wheat, are both sent to the United States. Among other sundries, vermilion, gold leaf, amber, sea-shells, preserved insects, fans, ginger, sweetmeats and jellies, rhubarb, gamboge, camphor, grass-cloth, artificial flowers, insect wax, fishing-lines, joss-sticks, spangles, window-blinds, vegetable tallow, and pictures are the most deserving of mention. Some of them may perhaps become important articles of commerce, and all of them, except vermilion, gamboge, and rattans, are the produce of the country.

The imports make a much longer list than the exports, for almost everything that should or might sell there is from time to time offered in the market; and if the Chinese at Canton had had any inclination or curiosity to obtain the productions or manufactures of other lands, they have had no want of specimens. It will only be necessary to mention articles of import whose names are not of themselves a sufficient description. Opium, rice, raw cotton, longcloths, domestics and sheetings among manufactured cottons, ginseng, tin, lead, bar, rod, and hoop iron, and woollen goods, constitute the great bulk of the import trade. Rice is brought from southern islands, and a bounty used to be paid on its importation into Canton by taking off the tonnage dues on ships laden with this alone—a bonus of about three thousand dollars on a large vessel.

The importations from the Indian Archipelago comprise a

large variety of articles, though their total amount and value are not very great. *Agar-agar*, or *agal-agal*, is the Malay name for the *Plocaria tenax*, *Gracillaria*, and other sorts of seaweed; it is boiled and clarified to make a vegetable glue which is largely employed in lantern and silk manufacture instead of isinglass; it is also made into a jelly, but the *seaweed* (*Laminaria*) from Japan has supplanted it. *Betel-nut* is the fruit of the areca palm, and is called *betel-nut* because it is chewed with the leaf of the betel pepper (*Chavica*) as a masticatory. The nut is the only part brought to China, the leaf being raised along the southern coast; it resembles a nutmeg in shape and color, is a little larger, and the whole of the nut is chewed. They are boiled or eaten raw, the former being cut into slices and boiled with a small quantity of cutch and then dried. Those brought to China are simply deprived of the husk and dried. When chewed, a slice of the nut is wrapped in the fresh leaf smeared with a mixture of gambier or shell-lime colored red, and the whole masticated to a pulp before spitting it out. The teeth become dark red from using it, but the Chinese are careful to remove this stain. The taste of the fresh pepper leaf is herbaceous and aromatic with a little pungency, and those who chew have it seldom out of their mouths; the habit is not general where the fresh leaf cannot be obtained.

Biche-de-mer, i.e., slug of the sea, or tripang, is a marine gasteropod (*Holothuria*) resembling, when alive, a crawling sausage more than anything else; it is sometimes over a foot long and two or three inches through; it inhabits the shallow waters around the islands of the Pacific and Indian Archipelago, and is obtained by diving or spearing, and prepared by cleansing and smoking it. In the market it appears hard and rigid, of a dirty brown color; when soaked in water it resembles pork-rind, and when stewed is not unlike it in taste. The Chinese distinguish nearly thirty sorts of *hai säng*—‘sea ginseng;’ in commerce, however, all are known as white or black, the prices ranging from two dollars up to eighty dollars a pecul.

Birds’ nests, *sharks’ fins*, and *fish-maws* are three other articles of food prized by Chinese epicures for their supposed stimulating quality, and they readily fetch high prices. The

first is the nest of a species of swallow (*Collocalia*), which makes the gelatinous fibres from its own crop out of the seaweed (*Gelidium*) it feeds on. These nests resemble those of the chimney swallow in shape, and are collected in most dangerous places along the cliffs and caves in the Indian Islands. The article varies from thirty dollars to three dollars a pound, and its total import is hardly five hundred peculs a year. The taste of the Chinese for the gelatinous fins and stomachs of the shark aids in clearing the seas of that ferocious fish even as far as the Persian Gulf. The soup made from the fins resembles that from isinglass, and is worthy of acceptance on other tables.

Amber is found on various eastern shores, along the Mozambique coast, in the Indian Islands, and localities in Annam and Yunnan. The consumption for court beads and other ornaments is great, and shows that the supply is permanent, for none is brought from Prussia. The Chinese use the powder of amber in their high-priced medicines. Their artists have also learned to imitate it admirably in a variety of articles made of copal, shell-lac, and colophony.

The *bezoars*, or biliary calculi from ruminating and other animals, always find a ready market in China for drugs; that from the cow is most prized, and is often imitated with pipe-clay and ox-gall mixed with hair, or adulterated by the camel bezoar. The Mongols prize these substances very highly; the pure goat and cow bezoars are ground for paints by the Cantonese.

Cutch, or terra japonica, is a gummy resin, obtained from a species of areca palm and the *Acacia catechu*, and was for a long time supposed to be a sort of earth found in Japan; it is called *cutch* from the Runn of Cutch, near which the tree grows. The best is friable between the fingers, is of a reddish-brown color, and used in China as a dye. There are two kinds, *black* and *pale*; the former is made by boiling the heart-wood of the acacia and putting the resin into small cakes; it is now brought in small quantities, as gambier has supplanted it.

Rose-maloes, corrupted from *rasamala*, the Javanese name of the *Altingia excelsa*, is a liquid storax obtained from the *Styrax*; it is a scented guminous oil of the consistency of tar,

and is brought from Bombay to China for medicine. *Gum benzoin*, or *benjamin*, is one of the gum-resins brought from abroad, and highly prized by Chinese doctors; its Chinese name indicates that it came from Parthia; but it is collected from the *Styrax benzoin* in Sumatra and Borneo by making incisions in the bark in much the same manner as opium, until the plant withers and dies. It comes to market in cakes, which in some parts of those islands formerly served as standards of value. Good benzoin is full of clear light-colored spots, marbled on the broken surface, and giving off an agreeable odor when heated or rubbed; it is the frankincense of the far East, and has been employed by many nations in their religious ceremonies; for what was so acceptable to the worshippers was soon inferred to be equally grateful to the gods, and sought after by all devotees as a delightful perfume. The quantity of benzoin imported is, however, small, and the Arabian frankincense, or *olibanum*, is more commonly seen in the market, and is employed for the same purposes. This gum-resin exudes from the *Boswellia thurifera* cultivated in Coromandel; the drops have a pale reddish color, a strong and somewhat unpleasant smell, a pungent and bitterish taste, and when chewed give the saliva a milky color; it burns with a pleasant fragrance and slight residuum. *Dragon's blood* is probably an equivalent of the Chinese name *lung-yen hiang*, given to this resin from its coming to market in lumps formed from the agglutinated tears. It is the gummy covering of the seeds of a rattan palm (*Dæmonorops draco*) common in Sumatra, which is separated by shaking them in a basket or bag; an inferior sort is made by boiling the nuts. It is used in varnishing, painting, and medical preparations.

Cloves are consumed but little by the Chinese, and mostly in expressing an oil which forms an ingredient in condiments and medicines, like the oil of peppermint made by themselves. *Pepper* is much more used than cloves, the tea being considered beneficial in fevers; the good effects as a febrifuge seem to be doubted lately, for the importation is only twenty thousand peculs, not one-half what it was fifty years ago. *Baroos camphor* is still imported from Borneo, the people

supposing that the drops and lumps found in the fissures of the tree (*Dryobalanops*) in that island are more powerful than their own gum; the proportion between the two, both in price and quantity, is about eighteen to one.

Gambier is obtained from the gambier vine (*Uncaria*) by boiling the leaves and inspissating the decoction; a soapy substance of a brownish-yellow color remains, which is both chewed with betel-nut and forms a good and cheap material for tanning and dyeing. *Putchuck* is the root of a kind of thistle (*Aucklandia*) cultivated in Cashmere; it comes in dry, brown, broken pieces, resembling rhubarb in color and smell, and affording an agreeable perfume when burned; the powder is employed in making incense-sticks and the thin shavings mixed in medicines.

Cornelians, agates, and other stones of greater or less value are purchased by the Chinese for manufacturing into official insignia, rings, beads, and other articles of ornament; they are brought chiefly from India or Central Asia. *Seed pearls*, to the amount of three hundred thousand dollars, are annually brought from Bombay to Canton, where they are run on strings to be worn in ladies' head-dresses; *coral* is also a part of cargoes from the Archipelago. *Mother-o'-pearl* shells and *tortoise-shell* are brought from the same region and the Pacific islands, Muscat, and Bombay, a large part of which is re-exported in the shape of buttons, combs, and other productions of Chinese skill.

Ivory still comes from Africa *via* Bombay, and Malaysia, mostly from Bangkok; the fossil ivory of Siberia has furnished the material for the inlaid tables of Ningpo; but the cost of fine ivory has prevented the manufacture of many articles once common at Canton. *Rhinoceros' horns* are all brought to China to be carved into ornaments, or served in remedies and tonics.¹ But the principal use of these horns is in medicine and for amulets, for only one good cup can be carved from the end of each horn; the parings and fragments are carefully preserved to serve for the other purposes. The teeth of the sperm whale, walrus, lamantine, and other phocine animals, form an article of import in limited quantities under the designation

¹ The elegant plumage of the turquois kingfisher and some other birds is also worked into ornaments and head-dresses.

of "sea-horse teeth;" these tusks weigh from sixteen to forty ounces, their ivory being nearly as compact though not so white as that of the elephant.

Several kinds of *wood* are brought for cabinet and inlaid work, medical preparations, and dyeing. Among these are *ebony* and *camagon* (*mao tsz'*), both obtained from species of *Diospyros* growing in India and Luzon; they are often very cleverly imitated by covering teak and other hard woods with a black stain. *Gahru wood*—also called eagle or agila wood (*Aquilaria*)—furnishes the calambak timber, highly prized for its perfume; the diseased heart-wood of this tree is the precious aloes wood, the lign aloes of the Bible.¹ Among dye-stuffs the *laka* wood (*Tunarius*) from Sumatra, mangrove bark, sapan wood (*Cesalpinia*), and red wood are important articles; the imports of sandal wood for incense, rosewood, satin wood, amboyna or knot wood, camphor and *kranjee* are employed in various ways for junks, buildings, and furniture.

The greater facilities of trade with foreign countries since 1860 have vastly enlarged the list of imports and exports, and brought many new and useful articles within reach of the natives living far from the ports. In their fear and ignorance the Chinese associated everything dreadful with the name and coming of those whom they called devils and barbarians, and knew chiefly in connection with war and opium. By degrees, however, they are learning the benefits of a wider commercial as well as intellectual intercourse. One of the most notable among the imports, which carries with it something of this broadening influence, is kerosene; the traveller in China, as well as in Algeria, Greece, and Egypt, can hardly fail to note with interest the multitude of benefits arising from the introduction of a cheap and brilliant lamp into a house whose only light before has been a water-lamp or tallow candle. Electric lighting is now employed in certain of the foreign settlements, and will doubtless become as popular in the far East as among Western nations. It is needless, however, to enumerate the novelties in which the Chinese are constantly urged and tempted to invest.

The mode of conducting the trade is described in the author's

¹ *Chinese Commercial Guide*, Fifth Edition, p. 106.
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Chinese Commercial Guide (fifth edition, Hongkong, 1863), which contains the treaties, tariffs, regulations, etc., of other nations as well as of China. A peculiar feature of this trade is the fact that the natives have always conducted it in English,—that is, they do business in the jargon called *pigeon-English*, whose curious formation has already received some attention in a previous chapter. The Chinaman using it deems no sentence complete until it contains the same number of words and in the same idiom as its equivalent phrase in his own language. A sample of this hybrid lingo, with its *mélange* of Chinese, Portuguese, and Malay words and grammatical constructions, may not be out of place here. We will suppose a shopkeeper is soliciting custom from a foreigner: "My chin-chin you," he says, "one good fleen [friend], take care for my [patronize me]; 'spose you wanchee any first chop ting, my can catchee for you [obtain]. I secure sell 'em plun cash [prime cost], alla same cumsha [present]; can do?" The foreigner, with great gravity, replies: "Just now my no wanchee anyting; any teem [time] 'spose you got vely number one good ting, p'rhaps I come you shop look sec." After hearing for a few days such sentences, the foreigner begins to imitate them, soon learning to adapt his speech to his interlocutor's, and thus perpetuating the jargon. Other nationalities are also obliged to learn it, and the whole trade is conducted in this meagre gibberish, which the natives suppose, however, to be correct English, but which hardly enables the two parties to exchange ideas upon even household subjects. Much of the misunderstanding and trouble experienced in daily intercourse with the Chinese is doubtless owing to this imperfect medium.¹

The trade at the five ports opened by the treaty of Nanking in 1842 was conducted by native custom-house officers, as it had been previously at Canton, but under regulations which insured more honesty and efficiency. In 1853, however, the capture of Shanghai by insurgents threw the whole trade into such confusion that the collector, who had been formerly

¹ Mr. Schuyler mentions hearing some Chinese residents at Vierny speaking a mongrel with the Russian officers of the post, which might be called "pigeon-Russian." *Turkistan*, Vol. II., p. 147.

a hong merchant at Canton, called in the aid of foreigners to carry on his duties. A trio of inspectors was nominated for this purpose by the British, American, and French ministers from their nationalities; and so well did it work in honestly collecting the revenue for the imperial coffers, that when the city was recaptured the system was made permanent for that port. In the negotiations growing out of the treaties of Tientsin in 1858, the Chinese government felt so much confidence in the feasibility of the plan, that it was extended to all the ports and placed under the entire control of an inspector-general. By thus utilizing the experience and integrity of foreign employes in carrying on this important branch of its administration, the rulers broke through their long seclusion and isolation, and opened the way for removing the impediments to their own progress in every branch of polity.

The following tables, compiled or abridged from the so-called "Yellow Books," or Trade Reports, issued by the Imperial Maritime Customs, will furnish a general idea of the foreign trade with China and some statistics concerning its domestic commerce. It is hardly necessary to add, however, that concerning the latter when unconnected with foreigners, there are almost no figures of value attainable. The *Haiwan tael*, it may be well to repeat, is valued at \$1.36½, or 5s. 6½d. The *pecul* weighs 133½ pounds.

ANNUAL VALUE OF THE FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA, 1871 TO 1881.

YEAR.	Net Imports. ¹	Exports.	Total.
	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>
1871.....	70,103,077	66,853,161	136,956,238
1872.....	67,317,049	75,288,125	142,605,174
1873.....	66,637,209	69,451,277	136,088,486
1874.....	64,360,864	66,712,863	131,073,727
1875.....	67,803,247	68,912,929	136,716,176
1876.....	70,269,574	80,850,512	151,120,086
1877.....	73,233,896	67,445,022	140,678,918
1878.....	70,804,027	67,172,179	137,976,206
1879.....	82,227,424	72,281,262	154,508,686
1880.....	79,293,452	77,883,587	157,177,039
1881.....	91,910,877	71,452,974	163,363,851

¹ Meaning the value of foreign goods imported direct from foreign countries, less the value of the foreign goods re-exported to foreign countries during the year.

CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1871 TO 1881.

YEAR.	DUTIES ON NATIVE PRODUCE EXPORTED TO—		TOTAL REVENUE FROM—		
	Foreign Coun- tries.	Chinese Ports.	Foreign Trade.	Home Trade.	Total.
	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>	<i>Hk. Tls.</i>
1871.....	5,246,467	1,138,116	9,508,972	1,707,174	11,216,146
1872.....	5,840,261	1,099,724	10,029,050	1,649,586	11,678,636
1873.....	4,978,179	1,158,933	9,228,675	1,738,467	10,977,082
1874.....	5,535,041	1,147,686	9,775,743	1,721,522	11,497,272
1875.....	5,640,062	1,291,922	10,030,226	1,937,883	11,968,109
1876.....	5,772,709	1,222,860	10,318,631	1,834,290	12,152,921
1877.....	5,703,321	1,140,442	10,356,415	1,710,663	12,067,078
1878.....	5,893,485	1,306,118	10,524,811	1,956,177	12,483,988
1879.....	5,958,176	1,426,894	11,391,329	2,140,341	13,531,670
1880.....	6,696,290	1,572,392	11,899,995	2,358,588	14,258,583
1881.....	6,869,436	1,460,182	12,494,889	2,190,273	14,685,162

EXPORT OF TEA FROM CHINA DURING TEN YEARS.

YEAR.	Black.	Green.	Leaf.	Dust.	Brick.	Total.
	<i>Peculs.</i>	<i>Peculs.</i>	<i>Peculs.</i>	<i>Peculs.</i>	<i>Peculs.</i>	<i>Peculs.</i>
1872.....	1,420,170	256,464	85	950	96,994	1,774,663
1873.....	1,274,232	235,413	372	416	107,330	1,617,763
1874.....	1,444,249	212,834	3,504	74,792	1,735,379
1875.....	1,438,611	210,282	2,594	166,900	1,818,387
1876.....	1,415,349	189,714	74	3,799	153,951	1,762,887
1877.....	1,552,174	197,522	36	12,158	147,810	1,909,700
1878.....	1,517,617	172,826	14,236	194,277	1,898,956
1879.....	1,523,419	183,234	5,270	275,540	1,987,463
1880.....	1,661,325	188,623	14,201	232,969	2,097,118
1881.....	1,636,724	238,064	15,186	247,498	2,137,472

EXPORT OF NATIVE CHINESE GOODS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES,
1880 AND 1881.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1880.		1881.	
		Quantity	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			<i>Hk. Tls.</i>		<i>Hk. Tls.</i>
Silk, all kinds.....	Peculs.	114,821	29,831,444	106,632	26,868,200
Tea, all kinds.....	"	2,097,119	55,728,169	2,137,473	32,890,268
Bags, all kinds.....	Pieces.	749,583	20,555	860,558	31,002
Bamboo, all kinds.....	Value.		74,597		86,167
Beans and bean cake.....	Peculs.	154,645	159,966	112,628	139,066
Cassia lignea.....	"	38,785	225,692	57,456	300,303
Camphor.....	"	12,327	100,679	9,317	79,625
China ware and pottery.....	"	75,142	379,574	73,503	387,006
Coal.....	"	161	24	1,478	368
Clothing, boots, and shoes.....	Value.		327,548		358,301
Cotton, raw and waste.....	Peculs.	20,315	182,918	23,159	228,351
Curios.....	Value.		44,948		43,364
Dyes, colors, and paints.....	Peculs.	676	3,196	20	183
Fans, all kinds.....	Pieces.	6,287,989	38,881	2,017,157	27,710
Fish, provisions, and vegetables.....	Peculs.	63,940	165,922	66,008	146,262
Fire-crackers.....	"	27,051	260,010	34,380	32,522
Flour, grain, and pulse.....	"	149,394	139,653	39,911	49,391
Fruits, all kinds.....	"	73,730	92,913	87,140	106,756
Grasscloth.....	"	1,185	104,719	1,589	148,985
Hemp.....	"	19,543	169,602	20,771	168,143
Hides and boops.....	"	20,786	253,548	38,526	473,525
Indigo.....	"	2,847	13,768	1,764	7,168
Lung-ngans.....	"	8,080	34,669	7,592	30,753
Mats and matting.....	Pieces.	384,680	553,027	360,827	358,537
Medicines.....	Peculs.	28,676	194,451	31,916	194,150
Metals, manufactured.....	"	14,284	147,405	14,804	155,778
Metals, unmanufactured.....	"	217	875	2	4
Nankeens and wool.....	"	6,511	122,815	8,750	172,205
Nutgalls and preserves.....	"	47,690	432,774	44,260	492,617
Oil, all kinds.....	"	3,692	70,295	9,432	159,516
Paper, books, tin, and brass foil.....	"	43,581	512,720	53,438	597,496
Rattans and rattanware.....	"	2,085	8,975	2,757	11,901
Rhubarb.....	"	6,153	212,527	6,814	245,957
Skins, all kinds.....	Pieces.	244,193	152,486	330,923	262,780
Straw braid.....	Peculs.	48,970	1,227,670	50,502	1,363,984
Sugar, white, brown, candy.....	"	1,138,196	3,263,889	957,564	2,584,000
Tobacco.....	"	19,077	167,931	7,250	73,286
Vermicelli and macaroni.....	"	26,991	125,422	40,122	154,150
Sundries, unenumerated.....	Value.		2,366,290		1,853,865
Total value.....			77,883,587		71,452,974

CHAPTER XXI.

FOREIGN INTERCOURSE WITH CHINA.

THE most important notices which the research of authors had collected respecting the intercourse between China and the West, and the principal facts of interest of a political and commercial nature down to the year 1834, are carefully arranged in the first three chapters of Sir John Davis' work.¹ In truth, the terms *intercourse* and *ambassies*, so often used with reference to the nations of Eastern Asia, indicate a peculiar state of relations with them; for while other courts send and receive resident ministers, those of China, Japan, Corea, and Cochinchina have until very recently kept themselves aloof from this national interchange of civilities, neither understanding its principles nor appreciating its advantages. Embassies have been sent by most European nations to the two first, which have tended rather to strengthen their assumptions of supremacy than to enlighten them as to the real objects and wishes of the courts proposing such courtesies. The commercial intercourse has, like the political, either been forced upon or begged of these governments, constantly subject to those vexatious restrictions and interruptions which might be expected from such ill-defined arrangements; and though mutually advantageous, has never been conducted on those principles of reciprocity and equality which characterize commerce at the West. As yet, the rulers and merchants of oriental nations are hardly well enough acquainted with their own and others' rights to be able or willing

¹ *The Chinese*, 2 Vols., Harper's Family Library, 1837. See also Murray's *China*, Vol. I., 1843. Montgomery Martin's *China*, passim, 1847. *Mémoires conc. les Chinois*, Tome V., pp. 1-23. T. W. Kingsmill in *N. C. Br. R. A. Soc. Journal*, N. S., No. XIV., 1879.

to enter into close relations with European powers. Both magistrates and people are ignorant and afraid of the resources, power, and designs of Christian nations, and consequently disinclined to admit them or their subjects to unrestrained intercourse. When western adventurers, as Pinto, Andrade, Weddell, and others came to the shores of China and Japan in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, they found the governments disposed to traffic, but the conquests subsequently made by Europeans in the neighboring regions of Luçon, Java, and India, and their cruel treatment of the natives, led these two powers to apprehend like results for themselves if they did not soon take precautionary measures of exclusion and restriction. Nor can there be much doubt that this policy was the safest measure, in order to preserve their independence and maintain their authority over even their own subjects. Might made right more generally among nations then than it does now, and the belief entertained by most Europeans at that period, that all pagan lands belonged justly to the Pope, only wanted men and means to be everywhere carried into effect. Had the Chinese and Japanese governments allowed Portuguese, Spanish, French, and English colonists to settle and increase within their borders, they would, probably, long since have crumbled to pieces and their territories have been possessed by others.

The data brought together by Davis in 1838 on this subject has since been enlarged and illustrated by Col. Yule in his admirable "Preliminary Essay" of 1866, prefixed to *Cathay and the Way Thither*, and by Richthofen, the latter half of whose first volume on China is devoted to an exhaustive treatise upon the "Development of the Knowledge of China."¹ A digest of these elaborate works would be too long for our purpose here,

¹ *China, Ergebnisse eigener Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien*, Berlin, 1877. This author's arrangement of the subject into "Periods" is as follows: I.—Legendary notices of intercourse before the year 1122 B.C. II.—From the accession of the Chous to the building of the Great Wall (1122–212 B.C.). III.—From the building of the Great Wall to the accession of the Tangs (212 B.C.–619 A.D.). IV.—From the Tangs to the Mongols (619–1205). V.—From the rise of the Mongol power to the arrival of the Portuguese in China (1205–1517). VI.—From the arrival of the Portuguese to the present time.

where only the most interesting points can be noticed. The first recorded knowledge of China among the nations of the West does not date further back than the geographer Ptolemy, A.D. 150, who seems himself to have been indebted to the Tyrian author Marinus. The *Periplus* of the Erythraean Sea, however, refers to the same land under the name *Θιν*, or *Thin*, at perhaps an earlier date. Previous to this time, moreover, accounts of the existence of the land of Confucius, and an appreciation and demand for the splendid silks made there, had reached Persia, judging from the legends found in its writers alluding to ancient wars and embassies with China, in which the country, the government, people, and fabrics are invested with a halo of power and wealth which has not yet entirely vanished. These legends strengthen the conclusion that the Prophet Isaiah has the first mention now extant of the Flowery Land under the name *Sinin*. The interchange of the initial in *China*, *Thina* or *Tina*, and *Sina* ought to give no trouble in identifying the land, for such changes in pronunciation are still common in it; e.g., *Chau-chau fu* into *Tiè-chiu hu*.

The *Periplus* of Arrian places the city of Thina perhaps as far east as Si-ngan, but too vaguely to be relied on; that great city must certainly have then been known, however, among the traders of Central Asia, who probably were better acquainted with its geography than the authors who have survived them. Under the term *Seres* the Chinese are more clearly referred to at even an earlier date than *Sina*, and among the Latin writers it was about the only term used, its association with the silks brought thence keeping it before them. The two names were used for different regions,¹ the *Seres* being understood as lying to the north. Mela places them between the Indians and Scythians; Ptolemy calls the country *Serice* and the capital *Sera*, but regarded them as distinct from the *Sinae*, precisely as a Chinese geographer might confuse Britain and England. He says there

¹ The different appellations seem to have been employed according as it was regarded as the terminus of a southern sea route or a journey across the continent. In the former aspect the name has nearly always been some form of *Sin*, *Chin*, *Sinæ*, *China*; in the latter, to the ancients as the land of the *Seres*, to the middle ages as the Empire of *Cathay*.—Yule.

was a long and dangerous land route leading to Sera through Persia to Bactria, over mountain defiles and perilous paths, which occupied the largest part of a year. Besides Ptolemy, there are notices by Pliny of the Seres, and these two authors furnished their successors with most of their knowledge down to the reign of Justinian. Col. Yule concisely summarizes the knowledge of China down to that date among the Romans: "The region of the Seres is a vast and populous country, touching on the east the ocean and the limits of the habitable world; and extending west nearly to Imaus and the confines of Bactria. The people are civilized men, of mild, just, and frugal temper; eschewing collisions with their neighbors, and even shy of close intercourse, but not averse to dispose of their own products, of which raw silk is the staple, but which include also silk stuffs, furs, and iron of remarkable quality." He further explains how authors writing at Rome and Constantinople were quite unable to traverse and rectify what was said of the marts and nations spoken of in the farthest East, and place them with any precision. They were, in truth, in the same difficulty in coming to an accurate conclusion that the Chinese geographer Seu Kí-yu was when writing at Fuhchau in 1847; he could not explain the discrepancies he found between Rhodes and its colossus and Rhode Island in the United States.

Among the marts mentioned in the various authors, Greek, Roman, and Persian, only a few can be identified with even fair probability. The "Stone Tower" of Ptolemy seems to have denoted *Tashkend*, a name of the same meaning, and a town still resorted to for trade. His port of Cattigara may have been a mart at the mouth of the Meinam, the Meikon, the Chu Kiang, or some other large stream in that region, where sea-faring people could exchange their wares with the natives, then quite independent of the Chinese in Shensi, who were known to him as Seres. Cattigara is more probably to be looked for near Canton, for its annals state that in the reign of Hwan tí (A.D. 147-168) "Tienchuh (India), Ta-tsin (Rome, Egypt or Arabia), and other nations came by the southern sea with tribute, and from this time trade was carried on at Canton with foreigners." During the same dynasty (the Eastern Han),

foreigners came from Cantoo, Lu-hwang-chí, and other nations in the south. The nearest was about ten days' journey, and the farthest about five months'.¹

On the land frontier, the Chinese annals of the Han dynasty record the efforts of Wu tí (B.C. 140-86) to open a communication with the Yuehchí, or Getae, who had driven out the Greek rulers in Bactria and settled themselves north of the River Oxus, in order to get their help against his enemies the Huns. He sent an envoy, Chang Kiang, in 135, who was captured by the Huns and kept prisoner for ten years, when he escaped with some of his attendants and got to *Ta-wan*, or Ferghana, and thence reached the Yuehchí further south. He was unsuccessful in his mission, and attempted to return home through Tibet, but was re-taken by the Huns, and did not succeed in reporting himself at Chang-an till thirteen years had elapsed. The introduction of the vine into China is rather doubtfully ascribed to this brave envoy.

De Guignes concludes that this notice about trade at Canton refers to the embassy sent in A.D. 166 by the Emperor Marcus Aurelius (whom the Chinese call *An-tun*), which entered China by the south at Tongking, or Canton. The Latin author Florus, who lived in Trajan's reign, about fifty years before, has a passage showing, as proof of the universal awe and veneration in which the power of Rome was held under Augustus, that ambassadors from the remotest nations, the Seres and the Indians, came with presents of elephants, gems, and pearls—a rhetorical exaggeration quite on a par with the Chinese account of the tribute sent from *An-tun*, and not so well authenticated. Whether, indeed, the *Ta-tsin kwok* mentioned by Chinese writers meant Judea, Rome, or Persia, cannot now be exactly ascertained, though Yule concludes that this name almost certainly means the Roman Empire, otherwise called the Kingdom of the Western Sea. The title was given to these regions because of the analogy of its people to those of the Middle King-

¹ *Chinese Repository*, I., p. 365. Heeren, *Asiatic Researches*, II., pp. 285-295. Murray's *China*, I., p. 141. Yule's *Cathay*, Vol. I., pp. xli-xlv. Smith, *Classical Dictionary*, Art. SERES.