清代外務部 中外關係檔案史料叢編 一中英關係卷

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CHINA

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清代外務部中外關係檔案史料叢編-

中英關係卷

第三册・通商貿易

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CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN CHINA AND GREAT BRITAIN

VOLUME ||| COMMERCE AND TRADE

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前言

商貿易》出版了。 北京大學、中國第一歷史檔案館和澳大利亞拉籌伯大學的合作成果《清代外務部中外關係檔案史料叢編 這是研究中國近代史、中外關係史、中英通商貿易史的十分寶貴的歷史文獻。 中英關係卷・通

的真實記錄。從公文形式上看,主要有條約、照會、信函、咨文、電報等。文字上以漢文為主,另外還有百分之十五左右為英文 卷, 及其他文字。 清代總理各國事務衙門設置於咸豐十年(一八六○年),光緒二十六年(一九○○年)改稱外務部。現存的中英關係檔案共五四二 中國第一歷史檔案館現存明清檔案文獻一千多萬件,其中不少涉及到中外關係史的檔案主要集中在總理衙門暨外務部全宗中。 一萬一千餘件。 時間為咸豐十一年(一八六一年)至宣統三年(一九一二年),是晚清外務部與英國政府及駐華機構外交活動

學的專家學者們付出了許多心血 但將清代外務部檔案中中英關係檔案史料編輯出版,這還是第一次。為此, 年至一九四八年相繼出版《清季外交史料》、《清季教案史料》等。 有關清代中外關係檔案史料的編輯出版工作, 早在中國第一歷史檔案館的前身故宮博物院文獻館時期就已開始, 近年來也合作編輯出版過 中國第一歷史檔案館、 《清代外務部中奧關係檔案精選》等, 北京大學、 澳大利亞拉籌伯大 如一九三三

使這些檔案脈絡清晰, 續編輯出版中英關係其他專題的檔案。本卷所選檔案(主件、附件)三一六件, 照時間, 本書為《清代外務部中外關係檔案史料叢編 以便讀者檢索。 編者按照檔案形成時間順序編排。同時, 中英關係卷》的第三册,所選內容集中在通商貿易。 編者依據檔案內容逐件擬定標明題, 全部以原件影印出版, 編製目錄, 供專家學者研究參考。 按照計劃, 並注明中西曆對 我們還將陸 為

限於水準,疏誤之處,敬請讀者批評指教。

編者

二〇〇七年十月

編例

一、本書所編輯中英關係有關通商貿易檔案史料,均選自中國第一歷史檔案館館藏總理衙門暨外務部全宗檔案。 共輯録主件、附

件檔案三百一十六件。

二、本書所選全部檔案依照具文時間編排。

三、文件包括主件、附件,主件編有順序號,附件不單獨編排順序號,其時間依主件編排。

四、目録中每件檔案的具文時間照録清代紀年,並對應註明公元紀年。考證時間,目録中均用〇標識

五、全書所輯録各件檔案,均由編者根據内容擬定標題,編製中文、英文目録各一份,以便檢索。

六、原檔案文件中一些特殊的專用名詞及文字,目録中沿用, 個别專用名詞,如人名、地名、機構名稱等,在目録中全部統

七、本書所輯録的檔案,均按照原文件的形式采用高清晰度掃描去灰技術完成,

個別檔案不清,皆因原檔案基礎不好,爲保持檔

案的原貌,未進行加工處理。

八、由於編者水平所限,本書不週之處,敬請中外讀者不吝賜教。

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PREFACE

This work is the third in the collaborative project of the First Historical Archives of China, Peking University and La Trobe University, Australia to publish key documents from the First Historical Archives of China containing the correspondence between China and Britain in the Qing Dynasty. The current Volume deals with commerce and trade issues.

The constituent documents are almost all from the last few years (1903 - 1911) of the Qing Dynasty and they encompass a wide variety of topics ranging from major trading agreements to detailed, epistolary exchanges over relative banalities such as the export of ducks and pheasants. The general context is set out in the introductory essay, whilst the documents themselves have been arranged chronologically.

This Volume is again the outcome of a collaborative program of research on the part of the three aforementioned bodies and thanks and congratulations are in order for the numerous scholarly contributors. From the First Historical Archives of China the key contributors were Professor Xing Yongfu and Professor Zou Ailian, who facilitated the archival searches, and Mr Hu Zhongliang, who selected and prepared for publication the original documents. From Peking University the major contributors were Professor Hao Ping, now President of the Beijing Foreign Studies University, but still a major scholarly contributor, and Professors Li Yansong and Xu Kai, who provided historical guidance and expertise. From La Trobe University the protagonists continued to be Professor Pei Likun, the Executive Director of the Melbourne based Peking University/La Trobe University/Beijing Foreign Studies University Centre for China Studies, who analysed the Chinese documents and translated the analytical list of contents into English; Professor Alan Frost, Director of the Institute for Advanced Study and Professor of History at La Trobe University and Fellow of the Australian Academy of the Humanities, who advised on historical aspects and wrote the introductory essay; and Professor Michael Osborne, former President of La Trobe University, currently Guest Professor at Peking University and Fellow of the Australian Academy of the Humanities, of the Academy of Athens (Greece) and of the Hungarian Academy of Engineering, who organized the analytical conspectus of contents, advised on historical issues and exercised the responsibilities of joint Chief Editor.

All of the above contributors express the hope that this Volume will serve as a useful and productive quarry for historical research.

PROFESSOR MICHAEL OSBORNE JOINT CHIEF EDITOR SEPTEMBER 2007

Introduction

Michael Osborne Pei Likun Alan Frost

From the middle of the eighteenth century up until 1833, with the exception of smuggled items, all Western trade with China was conducted through a single entry point, the southern port city of Canton. There, under the supervision of the Hoppo, an official personally appointed by the Emperor, a guild of local merchants (the Cohong) acted as intermediaries between the despised barbarian traders and Chinese officials and merchants who benefited from the trade, which the Chinese viewed as a regrettable necessity (not the least because a significant proportion of the customs duties it generated was remitted directly to the Emperor).

For much of this period the principal export items were tea, silk and porcelains, for which the Westerners had mostly to pay in silver. But in the opening decades of the nineteenth century, the Chinese turned to offering silver or credit for two new items of trade—cotton goods and opium.

It was the demand for opium, the importation of which was technically illegal, that directly led to the rapid dissolution of a mode of trading that had functioned successfully for decades. From 1800—1809 China's surplus of export over import revenue was c. \$26,000,000.¹ Between 1828 and 1836 this surplus had been transformed into a deficit of c. \$38,000,000.² It was the amount of opium being imported that made for this extraordinary difference—for example, in 1833 the value of non – European (mostly Indian) goods was \$33,000,000, while that of British goods was a mere \$3,500,000.³ In 1836, for example the value of opium alone sent to Canton was \$18,000,000, which made it 'the world's most valuable single commodity trade of the nineteenth century'. 4

On 31 December 1838, alarmed equally by the ever – increasing number of addicts in the Middle Kingdom, and by the outflow of silver and credit used to pay for the narcotic, the Tao – kuang Emperor appointed a commissioner with extensive military powers to eradicate the trade. Among Wei Yuan's first measures were the demands that British merchants hand over their supplies and enter on bonds not to import more, on penalty of death. If acceded to, these demands would have sharply reduced the income of the foreign merchants, and removed from them the protection of the special status they had hitherto enjoyed. From the Chinese point of view, the British were barbarians who might be easily brought to heel by facee and a more just appreciation of the superior, of the Chinese way. From that of the British, the Chinese failed to recognize either the equality of their nation, or their legitimate right to trade. This second British complaint involved the issue of which administrative and legal jurisdictions foreigners were properly to be subject to, an issue which can be summarized by the term 'extraterritoriality' (see below).

The British merchants initially refused to meet these demands. The Chinese then blockaded their factories, until they handed over their opium supplies. They continued to refuse to sign bonds against further importation, and, fearing for their lives, they with drewen masse to Macau, until, bowing

^{1.} Spanish, Mexican or South American silver dollars.

^{2.} Cambridge History of China, vol. 10, p. 173.

^{3.} Greenberg, p. 10.

^{4.} Cambridge History of China, vol. 10, p. 172.

to Chinese pressure, its governor expelled them. Locating his two warships and the merchants' vessels off Hong Kong, Captain Elliot twice routed Chinese naval squadrons. The situation then continued to escalate, until a British naval expedition with 4,000 troops with their superior weaponry and discipline defeated Chinese forces in the south, captured the island of Chusan and worryingly moved northwards towards the imperial capital.

The commanders of the British force brought with them a series of demands: possession of an island as a naval and trading base; access to other ports; reparation of the debts owed by the Chinese to the British merchants; the abolition of the Cohong; freedom to trade in opium; and state to state diplomatic relations. Naturally, these demands were repugnant to Chinese authorities, and especially to the Emperor. However, he sent another emissary to negotiate, and, believing that the negotiations were genuine, the British commanders withdrew their force to Canton. But when Captain Elliot realized that Chinese politeness was a mask for inertia, he captured Canton's fortifications and threatened to destroy the city. He then negotiated with the imperial representative a convention, by which he secured the island of Hong Kong; payment of \$6,000,000; recognition of equal – nation status; and the opening of trade at Canton—in exchange for all of which he agreed to return Chusan.

However, both the Chinese imperial government and the British one then repudiated the Convention of Chuenpi. The British sent out a new plenipotentiary to achieve more extensive terms; but before Elliot had news that he was being replaced, he had destroyed the southern Chinese war fleet and forced the capitulation of Hong Kong.

Sir Henry Pottinger reached Hong Kong in August 1841 with more warships and troops; and the much – augmented British force quickly captured Amoy. It then moved on to the re – fortified Chusan, which it took after only three days; then to Chenhai and Ningpo, which it also captured very quickly.

On 10 March 1842 a massive Chinese force counterattacked the British at Ningpo, Chenhai and Chusan, to be comprehensively defeated with great loss of life. The British then continued the campaign along the Yangzte valley, capturing Chapu, Shanghai and Chen – Chiang, and moving to Nanking, which was effectively the capital of China south of the great river.

Now with a real appreciation of the threat the foreigners posed, the imperial Court began negotiations, literally at the last moment before the British were to attack Nanking. As well as the concessions earlier won by Elliot, the Treaty of Nanking (29 August 1842) provided for access to five ports (Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, Shanghai); consuls in each to represent British interests; permanent residence for British nationals (who would not be amenable to Chinese control and justice); a uniform, low, tariff on imports and exports; and the maintenance of naval vessels.

Soon afterwards the French and Americans, by treaty, gained similar privileges, and the additional one of limited tolerance of Christian missionary activity.

From 1858 – 60 Britain and France again used force to obtain further concessions in China, with the campaign now reaching north to Beijing. The treaties which ended this conflict resulted in the location of foreign envoys in Beijing; the tripling of the number of treaty ports (including three on the Yangzte River—Chinpiang, Kiakiang, Hankow); the identification of areas in these ports under the control of foreign powers ('concessions'); the establishment of the Chinese Maritime Customs Service, a semi – autonomous bureaucracy the senior officers of which were Europeans. Now, too,

the Westerners gain the right to participate in the coastal carrying trade and to send small steam ships up the rivers under a transit pass system, with the *likin* (the internal transit tax instituted in 1853) replaced by an additional customs charge of one half of the tariff levied on imported goods.

The Treaties of Nanking, Tientsin and Shanghai, then, set the stage for the incorporation of China into the West's political and economic systems, a process which, while it developed only slowly in the second half of the nineteenth century, did nevertheless develop steadily.

By the 1890s, a distinctive commercial system had evolved in the treaty ports. In them foreign merchants resided 'extraterritorially', under the control of their nation's consuls. These merchants imported goods from Europe and elsewhere (in the case of the British, predominantly from India); and they exported Chinese goods, predominantly commodities and primary produce, but also some 'handicraft' manufactures, such a silk.

Chinese exports came from the reaches of the kingdom, brought by (often long) land and water routes, and changing hands at a series of markets in an upward process of quantity and price, with the *likin* levied at each collection point, until they were acquired by the *compradors*, Chinese agents of the foreign merchants in the treaty ports, who also dealt on their own behalf. The *compradors* relieved the foreign merchants of the burden of dealing with the bewildering range of internal Chinese currencies, weights and measures and taxes; while the merchants often established banking and insurance houses to finance their activities. The foreign merchants and the *compradors* in the treaty ports, then, were the means of interchange between China and the West.

Opium, the importation of which continued to be legally problematic, was usually distributed to Chinese merchants from ships off – shore. Into the treaty ports came cotton yarn and cloth, tin, pepper, and some manufactured items, including kerosene and (from the 1880s) equipment for mining and railways. Out of them went tea, silk, porcelain, and peanut, soy – bean, rapeseed and camphor products. Both exports and imports were subject to a uniform tariff of 5% ad valorem.

Until the 1890s, there was only a very small manufacturing section in China. In the 1870s, the recognition that China's armed forces needed Western guns, cannon and steam – driven iron ships if they were to compete with the barbarian aggressors had given rise to some ship and munitions manufacture; but this 'self – strengthening' movement had faltered with the a series of occupations and defeats by Russia, France and Japan. Before 1895, there were otherwise only about one hundred small, foreign – owned factories, which were technically illegal. After legalization, more opened, often with heavy Chinese investment in them. The progressive adoption of the Western sources of power—steam and then electricity—also saw some 350 Chinese – owned factories set up in the period 1895 – 1913. This was the true beginning of China's modern industrial production.

The success of the foreign powers' military campaigns, the rapid growth in railway construction about the turn of the twentieth century, and the eagerness of Western—and now also American and Japanese—investors and financial houses to subscribe to the loans extended to the Chinese government to enable it to pay the 'indemnities' demanded by the victors reinforced the long – held belief that the vast inland regions of China presented limitless commercial possibilities. The foreign powers turned to demanding more treaty ports and freer access to the interior, demands which the Chinese government resisted as best it could.

Even so, up until 1911, British trade with China continued essentially as described above; with

manufactured goods coming in, and commodities of various sorts being brought out.

The documents selected for this, volume [of the Diplomatic Correspondence between China and Great Britain reflect these circumstances. We see salt, coinage, books, heavy machinery being imported; tea, silk, pig's bristles, camphor, and some foodstuffs being exported; and as well the intra—China transportation of items such as tea and coal. And, reflecting emergent technology, canned and frozen foodstuffs.

The Chinese central government faced a number of severe problems in the years covered by this selection. It had to deal with provincial rulers and warlords accustomed to considerable independence (including the rights to levy taxes and to extract 'contributions' from local populations); with an educated gentry class deeply suspicious of any co – operation with the barbarians; with repeated and wide – spread rebellions; with natural disasters (such as the famines of 1877 – 8, 1892 – 4 and 1900); and with the foreigners with their superior military technology and rapacious ways. As well, many of its senior officials were locked into a Confucian dream of civility and right order, which left them unable to appreciate either the ways of the foreigners or the tenacity with which these were prepared to achieve their objectives. The hold of Chinese central authority was therefore always tenuous, and its reach distinctly limited and sometimes non – existent.

Some of these documents also eloquently reveal these circumstances, with the British envoys making repeated requests for more open ports and trading privileges, and complaining about the oppression of provincial officials and the mistreatment of their nationals attempting to develop commercial opportunities in the interior.

Another development in the last years of the period under consideration was that Chinese imperial authorities sought to regain greater control of the nation's affairs. Understanding this, the Westerners were forced to relinquish earlier notions of partitioning China, or of establishing exclusive spheres of influence in it. And understanding this, they saw too that it was no longer appropriate or feasible to use threats of force to insist strictly on the provisions of the treaties, so that, increasingly, they turned to persuasion instead. A number of the documents also reflect these changing attitudes.

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目録

思理衙門職將馬爲委員解運鍋爐回滇經海防東京安拜等處請簽發護牌並飭保護事致署理英國駐華公使艾倫賽等照總理衙門職路局爲委員解運鍋爐回滇經海防東京安拜等處請簽發護牌並飭保護事致뾩理英國駐華公使艾倫賽等照總理衙門職路局爲委員解運鍋爐回滇經海防東京安拜等處請准發護牌事致總理衙門照會 「光緒二十五年二月二十一日〕(1899. 4. 3) 附件: 鈔録雲南解銅委員李盛卿爲解運鍋爐戶滇經海防東京安拜等處請准發護牌事致總理衙門照會 「光緒二十五年二月二十三日〕(1899. 4. 3) 附件: 鈔録與英領事來往文稿 「光緒二十五年二月二十三日〕(1899. 4. 5) 「光緒二十五年二月二十五年(1899. 4. 5) 於結二十五年二月二十五日〕(1902. 1. 0. 22) 「光緒二十八年三月初八日〕(1902. 1. 0. 22)
Figure 1

清代外務部中其關係檔案史科叢編—中英關係卷

光緒二十八年九月二十九日(1902.10.30)

- J	九			八		七		六	<u>一</u> 五		<u> </u>		\equiv		=	_		$\overline{\circ}$
光緒二十九年五月初八日(1903. 6. 3)		光緒二十九年四月二十六日(1903.5.22)	利益事致外務部照會	署理英國駐華公使燾納理爲鈔録駐漢口總領事法磊斯因他國欲在漢口設定躉船致湖廣總督照會聲明應保護英商	〔光緒二十九年四月二十日〕(1903.5.16)	外務部爲所詢商約各節據實復明事致署理英國駐華公使燾訥理信函稿	[光緒二十九年四月十六日](1903.5.12)	北洋大臣袁世凱爲英商怡和洋行赴喇嘛廟買馬以備跑賽之用請發護照事致外務部咨呈	署理英國駐華公使燾納理爲廣西禁牛出口於香港大有不便請速電該省即行停止事致外務部信函	[光緒二十九年三月初三日](1903.3.31)	署理英國駐華公使燾訥理爲本國政府詢問商約各節請示復事致外務部信函	光緒二十九年二月二十二日(1903.3.20)	署理英國駐華公使燾納理爲中國米穀禁運別口一事願遵本國訓條辦理事致外務部照會會	〔光緒二十八年十月十五日〕(1902.11.16)	外務部爲饑荒禁運米穀待各國議定新約後再照辦事致英國駐華公使薩道義照會稿	外務部爲閩省腦務合同未經本部核准至洋商向官局購運樟腦並無阻攔事致英國駐華公使薩道義照會稿三九	[光緒二十八年九月二十九日](1902.10.30)	外務部爲膏引辦法未善應按向章辦理膏牌事致英國駐華公使薩道義照會稿

四九 1. と 2. 日本 2. 日本

英國駐華公使薩道義爲閩省阻撓英商購買樟腦已受虧損請補償事致外務部照會 九七	四一
光緒二十九年十二月二十四日(1904.2.9)	
商部爲現訂商律請將總稅務司前擬商標註册章程抄稿或原稿移送事致外務部咨呈 九五	四〇
〔光緒二十九年十二月十一日〕(1904.1.27)	
署理閩浙總督李興鋭爲蘇俊案議結嗣後應申明約章辦理事致外務部咨呈 ⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯⋯ 九○	三九
〔光緒二十九年十二月初二日〕(1904.1.18)	
廣西巡撫柯逢時爲米穀出口已照會税司辦理牌號註册局應俟南洋大臣核派事致外務部咨呈	兲
〔光緒二十九年十月初五日](1903.11.23)	
外務部爲蘇俊已釋放並英商購買樟腦一事已咨閩省妥辦事致英國駐華公使薩道義照會稿	三七
〔光緒二十九年十月初三日〕(1903.11.21)	
外務部爲洋商購買樟腦希酌核辦理事致署理閩浙總督李興鋭咨稿 八五	三六
光緒二十九年九月三十日(1903.11.18)	
英國駐華公使薩道義爲請飭閩省立將蘇俊釋放並不得阻攔英商購買樟腦事致外務部照會	三五
〔光緒二十九年九月二十三日〕(1903.11.11)	
外務部爲違約購買樟腦華人蘇俊已飭發落事致英國駐華公使薩道義照會稿 八四	三四
〔光緒二十九年九月十五日〕(1903.11.3)	
外務部爲總税務司擬中英新約第三第五第十等款請查照辦理事致署理兩廣總督岑春煊等咨札稿	\equiv
光緒二十九年九月初八日(1903.10.27)	
總税務司赫德爲新訂商約商船納税等款請速行酌奪事致外務部陳幫瑞等信函	三
光緒二十九年八月二十四日(1903.10.14)	
英國駐華公使薩道義爲請轉飭閩省不得阻攔英商購買樟腦事致外務部照會	三
光緒二十九年八月初十日(1903.9.30)	

光緒二十九年十二月二十五日(1904.2.10)