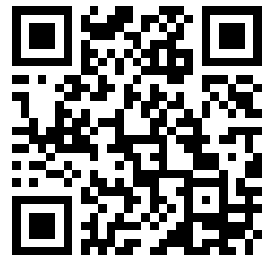

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Journal
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The American Asiatic Association
VOL. VII.

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Journal of The American Asiatic Association

VOL. VII.

February, 1907

NUMBER I

PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

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Subscription Rates :

| | |
|---|---------------------------|
| The United States, | One Dollar per year |
| China, the Philippines and the Straits Settlements, | Two Dollars Mex. per year |
| Japan, | Two Yen per year |

All communications relating either to the reading matter of the JOURNAL or to its advertisements should be addressed to

JOHN FOORD, PUBLISHER,

78 Beekman Street.

New York City.

THE communication elsewhere published from the chairman of the executive committee of the Central China Famine Fund reveals the existence of such a visitation of famine as has hardly been equalled in our time. It should not be necessary to reproduce the harrowing details of privation, disease and death which accompany such a state of things as prevails among the ten millions of people inhabiting the northern parts of the provinces of Kiangsu and Anhui. The calamity, if it be measured in terms of human life, and that surely is the only true standard in such a case, far transcends in tragic intensity that of either San Francisco or Kingston, and should appeal to the heart of the civilized world with at least equal force. Unhappily, it has so far hardly touched the compassionate sympathy of our people; partly because the newspapers have had but little to say concerning it, and partly because of the difficulty of realizing how, without any convulsion of nature or destructive act of man, there should be reduced to absolute dependence on the charity of mankind for their daily food over a million human beings. It is relief or death for these people, and that will continue to be a simple statement of fact for the next four months at least. The attention of our members is earnestly directed to the following passage in an appeal which has been issued by a special committee of this association, acting under the direction of President Morse: "The responsibility of relieving the distress of these famishing millions rests, of course, primarily with the Chinese Government and people; but the colossal magnitude of the task presented to them and the inadequacy of the resources available to meet it, warrant the most urgent appeal to the American people to come to the rescue of this vast multitude of their fellow-beings who are so piteously incapable of helping themselves."

Contributions should be sent to Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, treasurer of the Red Cross Fund, at 52 William street, New York.

THE sensational rumors that have been recently circulated about the imminence of war with Japan might be dismissed as the fantastic inventions of obscure scribblers but for their persistent repetition and the prominence given to them in the columns of otherwise responsible newspapers. It is not very clear what interests can be served by sowing discord between Japan and the United States, but there are evidently some powerful influences at work for that end. While the attitude of the President and his Cabinet toward our relations with Japan remains as it is there is little

danger of any disturbance of their friendliness. Fortunately, there is behind the Administration the sentiment of the vast majority of the people of the United States, and opposed to it only an insignificant minority, including some of the least reputable elements of the political and labor organizations of the Pacific Coast. We give, in another part of the JOURNAL, a summary of the points made on behalf of the Government in the suits instituted for the purpose of enforcing the provisions of the treaty with Japan giving to the Japanese equal school advantages. The Government takes the ground that treaties made by the United States constitute the supreme law of the land, anything in any State Constitution or law to the contrary notwithstanding. How solid that ground is was ably demonstrated by Mr. David J. Foster, of Vermont, in a recent speech delivered in the House of Representatives, extracts from which will be found elsewhere. Mr. Foster cites an unbroken line of decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, as well as the decisions of some of the State courts, in support of the Government position taken in the two suits, one of which has been brought in the Supreme Court of the State of California and the other in the Federal Circuit Court. Curiously enough, among the State Court decisions quoted by Mr. Foster is one of the Supreme Court of California in 1855, which passed upon a denial by the State of the power of the Federal Government to make a treaty which should remove the disability of alienage as against the laws of the State respecting inheritance of lands. In upholding the treaty, the court called attention to the fact that cases had frequently arisen where aliens had claimed to inherit by virtue of treaty provisions analogous to the one under consideration, and that all of them had been enforced in favor of the foreign claimant.

ONE point made by the attorneys for the Government will be found elaborated in a very interesting article contributed to this month's JOURNAL by Mr. Max. J. Kohler. The point is that the Japanese are not in any sense "Mongolians," but form a separate and distinct race, and that for more than twenty years, and until recently, the authorities in California have conceded that the Japanese were not included in the term "Mongolian," and have admitted them to all the public schools. In the masterly summary of the contradictions of our naturalization laws Mr. Kohler points out the extremely narrow ground on which Judge Colt, in 1894, denied naturalization to a Japanese applicant. Judge Colt's theory was that when our first naturalization law was passed the country was inhabited only by Caucasians or whites, negroes or blacks, and Americans or red men, and he found in the selection of the term "white" an intention to exclude the yellow races, who were then to our people unknown. But if "Caucasian" is to be employed in the sense of Aryan various Asiatic people, such as the Afghans, Persians and Hindoos, would have to be included, while Hungarians and some of the Russian races would have to be excluded from naturalization. It is a manifest absurdity, from whatever point the question may be regarded, to deny naturalization on the score of color, and to discriminate against Japanese persons in favor of natives of Africa who happen to be covered by the provisions of the title of the Revised Statutes dealing with naturalization. In any readjustment of our relations with Japan it will be hardly possible to keep this question out of the range of discussion, and equally difficult to discover any

basis of agreement in regard to it which would meet the approval of a sufficient majority of the Senate of the United States.

THE returns of the foreign trade of the United States for the calendar year are now complete, and some of the export and import items relating to China and Japan will be found in our customary tables. Broadly speaking, our exports to China for 1906 have amounted to \$29,934,015 against \$58,574,793 in 1905 and \$27,921,033 in 1904. The imports, which stood for several years at between twenty-eight and twenty-nine millions, reached in 1906 a total of \$30,775,557, thus more than balancing the exports. It will be perceived, that leaving out of the comparison the abnormal proportions of the trade of 1905, there is something like a normal increase in both exports and imports. If the Hongkong figures are to be added this increase disappears—a fact which must be chiefly attributed to the effect of the boycott in southern China on our exports to Hongkong of kerosene oil and wheat flour. The shrinkage in 1906, as compared with 1905, of our exports to the Chinese Empire is entirely covered by the decreased export of cotton cloth and of copper, these two items combined having declined from \$45,000,000 in 1905 to \$17,000,000 in 1906. The figures for Japan show a decrease in exports of \$21,000,000 as compared with 1905, but an increase of nearly \$3,000,000 as compared with 1904, and there is a satisfactory beginning in Corea, to which our exports last year amounted to \$1,865,751. Even with Asiatic Russia there has been a substantial gain in exports, the figures for 1906 being \$2,318,717. Perhaps the most remarkable feature of our trade with Japan consists in the steady increase of imports. The figures for 1904 were \$49,788,504; for 1905, \$50,703,377, and for 1906, \$64,791,485. The latter total being fully thirty millions above the value of our exports, we shall shortly be hearing of the alarming proportions of the adverse balance of trade in our commerce with Japan, and the Island Empire will be accused of making unfair discriminations against the products of American industry, while missing no opportunity to unload upon us her own.

A CONTENTION like this would not be one whit more rational than a great deal of the discussion of which the rumors of war with Japan have been made the occasion. Even so sensible a man as Senator Perkins, of California, talks seriously about the inevitable conflict, in the not distant future, between Japan and ourselves for the control of the Pacific. It is difficult to argue with patience about some of the statements which have been made in regard to the essential incompatibility of the interests of Japan and the United States. The fact is that no two countries have less excuse for any serious differences, and between none does there exist so many well grounded reasons for friendship. Half the great statesmen of Japan have been of American education, and not only was the entrance of Japan into the family of nations brought about by pressure from the United States, but at every point of Japanese development the influence of this country, or of men trained in this country, has been the guiding principle of action. Weak and wicked are terms altogether too mild to apply to the stuff that has recently been circulated from Washington in regard to the relations, present and future, between the United States and Japan.

Exports of Domestic Cotton Cloths, Mineral Oils, and Wheat Flour from the United States to China and Hongkong, during the twelve months ending November 31, 1905 and 1906.

EXPORTS TO CHINA.

| Months. | Cotton Cloths. | | Mineral Oils. | | Wheat Flour. | |
|---------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|-----------|
| 1905. | Yards. | | Gallons. | | Barrels. | |
| January..... | 28,480,261 | \$1,626,920 | 8,867,873 | \$903,403 | 9,713 | \$37,589 |
| February..... | 45,011,364 | 2,498,418 | 1,711,363 | 182,683 | 6,386 | 26,000 |
| March..... | 45,717,073 | 2,576,523 | 10,042,765 | 883,960 | 9,072 | 34,830 |
| April..... | 48,014,580 | 3,103,367 | 7,017,894 | 661,062 | 9,900 | 38,130 |
| May..... | 51,456,621 | 3,318,804 | 8,297,150 | 577,430 | 4,570 | 18,175 |
| June..... | 53,445,070 | 3,316,453 | 9,422,218 | 828,682 | 13,529 | 49,604 |
| July..... | 46,166,783 | 2,724,181 | 4,577,172 | 246,800 | 1,110 | 4,892 |
| August..... | 63,411,726 | 3,519,840 | 5,102,675 | 372,815 | 1,028 | 4,046 |
| September.... | 49,069,790 | 2,881,780 | 6,812,489 | 534,576 | 2,770 | 9,963 |
| October..... | 29,828,023 | 1,839,189 | 3,835,150 | 396,589 | 32,871 | 109,773 |
| November..... | 52,705,432 | 3,212,585 | 5,780,919 | 351,928 | 9,694 | 34,859 |
| December..... | 48,525,998 | 2,896,758 | 5,500,971 | 545,659 | 20,747 | 77,192 |
| Total..... | 562,732,721 | \$33,514,818 | 76,968,639 | \$6,485,587 | 121,390 | \$445,053 |

| 1906. | | | | | | |
|---------------|-------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------|-------------|
| January..... | 45,178,409 | \$2,532,515 | 3,307,162 | \$247,699 | 28,774 | \$96,746 |
| February..... | 40,068,662 | 2,299,574 | 795,586 | 84,404 | 2,504 | 9,535 |
| March..... | 30,065,930 | 1,730,955 | 3,928,492 | 231,514 | 7,757 | 27,526 |
| April..... | 38,398,916 | 2,460,385 | 2,756,782 | 155,325 | 3,818 | 12,784 |
| May..... | 30,702,112 | 1,993,654 | 3,522,202 | 365,476 | 32,633 | 108,426 |
| June..... | 23,499,621 | 1,549,772 | 9,014,331 | 723,107 | 10,515 | 38,272 |
| July..... | 16,895,213 | 1,070,858 | 6,554,814 | 514,067 | 40,024 | 155,473 |
| August..... | 11,542,141 | 762,060 | 2,966,586 | 121,993 | 14,582 | 50,534 |
| September.... | 15,389,513 | 1,016,379 | 3,892,695 | 189,198 | 49,824 | 158,516 |
| October..... | 8,796,507 | 555,740 | 2,929,800 | 128,200 | 218,590 | 750,955 |
| November..... | 7,367,251 | 531,273 | 4,026,954 | 407,633 | 45,975 | 165,757 |
| December..... | 2,895,000 | 201,658 | 6,781,682 | 536,188 | 86,603 | 271,864 |
| Total..... | 270,799,275 | \$16,704,823 | 50,477,086 | \$3,715,804 | 541,599 | \$1,846,388 |

EXPORTS TO HONGKONG.

| Months. | Cotton Cloths. | | Mineral Oils. | | Wheat Flour. | |
|---------------|----------------|----------|---------------|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| 1905. | Yards. | | Gallons. | | Barrels. | |
| January..... | 59,046 | \$10,355 | 764,808 | \$78,334 | 29,180 | \$115,690 |
| February..... | 71,738 | 8,116 | 504,756 | 42,094 | 34,293 | 133,638 |
| March..... | 34,958 | 4,815 | 34,588 | 5,039 | 42,217 | 169,454 |
| April..... | 18,886 | 2,690 | 2,489,270 | 231,586 | 18,630 | 73,715 |
| May..... | 54,498 | 8,993 | 1,643,107 | 164,784 | 77,959 | 305,443 |
| June..... | 30,094 | 3,494 | 666,659 | 51,973 | 42,896 | 157,140 |
| July..... | 30,064 | 3,177 | 712,246 | 73,254 | 108,132 | 384,254 |
| August..... | 83,435 | 11,328 | 71,338 | 10,352 | 59,660 | 231,092 |
| September.... | 15,608 | 2,375 | 2,093,430 | 168,400 | 56,935 | 206,244 |
| October..... | 49,941 | 6,210 | 8,524 | 1,095 | 81,934 | 294,056 |
| November..... | 4,761 | 904 | 229,861 | 24,622 | 154,321 | 531,685 |
| December..... | 2,646 | 590 | 979,013 | 104,860 | 83,375 | 301,473 |
| Total..... | 455,675 | \$630,47 | 10,197,600 | \$956,393 | 789,732 | \$2,903,884 |

| 1906. | | | | | | |
|---------------|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|---------|-------------|
| January..... | 21,428 | \$2,815 | 55,704 | \$8,470 | 81,395 | \$313,296 |
| February..... | 24,514 | 5,630 | 2,810 | 759 | 105,367 | 388,473 |
| March..... | | | 80 | 25 | 48,941 | 178,973 |
| April..... | 68,404 | 10,155 | 88,173 | 13,149 | 46,532 | 181,163 |
| May..... | 37,357 | 5,980 | 1,666,150 | 172,044 | 67,965 | 258,538 |
| June..... | 36,805 | 4,702 | 59,362 | 10,090 | 31,423 | 122,440 |
| July..... | 50,027 | 6,228 | 15,063 | 2,346 | 65,248 | 229,073 |
| August..... | 100,392 | 9,345 | 423,404 | 44,580 | 94,848 | 352,466 |
| September.... | 73,674 | 10,041 | 2,291,031 | 200,285 | 93,980 | 359,384 |
| October..... | 63,879 | 8,109 | 1,681,916 | 168,713 | 98,187 | 364,904 |
| November.... | 22,621 | 2,927 | 21,599 | 2,591 | 92,545 | 349,077 |
| December..... | 69,227 | 9,089 | 1,479,169 | 149,565 | 103,487 | 362,374 |
| Total..... | 568,328 | \$75,021 | 7,784,461 | \$772,617 | 929,618 | \$3,460,161 |

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR,

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 31, 1907.

Bureau of Statistics.

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Imports of Tea and Silk into the United States for the twelve months ending December 31, 1904, 1905 and 1906.

TEA.

| Imported from | 1904. | | 1905. | | 1906. | |
|---------------------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. |
| United Kingdom..... | 7,226,071 | 1,527,874 | 7,382,613 | 1,630,597 | 8,554,520 | 1,853,060 |
| British North America.... | 2,197,299 | 494,308 | 2,002,758 | 484,927 | 2,301,201 | 548,290 |
| Chinese Empire..... | 46,076,303 | 6,161,530 | 38,814,095 | 5,155,840 | 32,954,924 | 4,335,536 |
| East Indies..... | 7,886,033 | 1,157,133 | 6,741,188 | 942,905 | 8,081,688 | 1,146,490 |
| Japan..... | 42,762,357 | 7,402,554 | 41,338,766 | 6,707,128 | 36,586,320 | 5,974,634 |
| Other Asia and Oceania .. | 366,081 | 46,801 | 333,500 | 45,029 | 671,753 | 121,763 |
| Other countries | 276,978 | 67,079 | 166,225 | 37,162 | 287,351 | 67,273 |
| Total..... | 106,791,122 | 16,857,279 | 96,779,145 | 15,003,588 | 89,437,757 | 14,047,046 |

RAW, OR AS REELED FROM THE COCOON.

SILK.

| Imported from | 1904. | | 1905. | | 1906. | |
|----------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. |
| France..... | 664,609 | 1,912,120 | 643,313 | 2,086,956 | 474,286 | 1,881,042 |
| Italy..... | 3,550,134 | 13,261,725 | 3,975,784 | 15,144,613 | 3,728,822 | 15,324,939 |
| Chinese Empire..... | 3,527,377 | 9,972,386 | 3,245,402 | 9,500,589 | 2,769,228 | 8,698,076 |
| Japan..... | 7,924,977 | 27,141,103 | 7,486,120 | 27,529,731 | 9,764,246 | 38,461,954 |
| Other countries | 910,908 | 2,591,942 | 164,099 | 550,406 | 107,453 | 368,482 |
| Total..... | 16,578,005 | 54,879,276 | 15,514,718 | 54,812,294 | 16,844,035 | 64,734,493 |
| Wastelbs...free.. | 4,200,979 | 1,568,943 | 3,987,869 | 1,410,682 | 1,810,776 | 935,713 |
| Total unmanufactured | | 56,448,246 | | 56,239,380 | | 65,673,279 |

AMENDED CHINESE EXCLUSION ACT.

The following is the text of the bill agreed upon by the Sub-Committee of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs as an amended Chinese Exclusion Act:

A BILL

To Regulate the Coming of Chinese into the United States, and for Other Purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That any Chinese or person of Chinese descent, irrespective of such person's occupation, holding a certificate of residence duly issued to him, shall be entitled after having departed from this country to return thereto at any time, if admissible under the provisions of the laws regulating immigration upon compliance with the following conditions: First, he shall depart through an established port for the entry of Chinese; second, he shall deposit with the Chinese inspector in charge at such port at the time of said departure therefrom his certificate of residence, and, third, he shall re-enter the United States through the same port and be admitted thereat without other condition than his identification at such port at the time of such return with the person to whom such certificate of residence was issued, in accordance with regulations prescribed by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor to prevent imposture; and in the event of the failure of such Chinese or person of Chinese descent to so establish his identity at the time of said return he shall be returned to the country whence he came by the vessel upon which he was brought.

Sec. 2. That it shall be the duty of all Chinese or persons of Chinese descent, other than those engaged as teachers, students, merchants or visitors traveling for curiosity or pleasure in the United States, to apply to such officers as may be designated in their respective districts for that

purpose by the Commissioner-General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, within one year after the passage of this act, for a certificate of residence; and any Chinese or person of Chinese descent required by this section to secure such certificate who, after the expiration of said year, shall be found within the jurisdiction of the United States without such certificate of residence shall be deemed to be unlawfully within the United States, and shall be taken into custody upon the warrant of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, and unless it shall be satisfactorily established that the failure of such Chinese or person of Chinese descent to procure a certificate of residence during the period prescribed was by reason of accident, sickness or other unavoidable cause, he shall be deported upon the warrant of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, to the country of which he is a citizen or subject, at the expense of the United States; Provided, That pending the final disposal of the case of any Chinese or person of Chinese descent so arrested he may be released under bond in the penalty of not less than \$500, with security approved by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor or approved by the immigration officers in accordance with regulations of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, conditioned that such Chinese or person of Chinese descent shall be produced when required for a hearing or hearings in regard to the charge upon which he has been arrested, and for deportation if he shall be found to be unlawfully within the United States.

Should it appear that said Chinese or person of Chinese descent had procured a certificate and that such certificate has been lost or destroyed, he may be granted a duplicate thereof and upon the receipt of such duplicate be discharged; Provided, That no Chinese or person of Chinese descent convicted in any court of the States or Territories,

or of the United States, of a felony shall be permitted to register under the provisions of this act.

Certificates of residence issued under the provisions of this act shall be so prepared, under regulations of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, as to prevent counterfeiting, and shall contain such descriptions of the persons to whom issued as will readily identify the holders thereof, including photographs of such holders, both full face and in profile, upon a portion of which photographs shall be superimposed the seal of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

Sec. 3. That any Chinese or person of Chinese descent in the United States at the date of the passage of this act and engaged in the occupation of a teacher, a student, a merchant or a traveler for curiosity or pleasure shall be entitled to a certificate of residence under the provisions of this act, which shall be the sole evidence of the right to reside in the United States if such right is subsequently questioned upon the ground that such person is occupied otherwise than in one of the pursuits recited in this section.

Sec. 4. That no certificate of residence, other than a duplicate of one satisfactorily proven to have been lost or destroyed, shall be issued under the provisions of this act after the expiration of one year from the date of its passage.

Sec. 5. That nothing in the provisions of this act or of any other act shall be construed to prevent, hinder or restrict Chinese teachers, students, merchants, bankers, accountants, bookkeepers, members of the learned professions, editors and travelers for curiosity or pleasure, under the requirements now enforced or that may hereafter be made, from entering the United States, subject to such regulations as to method of entry as are or may be lawfully provided. It shall be unlawful for any Chinese person or person of Chinese descent who shall hereafter enter the United States under the authorization herein granted to work for gain as a laborer, and any person violating the provisions of this section shall be liable to be deported.

Sec. 6. That the term "student" wherever used in this act and in other acts pertaining to Chinese immigration shall be held to mean a person coming to the United States for the exclusive purpose of pursuing any branch of liberal education, religious, scientific, mechanical, literary or artistic, for information or to become fitted for some profession or occupation and not as a means of livelihood in the United States, and for whose support and maintenance in the United States as a student provision has been made.

Sec. 7. That every Chinese or person of Chinese descent who shall seek permission to land in the United States upon the ground that he is entitled to land because he is a teacher, a student, a merchant, a banker, an accountant, a bookkeeper, a member of the learned professions, a doctor, or a traveler for curiosity or pleasure, and that he intends to pursue such avocation if allowed to enter the United States, shall produce a certificate showing the permission of the Chinese Government or of such other foreign government of which at the time such Chinese person shall be a subject or a domiciled resident, which certificate shall be in the English language and shall show such permission and that the officer by whom such permission is granted has been duly designated by the government which he repre-

sents for that purpose, which certificate shall be duly viséd by the diplomatic or consular officer of the United States at the port or place from which the person named in such certificate is about to depart, to which certificate shall be attached a statement from an official of the United States, designated for that purpose in the manner prescribed in the next succeeding section of this act, which statement shall give in detail the information prescribed in regard to such Chinese persons by Section 6 of the act of July 5, 1884, entitled "An act to amend an act entitled 'An act to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese,' approved May 6, 1882."

To this last mentioned statement shall be attached an affidavit by said official to the effect that he has made a thorough examination and believes the particulars stated in said statement to be true in every respect.

The aforementioned certificate of the Chinese Government or of such other foreign government of which the holder of such certificate is at the time a citizen or resident, the statement of the United States official, and the affidavit of such official shall be written upon a single sheet of paper; and there shall be permanently affixed to such paper a photographic likeness of the Chinese or person of Chinese descent to whom the certificate relates, and the seal of the officer before whom oath is made to the affidavit shall be impressed partly over the edge of the said photographic likeness; Provided, That in those foreign countries, other than China, in which Chinese of the exempt classes reside the certificate of permission prescribed by this section may be granted by any Chinese consular officer located in such foreign country, or, in the absence of such Chinese consular officer, by any consular officer of the United States, unless China has designated some person for that purpose in said country; And provided further, That in those foreign countries other than China the examination and statement to be issued under this section by some official of the United States designated for that purpose may be issued by any diplomatic or consular officer of the United States.

Upon the presentation of the certificate and attached statement described in this section the Chinese or person of Chinese descent to whom such certificate and statement relate shall be deemed to have proved conclusively his right to enter the United States, subject only to identification with the person referred to therein and to his admissibility under the provisions of the various acts regulating immigration into the United States.

Sec. 8. That the Secretary of Commerce and Labor is hereby authorized and directed to appoint the necessary officials to be attached to the consulates at the designated ports of embarkation, to fix their compensation at a reasonable sum, and to adopt reasonable regulations in reference to the examination of applicants and the issuance and delivery of certificates.

Sec. 9. That the Secretary of Commerce and Labor shall be, and he hereby is, authorized and empowered to make and prescribe and from time to time to change and amend such rules and regulations, not in conflict with this act, as he may deem necessary and proper to conveniently secure to such Chinese and persons of Chinese descent as are described in Section 5 of this act all the rights that they are entitled to and such as shall also protect the United States against the coming and transit of Chinese and persons of Chinese descent not entitled to enter the United States under the provisions of the laws and treaty in relation to the exclusion of Chinese; Provided, That no Chinese or person of Chinese descent professing to be a teacher, a student, a merchant, a banker, an accountant, a bookkeeper, a member of the learned professions, a doctor or a traveler for curiosity or pleasure, shall be allowed to land at a port of the United States for any purpose, except under the conditions prescribed in Section 7 of this act.

Sec. 10. That this act shall take effect at the expiration of ninety days from the date of its passage.

CORRESPONDENCE.

CHINESE FAMINE RELIEF FUND.

SHANGHAI, December 21, 1906.

John Foord, Esq., 78 Beekman Street, New York:

SIR—I have the honor to confirm the cablegrams sent you as follows:

1. "Central China Famine Fund Committee composed consuls, customs, leading foreign merchants, Chinese gentry, appeal you open subscription list America. Millions on verge starvation. Large sums urgently required. Also appealing London, Paris, Berlin. Please wire remittance Hong Kong Shanghai Bank. Consul General telegraphs State Department. Committee also telegraphs President Roosevelt. American missionaries assist distribution.

"COMMITTEE."

2. "Executive Committee endorses appeal Famine Relief Committee. REID."

The appeal that is issued to the home countries comes from a representative committee in Shanghai, a list of the members being enclosed on a separate sheet herewith. In connection with this committee local committees are being formed in all ports in China. The appeal is based upon the reports of missionaries and native officials living in the famine district who are eye witnesses to the distress prevailing.

The largest estimate states that the region more or less affected covers 60,000 square miles; a more conservative figure puts the area at 40,000 square miles, within which there are about thirty walled cities and market towns.

The population of this district, which is more or less affected by the total or partial failure of crops, is estimated at something like 10,000,000. As no accurate census returns are available in China, this number cannot be vouched for. There is, however, nothing inherently improbable, considering the area, in the statement that 10,000,000 of people are affected; at the same time, it is not presumed that anything like this number will be actually starving or will require outside relief, nevertheless it is certain a very large number will require regular relief continued for months if they are to be kept alive. Reports from various centres have reached the committee showing that there are known to be something like 1,000,000 people congregated around some of the more accessible cities, every one of whom must be fed every day if they are to escape death from starvation.

The responsibility for meeting the distress of a population of something like 10,000,000 until the month of May or June next year naturally rests with the Chinese Government and the Chinese people, but owing to the magnitude of the task, if not the actual impossibility of the needs being met and starvation being prevented by the help of the Chinese themselves, an appeal has been made in China and foreign countries generally for additional assistance. It is not intended to help the poor or the destitute but only those that are actually starving. The distribution of the money, or of foodstuffs furnished by the money, will

so far as contributions from abroad are concerned be placed in the hands of European and American missionaries residing within the famine area, and probably other Chinese speaking European and American civilians thoroughly acquainted with the people and willing to co-operate with the Chinese gentry in bringing relief to the starving without additional expense to the committee.

The Shanghai committee is composed of Chinese as well as foreigners, in order that individual Chinese may be stimulated to contribute and that foreigners may have the benefit of the advice of men who have been engaged in charitable enterprises in China for many years. In this way it is hoped that not only the funds may be distributed in the best possible way, but that indirectly benefits may accrue by reviving feelings of harmony and mutual good will between China and foreign nations.

It may be stated that the famine district is situated in the northern part of the provinces of Kiangsu and Anhui, with possibly a narrow fringe on the eastern border of Honan and the southern boundary of Shantung. The Yangtsze region is not directly affected, excepting in so far as thousands of refugees from the famine district are coming south with the hope of finding subsistence and cotton clothing are crowded in wretched grass or mat covered hovels and will be subject to fearful suffering. Money saving their lives.

The famine has been caused by incessant rains continuing for nearly 100 days, almost without cessation. The land is in many places low lying and the dykes became broken, so that much of the country has been flooded for months. Even now in some of the districts the water has not yet passed off. Consequently, the crops have been either only a small fraction of the normal amount or a complete failure. The only thing to reckon on is the spring crop of 1907, which will be harvested in May or June. But, unfortunately, the people are so destitute and so many have already become refugees that a large proportion of the fields have had no seeds of any kind sown for the next harvest. It is on this account that the condition of the people is so terrible, and that it seems imperative relief over and beyond that given by the Government should be forthcoming from foreigners.

The assistance that will be rendered will be highly appreciated, not only by those who receive help, but by all classes of the Chinese. H. E. Tuan Fang, the viceroy of the affected district, who is well known in western countries, has already sent his message of thanks to the world for the promise of succor.

The cold weather is approaching and hundreds of thousands of semi-starved people with the barest quantity of in large sums will be required to even partially relieve the terrible distress.

Arrangements have been made with the Hong Kong and Shanghai Bank to receive subscriptions; the committee

confidently looks forward to very substantial assistance from the appeal now made through you.

I have the honor to remain, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

(Signed) EDWARD S. LITTLE.

Chairman Executive Committee,
Central China Famine Fund.

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Su Pao-San, director of Piece Goods Guild.

Sung Yung-Ting, director of Flour Mill Company.

Sze Hsing-Chih, director of Shanghai-Nanking Railway.

Tong Fang-Chee, manager of China Merchants' Steamship Company.

Wong Tsz-Chan, director of Imperial Bank of China.

Yü Ya-Ching, Compradore of Netherlands Bank.

Zia Lun-Hui, managing director of Imperial Bank of China

THE JAPANESE SCHOOL CASE.

The United States began two suits on January 17 in San Francisco for the purpose of enforcing the provisions of the treaty with Japan giving to the Japanese equal school advantages. One of these actions is brought in the Supreme Court of the State of California in the name of a Japanese child for the purpose of obtaining a writ of mandamus to compel his admission to one of the public schools, from which he is excluded by the action of the Board of Education. The proceeding in this action is against the principal of the school in the name of a Japanese child, but to this petition is appended a request signed by the Attorney-General of the United States to the effect that the United States be made a party to the record, for the purpose of enforcing its treaty obligations with Japan, or, if such cannot be done in accordance with the practice of the court, that it be permitted to appear by its proper law officers and be heard to urge the granting of the relief prayed in the petition. The second suit is a very comprehensive bill in equity filed by the United States in the Federal Circuit Court, in which the members of the Board of Education, the Superintendent of Schools and all the principals of the various primary and grammar schools of San Francisco are made defendants.

The allegations in both proceedings are substantially the same, but in the bill in equity filed by the Government the various facts upon which the Government relies are set out at greater length. In both proceedings the Government alleges the execution of the treaty with Japan in 1895, which provides that "in whatever relates to the rights of residence and travel" the subjects of each party to the treaty shall enjoy in the territories of the other "the same privileges, liberties and rights as citizens or subjects of the most favored nation." The State of California having expressly provided that *every* school in a district must be open to *all* children of school age resident within the said district, the privilege of such attendance is alleged to be clearly one of the said "rights of residence" for Japanese children resident in that State, to be enjoyed on the footing of the most favored nation.

The bill sets forth that the State of California, in its constitution, provides for a general system of education, and by the laws of that State and also by the charter of San Francisco these public schools are supported in part by taxes levied upon all property in the State; but the Government alleges that it also in part supports the schools of California, and for that purpose in 1853 made a grant of over 5,000,000 acres of public lands, and has also made large grants of other lands for purposes of education, and as recently as June 27, 1906, passed an act giving to the State of California 5 per cent. of the net proceeds of the cash sales of the public lands therein made by the United States since the admission of said State, to aid in the support of its common schools. The bill alleges that, in conformity with the provisions of this act, the sum of \$808,119.11 has been certified to the Treasury of the United States for payment, and of this amount the sum

of \$428,271.61 has been paid, and the balance will be paid in due course of administration. The Government charges that the provisions made by it for the benefit of California could be rightly made and were made, in fact, only with the understanding and intent that all schools or other institutions to be benefited thereby would be conducted in conformity with the Constitution of the United States and with all treaties made by the authority of the United States, which treaties, it is emphatically affirmed, constitute the supreme law of the land, anything in any State constitution or law to the contrary notwithstanding.

The school system of California, it is alleged, forms a continuous chain of educational establishments from the primary school to the university, and California has at various times prescribed the qualifications for admission to her public schools. In the bill in equity it is set out that formerly separate schools were provided in California for native born white and colored children; that afterwards the word "white" was stricken from the statute, and in a case brought in California it was held that Chinese children born in California were entitled to admission to all the public schools. For the purpose of preventing this the section was amended by declaring that the Board of Education might provide separate schools for children of "Mongolian or Chinese" descent. At that time there were few Japanese children in California, and this amendment was made only to prevent the admission of Chinese children to the schools. The bill alleges that the Japanese are not in any sense "Mongolians," but form a separate and distinct race, and it is asserted that for more than twenty years and until recently the authorities in California have conceded that the Japanese are not included in the term "Mongolian" and have admitted them to all the public schools. It is further shown in these suits that the conflagration which prevailed in San Francisco on April 18 and several days following impaired the means of transportation and made it more difficult than it had previously been for pupils to attend schools a long distance from their respective residences. A map is attached to the various pleadings, showing the location of the Oriental school and the other schools of San Francisco and the residences of the Japanese pupils.

The resolution providing for sending Japanese children to the Oriental school was passed on October 11, 1906. At that date there were ninety-three Japanese pupils attending primary and grammar schools of San Francisco, of whom twenty-five were born in the United States and sixty-eight in Japan. Only those born in Japan are claimed to be protected by the provisions of the treaty. In the proceedings the Government makes no charge that the Oriental school is inferior in its provisions of teachers or their compensation, its accommodations and equipment or the character of instruction given in the schools of the same grade attended by pupils of other parentage, but it claims and charges that to compel all of the children of Japanese descent thus to attend a single school, without

regard to the places of their respective residences or to their convenience, solely by reason of their race or descent, is a hardship and discrimination against all of them and violates their legal rights under the said treaty, and the Government also sets out that Japanese pupils are allowed to attend the high schools and other schools than those of the primary and grammar grades without discrimination, and that no such discrimination is exercised against German, French, Italian or various other foreign children, so that the Japanese are not treated as the most favored nation. It is claimed by the Government that these acts constitute a flagrant violation of the treaty between the United States and Japan; that properly construed, the law of California does not justify them; and that, if it does, it is null and void.

In the suit brought in the State court the prayer is that the pupil be admitted to the school which he formerly attended, and in the bill in equity filed by the Government

in the Federal court the prayer is that the statute of California be construed and that so much of it as refers to separate schools for children of foreign parentage may be determined to have no application to children of Japanese descent, and further, that it be declared that the State of California receive the grants of land and appropriations of money made by the Federal Government upon the trust that the same should be used for the public schools of California in conformity with the Constitution of the United States and all treaties made by its authority, and that no unjust discrimination should be made against the subjects of any nation with which the United States might have entered into treaty stipulations contrary to the terms of such treaty, and also that the defendants should be enjoined from excluding the Japanese pupils from the public schools of San Francisco which they attended before the passage of the resolution of the Board of Education, and that the defendants be enjoined from carrying said resolution into effect.

NATURALIZATION AND THE COLOR LINE.

BY MAX J. KOHLER.

The President's recent annual message has directed general attention to our subsisting naturalization laws, which are commonly construed by our courts as denying to Japanese and other Asiatics the right to secure naturalization in our country, and the President's recommendation to confer right of naturalization upon the Japanese is quite certain to require careful re-examination of our present confusing and illogical statutes, discriminating among aspirants for citizenship along color lines. There is no specific prohibition upon Japanese naturalization, but the question is supposed to be governed by Section 2,169 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, as amended by the act of February 18, 1875, which reads:

"The provisions of this title (as to naturalization) shall apply to aliens, being free white persons, and to aliens of African nativity and to persons of African descent."

The words "free white persons" were employed in our naturalization laws since 1790.

Under this statute inferior courts have at least twice held Japanese not entitled to naturalization (Judge Colt, of Massachusetts, in *In re Saito* 62 Federal Reporter 126, *In re Yamashita*, 30 Washington 234), though the principle of these decisions was vigorously combated by Professor Wigmore in an able article on "American Naturalization and the Japanese," published in 1894 in the *American Law Review*, and would seem to be inconsistent with the reasoning of the court in "*In re Rodriguez*," 81 Federal Reporter 337, holding native copper colored Mexican Indians to be qualified for naturalization. The Supreme Court of the United States has never passed upon the question, though several cases in inferior courts, beginning with the case of *In re Ah Yup*, 5 Sawyer 155, decided in California in 1878, have held Chinese as well

as Burmese, Hawaiians, Indians and half breed children of white Canadian and Indian parentage disqualified because of color. (See the latest collection of the authorities in Professor Moore's "Digest of International Law," Vol. III, pp. 329-332.) With respect to Japanese persons, a further argument in favor of subsisting right to naturalization is now open to such applicants, not available at the time of the decision, by Judge Colt, of Massachusetts, in *Saito's case*, above referred to, because of the subsequent proclamation of the present treaty with Japan, in March, 1895, giving Japanese persons all rights of the most favored nation here, and the right of naturalization being frequently conferred by treaty (Moore: Digest of International Law). As regards the Chinese, it must be conceded that the right of naturalization has been expressly withheld by treaty, beginning with Article VI of the Burlingame Treaty of 1868 and the act of 1882, so that Chinese persons stand on a peculiar footing here, though the courts have often lost sight of this distinction. Of course, the absence of a prohibition of naturalization in the treaty with Japan, proclaimed in 1895, after the various treaty and statutory provisions against Chinese naturalization which had preceded it, in itself tends to indicate an intention to permit Japanese subjects to be naturalized.

In Professor Wigmore's able article he shows clearly that the courts have formulated at least three different inconsistent definitions of "white persons" under these provisions, under some of which Hungarians and many citizens of Japan's late antagonist, Russia, would be excluded. It is obvious that the term "white persons" is extremely loose and unsatisfactory and ill adapted for employment in legislative enactments.

The lay reader, however, who examines the phraseology

of this existing enactment, and notes the use of the term "free white persons," may well shake his head in astonishment at this apparent recognition of residents of our free country, whom Congress still characterizes as "not free," and ask whether slavery was not abolished in the United States some decades ago! None of the decisions construing this statute, however, consider this curious association of words, doubtless because the statute was not construed as containing any words of limitation, except with respect to slaves and Indians, till long after our Civil War, to wit, in 1878, when the anti-Chinese crusade found the term "white" a convenient one to juggle with.

References to the history of these statutes and their contemporaneous construction may well be regarded as useful. The term "free whites" is found already in the act of 1790, and was re-enacted in each successive naturalization act until the comprehensive revision of those laws was made in 1870. On July 2, 1870, when the Senate was considering this proposed revision, Charles Sumner moved "to strike out the word 'white' wherever it occurs, so that in naturalization there shall be no distinction of race or color." Senator Sumner stated that the amendment had been proposed by him already, three and a half years before, and had at last been favorably reported by the Judiciary Committee. He stated that he

"Proposed to strike out from that system a requirement disgraceful to this country and to this age. I propose to bring our system in harmony with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States. The word 'white' cannot be found in either of these two great title deeds of this Republic. How can you place it in your statutes?"

The amendment was opposed by some Western Senators, on the ground that it might permit Chinese to be naturalized, whom they did not consider fit candidates for citizenship, and whose government, by the Treaty of 1868, had expressly waived right to naturalization. Various Senators, including Edmunds, expressed themselves as favoring the bill, but opposed to its consideration at that stage, when it might jeopardize the passage at so late a day in the session, of the Naturalization Bill, and as inconsistent with an understanding for a prompt vote on that measure. However, on July 2, 1870, notwithstanding these difficulties, the amendment passed the Senate by a close vote, but the amendment to exclude Chinese from citizenship was pressed, and for the reasons specified the vote on Sumner's amendment was reconsidered on July 4 and the amendment rejected. In lieu thereof an amendment was then adopted without discussion, extending right to naturalization "to aliens of African nativity and to persons of African descent," in line with the other measures for enfranchisement of the emancipated slaves. (Congressional Globe, 41st Congress, 2nd Session, 1869-1870. Part 6, pages 5121-5124, 5148, 5158, 5168-5176.)

When the revision of our federal statutes known as the "Revised Statutes" went into effect in 1875, it was found that the revisers had stricken out the words of limitation "free whites;" and a provision was inserted on February 9, 1875, in the "Act to Correct Errors and to

Supply Omissions in the Revised Statutes," restoring these words "free whites," because the revisers had not been authorized to make changes in the law. (Congressional Record, 43d Congress, 2d Session, Vol. III., Part 2, pp. 1081-2.) An amendment to restore the word "whites" was first reported unfavorably by the Committee on Foreign Affairs, but as this omission was concededly an apparent change of phraseology in the Revised Statutes, the opponent of the change, who moved to strike out the proposed restoration from the bill, withdrew his motion, because of the general purposes underlying this proposed statute to correct unintended errors and omissions. But it is apparent that much can be said in favor of the view of the revisers that the statutes and constitutional provisions which had abolished slavery and declared civil rights, regardless of race and color, had superseded provisions distinguishing between "free whites" and other persons. This argument does not lose in force from the circumstance that all Africans were decreed to be qualified to become citizens by naturalization; the absurd color discrimination is well described by a New York Court in 1894, in denying naturalization to San C Po, a native of British Burmah, in saying:

"Originally it was intended to limit naturalization to free whites, but under stress of the feeling generated by the late war, Congress (in 1870) granted the boon of American citizenship to all native born Africans from the Mediterranean to the Cape of Good Hope. A Congo negro but five years removed from barbarism can become a citizen of the United States, but his more intelligent fellow-men, native born American Indians and of the yellow races other than the Chinese, are denied the privilege." (7 Misc. Repts. 471.)

But leaving aside for the present the question of the meaning of "white persons" in this statute, it is apparent that the term "free" modifying "whites" in an act passed as far back as 1790 had a clear and unmistakable significance; the naturalization of enslaved persons, and Indians enjoying tribal relations, was to be prevented. Turning to the organic law of the land, we find that the federal Constitution, adopted just before this act of 1790, throws much light on the meaning of Congress. Though, as Sumner pointed out, it did not segregate "white persons" from others, Article 1, section 2, subdivision 3, did provide for an apportionment of representatives in Congress and direct taxes among the several States "according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other Persons." Here we find the significance of the phrase "free whites;" enslaved persons, whether white or black, and Indians, were not regarded as fit persons to be counted among citizens and electors! Curiously enough, we know of no decision construing this term prior to 1878, but all the decisions on the statute concede that when this term was originally used in our naturalization laws, yellow races had not migrated here, and that our legislators had in mind merely negroes and Indians, besides the rest of the population,

roughly described as "white persons." Judge Maxey says with much force in *In re Rodriguez supra*:

"Indeed, it is a debatable question whether the term 'free white persons,' as used in the original act of 1790, was not employed for the sole purpose of withholding the rights of citizenship from the black or African race and the Indians then inhabiting this country."

Chancellor Kent, in his "Commentaries," commenting already in 1827 upon this phrase "free white persons," said:

"I presume this excludes the inhabitants of Africa and their descendants, and it may become a question to what extent persons of mixed blood are excluded, and what shades and degrees of color disqualify an alien from application for the benefits of the act of naturalization. Perhaps there might be difficulties also as to the copper-colored natives of America, or the yellow or tawny races of the Asiatics, and it may well be doubted whether any of them are 'white persons' within the purview of the law."

It is apparent how much less dogmatically Chancellor Kent construed these words than several of the judges of our own day. In 1856 Caleb Cushing was called upon to construe them in an opinion rendered by him as Attorney General, with particular reference to the right of Indians. (7 Opinions 746.) He said:

"In the organic or other legislation of the United States and of many of the States, the expression 'white man' is frequently used in contradistinction from Indians. That is a very loose and vague expression, obviously. When applied to a man of the unmixed blood of our own race—that is, of a certain family of the nations of Europe and Asia—we understand it sufficiently for all practical purposes. (See United States versus Rogers, IV Howard 567.) But when questions of mixed blood arise, it appears at once that there is no intrinsic precision in the expression 'white man'."

He then considered the case of persons having some Indian blood in their veins, and the difficulties in the way of classifying them, in the absence of a federal definition, and the contrariety of State definitions. In construing similar provisions, even in constitutions, various courts followed the principle laid down by the Supreme Court of Ohio (11 Ohio 372), to the effect that all persons nearer white than black are to be considered as white persons.

When, on the other hand, we seek to define the term "white persons" in its supposed ethnological significance, we have "confusion worse confounded." Judge Sawyer, who first attempted it under this statute in the case of the Chinese applicant in 1878, concedes that the word, "taken in a strictly literal sense, constitutes a very indefinite description of a class of persons, where none can be said to be literally white, and those called white may be found of every shade from the lightest blonde to the most swarthy brunette." He finds refuge, however, in the supposed popular significance of the word, which he treats as synonymous with "Caucasian," and then hesitates between various ethnological classifications. Blumenbach, follow-

ing Buffon, divided men into five classes: Caucasian, Mongolian, Ethiopian, American and Malay. Linnaeus makes four divisions: European, whitish; American, coppery; Asiatic, tawny, and African, black. Cuvier makes three: Caucasian, Mongol and negro. As Judge Sawyer satisfied himself that "white" is not used in popular language to include Mongolians, and he found affirmative evidence of an intention to exclude Chinese in 1870, he denied the application (In re Ah Yup, 5 Sawyer 155). In Saito's case, Judge Colt, in 1894, denied naturalization to a Japanese person, assuming that Japanese and Chinese persons are Mongolians, and therefore not white persons. He recognizes that when our first naturalization law was passed our country was inhabited only by Caucasians or whites, negroes or blacks, and American or red men, and finds illogically, in the selection of the term "whites" an intention therefore to exclude the (then to America unknown) yellow races. On ethnological lines he adds still further to the general confusion by mentioning, with approval, Professor Huxley's classification into Australoid (chocolate brown), negroid (brown black), Mongoloid (yellow), Xanthochroic (fair whites) and Melanochroic (dark whites). Without proceeding to consider still other inconsistent definitions, classifications and tests, laid down in still other cases, it is interesting to turn to Professor Wigmore's criticism of our judges as ethnologists, above referred to. Professor Wigmore satisfactorily demonstrates that the term "white" "is incapable of systematic application, either on any such general theory as that adopted by the learned judge (Judge Colt), or on any other general theory; that it is in fact not available as a basis of distinction, and that another method of solution must be found." He takes up the term in three possible senses: (a) As signifying literally a color quality, (b) as designating the Caucasians or Aryans, and (c) as embracing Europeans and their progeny. He shows that a classification as to color quality, in order to exclude Japanese persons, would have to exclude numerous southern European races as well. If "Caucasian" is to be employed in the sense of Aryans various Asiatic peoples like the Afghans, Persians and Hindoos would have to be included, while Hungarians and some Russian races, for instance, would have to be excluded from naturalization. The third classification would be doing violence to the English language, and exclude Armenians, for instance. Under the first two classifications he contends that Japanese would have to be included, and that they are not Mongolians.

As already remarked, none of the cases pay the slightest attention to the term "free" in this connection, nor to the circumstance that the related constitutional provision indicated in what sense the words "free white persons" were used, when the act was drafted, in 1790. An examination of these various judicial opinions clearly demonstrates that our naturalization law requires amendment, and that our judges ought not to be encouraged to take further excursions into the *terra incognita* of ethnology. Nor can one well quarrel with Charles Sumner's demand that the principle of the Declaration of Independence should be applied to naturalization also, nor rebut Professor Moore's comment that we are illogically contradicting our own statutory declaration in favor of man's inalienable right of expatriation, by continuing statutes, denying naturalization on the score of color, and thus discriminating against Japanese persons in favor of the more illiterate black man.

PROGRESS IN JAPAN.

(From the Journal of the Yokohama Chamber of Commerce.)

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY IN FORMOSA.

The sugar refinery industry in Formosa has apparently made great developments of late. The formation of the Meiji Sugar Refinery Company, with a capital of 5,000,000 yen, is now under contemplation. The Daito Sugar Refinery Company has lately been incorporated with a capital of 1,500,000 yen. The Toyo Sugar Refinery Company is also in course of formation, with a capital of 5,000,000 yen. The Formosan Sugar Refinery Company has lately effected an increase of capital from 1,000,000 yen to 5,000,000 yen. The principal refineries which already exist or are in course of incorporation are as follows:

| | Capital. Yen. |
|------------------------------------|------------------|
| Formosan Sugar Refinery | 5,000,000 |
| Meiji " " | 5,000,000 |
| Toyo " " | 5,000,000 |
| Daito " " | 1,500,000 |
| Tainan " " | 350,000 |
| Ensui " " | 300,000 |
| Toroku " " | 300,000 |
| Shinko " " | 240,000 |
| Taito Kogagumi Sugar Refinery..... | 200,000 |
| Payn Sugar Refinery | 200,000 |
| Nansho Sugar Refinery..... | 60,000 |
| Mato " " | 50,000 |

Thus the capital invested or to be invested aggregates 18,200,000 yen. When the smaller refineries, having a capital under 50,000 yen, are added, the total capitalization of the industry in the island will exceed 20,000,000 yen.

AN UNDERGROUND ELECTRIC RAILWAY.

A project has been formed for building an underground electric railway in Tokyo. The projectors are Messrs. Fukuzawa Momosuke, Watanabe Kaichi, Tanaka Shinkichi, Hiranuma Yenjiro and Fujiyama Raita, as well as some other business men. The idea is to start from a point near Takanawa, and run to Uyeno and Asakusa, and also from a point midway in Ginza to Shinjuku. In fact, the line would lie directly under the present Tokyo Railway. The length of both roads is put at 12 miles 23 chains, and the total outlay at 15,000,000 yen for a double line, the whole to be lined with brick, the cars to be of the bogie type, capable of carrying eighty passengers, the fare to be 5 sen uniform and the speed to be 40 miles an hour. It is estimated that there would be a net profit of 8.2 per cent. The same projectors contemplate a similar line at Yokohama and another at Osaka. They have applied for charters for all three. The Yokohama line

would emerge at Kanazawa, from which place it would be continued overland to join the subterranean Tokyo road. The distance between Yokohama and Tokyo would be performed in twenty minutes and the capital expended would be 5,750,000 yen.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE JOINT STOCK TRADING COMPANY.

It is stated that the organization of this company is complete on the Russian side, owing to the efforts of M. Minkofsky, honorary consul for Japan, and the well known Baron Ginsburg. The Japanese organization remains to be completed, but Mr. Shimomura is making strenuous efforts which are expected to be soon crowned with success. The company is essentially an ante-bellum affair. It had its origin in the appointment of M. Minkofsky to be honorary consul, a step taken by the Japanese Government with the express purpose of increasing the two countries' trade, which lagged perceptibly in development. Shortly afterward Mr. Shimomura was dispatched to Russia by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce for the same purpose, and his consultations with M. Minkofsky and Baron Ginsburg—who had long been associated with Far Eastern commerce and to whom M. Minkofsky had naturally turned—led to the project of forming the Nichi-Ro Boeki Kabushiki Kaisha. Representatives of the Japanese business world were now appointed by the trading corporations in Japan to proceed to Russia with the object of discussing the practical details of the enterprise. They went via New York, and were actually en route thence for their destination when diplomatic relations were severed between the two empires. On the restoration of peace M. Minkofsky was again appointed honorary consul for Japan in St. Petersburg, and he immediately took up the threads of the interrupted program, while on this side Mr. Shimomura obtained the co-operation of sixty-seven leading Japanese merchants who agreed to send Japanese products and manufactures for furnishing a bazaar in St. Petersburg. Meanwhile, M. Minkofsky had succeeded in forming an association with a capital of 1,000,000 rubles in 4,000 shares of 250 rubles each, its object being to promote the mutual exchange of commodities between the two nations. This company contemplates the establishment of Russo-Japanese stores in all the principal Russian marts, European and Asiatic alike, and possibly the ultimate establishment of a Russo-Japanese bank should the development of the project call for such a measure. Mr. Shimomura is now working to form a corresponding company in Japan, and it is said that he has already secured the co-operation of many leading men of business.

TRADE WITH CHINA.

Decline in the volume of exports from the United States to China since July 1 has given rise to considerable discussion, in the course of which various causes are assigned for the large falling off. By some persons the boycott is charged as the principal cause. It is hardly probable that this is a correct inference. A review of the exports to China from the United States discloses facts that remove much of the alarm natural to a falling off in the last half of the current year in cotton goods.

Plain cotton piece goods constitute the bulk of our trade with China, and the annexed table, showing values of such goods and of other relatively large items in the list of exports for the four years named, will enable the reader to determine the extent of the decrease in American cotton goods. The fiscal year 1902 is taken as a basis for comparison, that being a year unaffected by disturbance of any kind, and exports during the fiscal years 1902, 1904, 1905 and 1906 are stated.

| Articles. | 1902. | 1904. | 1905. | 1906. |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Copperingots, bars, plates, etc. | | \$28,000 | \$9,040,800 | \$3,599,900 |
| Cotton piece goods..... | \$16,382,700 | 4,091,000 | 27,054,700 | 29,641,200 |
| Flour..... | 291,300 | 285,100 | 309,600 | 534,600 |
| Iron and steel goods, including machines and machinery.... | 437,800 | 970,000 | 1,267,800 | 980,000 |
| Mineral oils, refined..... | 4,860,300 | 4,729,500 | 8,366,200 | 4,255,900 |
| Provisions, including dairy products..... | 132,400 | 192,700 | 995,500 | 785,300 |
| Tobacco manufactures..... | 693,400 | 893,000 | 1,439,700 | 1,320,500 |
| Wood and lumber..... | 215,400 | 329,800 | 641,400 | 634,600 |
| All other articles..... | 1,800,000 | 1,343,300 | 3,438,700 | 2,012,400 |
| Total..... | 24,722,900 | 12,862,400 | 53,453,400 | 43,774,400 |

A fact not generally taken into account is that a large part of our exports to Hongkong are passed on to China. Exports to Hongkong from the United States in 1906 were valued at \$7,034,900, consisting of flour, \$3,391,700; ginseng, \$1,175,800; mineral oils, \$587,400, etc. It is safe to say that of these exports about \$6,000,000 worth went to China. It will be seen by the foregoing statement that whatever the effects caused by the boycott they were apparently felt only in 1904, the exports of cotton goods in 1903 being valued at \$13,690,000. The year 1902, being that in which our exports were the largest of any previous year, is taken for this reason instead of 1903.

The mean of the cotton piece goods trade of 1904 and 1905 is \$15,577,850, or very nearly equal to that of 1902, the year of largest trade to that time. The large exports in 1905 were probably due to shortage in supplies, occasioned by decreased imports the preceding year. How much of the export of 1906 was required to meet immediate demands cannot be stated, although the exports for the months of August, September and October, 1906, which were only \$2,334,200, against \$8,234,200 in 1906, would indicate that a large part of the imported stocks was on hand at the close of the fiscal year. This falling off cannot, however, be accepted at its face value, as demands may arise during the remaining nine months of the fiscal year 1907 to bring the figures to those of 1906. Even should exports for the nine months beginning October 1 be relatively no

greater than that recorded for the preceding three months, the mean of 1906 and 1907, \$19,489,000, will show the largest export of cotton piece goods to China of any preceding year.

The decrease in exports in 1905 as compared with 1906 has been made much of by many persons anxious to prove a retrogression in our trade with that Empire. This occurred in copper and mineral oil. The large export of copper in 1905, as well as the lesser export in 1906, was occasioned by the demand of the Chinese Government for its new copper coinage, and whether the trade will cease altogether or become permanent for a smaller annual export than even that of 1906 will depend upon the coinage wants of the Empire. The large export for 1905 has therefore no other significance than the inflation of the trade for that year.

The large export of mineral oil in 1905 was to meet anticipated demands, as the export of 1906 was nearly equal to the largest export of any previous year. As the American dealers in mineral oil store their product in China for emergencies, the export in any one year cannot be taken as the demand for consumption in any one year. The large exports for 1900, 1902 and 1904—\$3,335,000, \$4,445,100 and \$4,729,500, respectively—were followed by reduced exports for 1901 and 1903. In like manner much of the very large export of 1905 was undoubtedly disposed of in 1906. The mean of the exports of mineral oil in 1904, 1905 and 1906—\$5,784,000—may be assumed to represent more or less our regular annual exports of this product to China, showing that, notwithstanding active competition of foreign oil producers, this branch of our export trade is increasing to a very satisfactory degree.

As nearly all the foreign cotton piece goods consumed in China are of British and American manufacture, a synopsis of British trade with that Empire will explain as to whether the decrease noted in American exports for the three months ended October 31, 1906, is special to our trade, or whether it marks a general decrease in the whole trade. The annexed table shows the exports of British cotton piece goods to China for the calendar years 1902-1905:

| Description. | 1902. | 1903. | 1904. | 1905. |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Unbleached..... | \$10,545,300 | \$8,320,900 | \$10,832,800 | \$17,049,400 |
| Bleached..... | 6,758,700 | 4,518,000 | 7,149,900 | 11,691,400 |
| Printed..... | 1,867,300 | 2,109,700 | 1,364,400 | 2,029,600 |
| Dyed or of dyed yarn..... | 6,086,100 | 6,893,500 | 10,384,800 | 13,085,600 |
| Total..... | 25,257,400 | 21,842,100 | 29,731,900 | 43,856,000 |

By comparing the foregoing with the American statement it will be seen that American goods in 1905 (fiscal year) were nearly equal to the British for the calendar year 1904—were very much greater if we compare the exports of plain piece goods, in which the American trade mainly consists. The exports of British plain piece goods for the calendar year 1904 amounted to \$17,982,700, against \$27,000,000 of American plain piece goods for the fiscal

year 1905, and over \$29,000,000 in 1906. British plain cottons, however, ran up to \$28,740,800 in 1905. With that trade intuition for which the British are noted, they anticipated that the "boycott" of 1904 offered opportunity to increase their trade, and so rushed their plain cottons in 1905 to an extent nearly double their trade of 1904, which itself was larger than that of 1903 or 1902.

DECREASE IN BRITISH COTTON TRADE.

Has this increased British trade of 1905 continued in 1906? The most recent British statistics at hand cover the first eight months of 1906, which, however, will answer this question of increased trade. The annexed table shows the exports of British cotton piece goods to China during the first eight months of 1905 and 1906, including Hong-kong:

| Description | 1905. | 1906. | Increase (+) or decrease (-). |
|---------------------------|--------------|-------------|----------------------------------|
| Unbleached..... | \$13,338,700 | \$9,996,800 | —\$3,341,900 |
| Bleached..... | 9,732,500 | 8,249,200 | — 1,483,300 |
| Total plain goods..... | 23,071,200 | 18,246,000 | — 4,825,200 |
| Printed..... | 1,454,700 | 1,061,600 | — 393,100 |
| Dyed or of dyed yarn..... | 10,079,600 | 10,852,300 | + 772,700 |
| Total colored..... | 11,534,300 | 12,813,900 | + 1,279,600 |
| Total exports..... | 34,605,500 | 31,059,900 | — 3,545,600 |

The foregoing shows that in plain piece goods there was a decrease of \$4,825,200 for the first eight months of 1906 as compared with the same months of 1905, which would go to show that British exporters either overdid the work in this line in 1905 or that American plain cottons have again begun to reach the Chinese consumers, and are taking their former place in the market. It is too soon to form opinion as to whether from any cause conditions have been created which disturb American trade in China. The greater part of the fiscal year 1907 must elapse before this question can be definitely answered.

COTTON FABRICS FOR CHINA.

Special Agent W. A. Graham Clark reports that the United States having secured supremacy in the cotton sheeting trade of China, in order to extend the cotton cloth markets there, should take up the still larger field of gray and white shirtings. He writes:

On inquiry among merchants at Shanghai and Tientsin I have found that the samples of cotton piece goods previously forwarded to the Bureau of Manufactures by other special agents fully cover the field and have therefore not attempted to obtain duplicates. There have been no special new goods introduced, and variations in patterns are so many that a sample of one is sufficient, as the entire line cannot be covered.

I have been struck by the fact that America, while having a large market in cotton piece goods in China, competes only on coarse, unfinished goods, and drops out of the race when the competition is on fine or finished goods. On drills and sheetings we control, on gray shirtings

we compete to a small extent, but when it comes to white shirtings, prints, sateens, Italians, lastings, fancy woven cottons, etc., the returns very often do not specify the "United States," but class us among "other countries." In fact, in general terms it may be said that the United States competes abroad in no cotton goods in which labor is an element.

On coarse goods, such as heavy drills and sheetings, it is safe to say that the raw material will be one-half to two-thirds the cost of manufacture, say 60 per cent.; labor will be probably 25 per cent., and other expenses 15 per cent. On white shirtings, however, the raw cotton may not take more than 40 to 50 per cent., say 45 per cent.; labor 40 per cent., and expenses 15 per cent. In the first case, where labor is say, one-quarter of the total cost of manufacture, we compete; in the second case, where the labor item may be one-half of the total, we fall behind. Even though at a disadvantage as to prices paid for labor, this labor has gradually become more efficient, and with the rapid multiplication in labor saving devices there is no sound reason why the American manufacturer should not be able to compete on finer goods.

The greatest single item of cotton piece goods imported into China today is American sheeting, and of this the great majority is the standard 2.85 and 3 yard sheetings, 48x48. Sheetings, of course, are always 36 inches wide and 40 yards long. The English cannot deliver light sized sheetings at a price to seriously compete with the American product. There is more reason to fear Japanese than English competition on this line because of the cheapness of their manufacturing costs and their lower freight rates. But the Japanese cloth, though sold much cheaper, is of inferior quality and made of shorter stapled cotton and cannot equal the American brands. There have been some complaints recently as to the quality of some American brands deteriorating, but if our manufacturers are careful as to maintaining the present standard they will continue to control the sheeting market.

I have been through many Japanese cotton mills and found two or three mills that by the use of American cotton can turn out goods very little, if any, inferior to American, but if they used American cotton entirely they would have to raise the selling price. In most Japanese mills the help is not sufficiently skilled to make cloth that can compete as to quality. With 100 Northrop looms in America, run by four skillful men, the cloth month by month is of exactly similar quality, the "cover," tension, etc., being maintained uniform. With forty girls on 100 plain looms in Japan it is impossible that they can be as highly trained or attain as uniform results. The point at which Japanese competition will be keenest is in Manchuria, and they are making great efforts to control this trade. In some instances they are trying to establish certain brands by making all these goods come full measure or a little over. On 3 yard sheetings, for instance, some mills are making a practice of shipping 40 yard pieces weighing 13½ pounds or over instead of 13⅓ pounds. The Chinese dealer notices such things and wants full measure, and if more than that is given he considers it a

bargain and will buy even though the cloth is not quite as high quality. On the other hand, wherever our standard 3 yard sheeting is 48x48 the Japanese is only 44x44, a gain of four picks in weaving.

Most of the sheetings are dyed by hand by the Chinese from home raised indigo, and most of the Chinese masses are clothed in American 2.85 and 3 yard sheetings. Even in winter the Chinese prefer garments made of double breadths of sheetings padded with cotton to any woolen garment.

There is also sold a large quantity of 3.25 sheeting 48x40, 48x48, 48x44, 44x44, 44x40, 48x42, and other constructions, and 3.50 and 4 yard sheeting 48x52, 56x60, etc. There is some business done in the finer counts, such as 64x68, 64x64, etc., but, as a rule, the Chinaman prefers the standard coarse counts, because the cloth, not being so closely woven, takes the dye more readily, and being of coarser yarn wears better.

On lighter sheetings, such as 4.50 yard 48x52 and 48x44, 4.70 yard 48x52 and 48x50, 5 yard 48x52 and 48x48, 5.15 yard 56x48 and 64x64, 5.35 yard 48x48 and 64x60, and 5.50 yard 44x44 and 64x56, and other constructions, there is a fair demand, even as far north as Tientsin and Newchwang. The best market for sheetings lighter than 3.50 or 4 yards, however, is in southern China, and this trade is controlled by the English. These lighter weight sheetings are not as extensively used as the 2.85 to 4 yard, but this field should be more extensively cultivated by our manufacturers, as there is reported an increasing demand in this direction. In times of depression like the present the tendency is toward the lighter weights.

Sheetings are supposed to be 36 inches wide and in 40 yard lengths. Wider goods, say 38, 38½ and 39 inches, are usually classed as shirtings, though in America often known as gray goods, 38½ inch, standards, etc., plain wides, wide prints, etc. A different classification obtains in the reports of the chamber of commerce at Shanghai and in the market reports there. As a matter of convenience, while sheetings 3.50 and heavier are classed as sheetings, 4 yard and lighter are classed as shirtings, irrespective of the width being 36 or 38½ inches. As a good many of our manufacturers doubtless receive the market circulars on the yarn and cotton piece goods markets issued weekly by Ilbert & Co. and by Noel, Murray & Co., also the semi-annual list of stocks on hand published by the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce, this is noted, as the stocks of sheetings on hand, 36 inch goods, are really more, and the stocks of shirtings, 38½ inch goods, really less than shown by reports, according to this classification.

Next to sheetings gray shirtings is the largest item in the cloths imported into China. Here we find the conditions reversed, and whereas on sheetings America controls the trade, importing in 1905 7,943,860 out of a total of 9,428,880 pieces, England only supplying 479,350 pieces, on gray shirtings for the same year England supplied 6,119,503 out of a total of 6,827,969 pieces, America only supplying 449,365 pieces. This is a striking contrast, and for practical purposes it may be said that America supplies all the gray sheetings used in China and that Eng-

land supplies all the gray shirtings used. The reason of this division of trade is not clear, except that so far America has found sheetings more profitable.

The gray shirtings sold in China are the regular standard 38½ inch plain wides, such as are made by many American mills, especially in Massachusetts. There is no insurmountable reason why these mills should not build up as large a foreign trade on these goods as the Southern mills have on sheetings. The amount consumed in China is almost as large; in fact, taking gray and white shirtings together, China uses more shirtings than she does sheetings. Shirtings are of finer count as a rule than the sheetings and made of finer yarn and more finished, and this brings in the item of labor, and so far on goods involving much labor in proportion to raw material America has not been able to compete with England. This is changing somewhat, and gray shirtings is one of the first goods that should be considered.

Besides the regular 38½ inch, 64x64 plain wide, the usual widths of shirting are 38 and 39 inches and the lengths are from 37½ to 39 yards. The goods are sold by the number of pounds to the piece, and run from 6 to 12 pounds, or 6.5 to 3.25 yards per pound. The constructions run from 56x48 to 72 square. The largest bulk of these goods, at least a third of the total, is about 4 yard goods 64x64 and 64x60. On account of their finish some 36 inch 40 yard goods are classed as shirtings. These are chiefly 3.25 yard goods, English and Continental.

Aside from other considerations, one reason that the English control the shirting market is that the trade in this line is at points where as yet American goods are little known, and where there has been little effort made to gain the trade by America as compared with the efforts at other points, such as Manchuria, etc. Of the total of 9,428,880 yards of gray sheeting imported in 1905 one-fourth went to each of the three ports, Newchwang, Tientsin and Shanghai—2,323,336, 2,544,604 and 2,566,999 pieces, respectively—and the remaining one-quarter was scattered. Of the 6,827,969 pieces English gray shirting one-third went to Shanghai, or 2,136,517 pieces, less than one-fourth, or 1,562,890 pieces, went north, and the remaining 3,128,554 pieces were distributed along the Yangtze River and along the southern coast. Considering Shanghai and the Yangtze River as being in the south, it is shown that of the 9,428,880 pieces gray sheetings, 6,705,654 pieces, or 68.5 per cent., went north, and of the 6,827,969 pieces gray shirting only 1,562,890 pieces, or 23.1 per cent., went north.

Gray shirtings offer the largest and easiest field for the textile manufacturers of the United States, by whom it should be controlled. As they are, however, sold mostly in British trade "spheres of influence," American merchants will have to work south.

On white shirtings American mills do not compete in China, and most attempts along this line have met with failure. The field of white shirtings is a broad one, and includes a wide range from goods 44x44, or even coarser—practically rags, skillfully filled with starch and china clay until they look presentable—to closely woven 72 reed

goods of very fine yarn and of fine finish. To give constructions of these goods is of little value, as the main points are even yarns, good bleaching and fine finishes.

American mills are making progress along these lines, and should be able to do a portion of the trade here. The main reasons assigned for the failures of most of the white goods introduced are, first, that they were not bleached to as perfect a degree of whiteness as the English; that the bleach did not hold, and the goods had a tendency to yellow (possibly due to soap being used in the bleaching operations); that the yarns used were too coarse, and that the finish was considerably below that of the English. Some of the English white shirtings, such as the so called White Irishes, have a heavy glaze finish that so far is produced successfully by few American mills. More can be learned as to the field on white shirtings by studying the samples at the Bureau of Manufactures than in any other way.

A great many of the white shirtings, practically all the finer ones, and also a good many of the gray shirtings, are made with head end filling stripes. These are not colored borders, as in the case of Mexicans and T cloths, but the raised stripe effect is usually produced by using a coarser filling for a few picks; also tinsel is often used. For instance, in one white shirting, where the regular filling is No. 32s, the head end is made by using seven repeats of three picks No. 16s, two picks No. 32s, two picks tinsel about same fineness as 32s, then two picks 32s. The regular weave is used for $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches, and then another stripe formed with eight picks No. 16s.

This might seem to call for a box loom, but is easily produced by hand, and with a good weaver would cause very little loss of time. The main trouble about it is that each dealer wants his own particular stripe with so many tinsel picks, varying width, etc., and this in necessarily limited quantities. This brings in the matter of catering to small special orders, which our manufacturers accustomed to rushing out goods in bulk have so far refused to do. The market on these shirtings is a large one, larger even than sheetings, and is well worth an effort. By making usual headings in bulk, and establishing the same heading with dealers at different points, this trouble could be partly overcome. While necessarily causing some loss of production, most of these headings are very simple, and would be easily and accurately made by good weavers. If other matters of smooth yarn, good bleaching, correct sizing and finish are attended to, the headings present small difficulty.

OPENING OF MANCHURIA.

Consul General Willard D. Straight, of Mukden, reports that during the period that has elapsed since the conclusion of hostilities southern Manchuria has been adjusting itself to meet the changed conditions.

Years of prosperity during the construction of the railway and the early stages of the war, when the Russian forces relied almost entirely upon the country for their supplies, were succeeded by a period of comparative depression, for Japan made only limited local purchases, pre-

ferring to patronize her home markets, and the military occupation interfered in many ways with the free movement of goods. Trade has not, up to the present time, recovered its antebellum equilibrium.

The unsettled financial situation, due to the confusion in the circulating medium, composed of Japanese war notes, gold yen, Yokohama Specie Bank silver notes, Shengking notes and different varieties of taels, dollars and small silver, and the reluctance of the banks to make loans, have combined to embarrass the public, notwithstanding the splendid harvests of the past two seasons. The stringency of the money market is certain to diminish with the restoration of normal conditions, and under the influence of the present progressive administration there should be a great increase in production and purchasing power.

It has been frequently stated that the Manchurian markets would be reserved for special exploitation and would not afford an equal opportunity to all those desirous of sharing in their profitable development. It is not unnatural that such should have been the case; that during the military occupation advantages not free to all were enjoyed by the privileged few. It would be a mistake, however, to consider that within such a limited period and during such troublous time it would have been possible to establish relations sufficiently close to constitute a serious menace to the interests of the general commercial community.

Their priority of residence in southern Manchuria gives the Japanese a distinct trade advantage. They have not up to the present time, however, succeeded in obtaining a control of the market. Every effort is being made to popularize Japanese goods. By means of commercial and industrial exhibitions at Antung, Tiehling and Mukden the chambers of commerce of the principal insular cities, with the substantial assistance of the Japanese Government, are bringing their wares to the direct attention of the consumer. Advertising agencies will be operated in connection with these enterprises, and the placards of the Government tobacco monopoly posted throughout Manchuria and Korea bear eloquent testimony to their ability in this direction.

Up to the present time the principal business has been done by the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha and one or two other large firms which handle American piece goods, oil and flour, as well as purely Japanese articles. The smaller merchants with limited capital are compelled to trade on short credits. There have been many failures and without special transportation privileges they are not in a position to withstand determined competition.

It is imperative that American merchants and manufacturers who wish to engage in the Manchurian trade should enter the field at once and place their goods on the market before their competitors have become too firmly established. The commercial struggle will be keener than in the other Chinese provinces, where there has never been an active canvass in the interior. New methods will be adopted to secure the attention of the possible customer, and those firms will be the most successful which adopt the most direct and most aggressive plan of campaign.

Personal representation is all important, particularly at the present time, not only that goods may be placed on the market under the most favorable circumstances, but that by constant vigilance valuable interests may be protected. Firms with offices at the points of importation, foreign representatives traveling in the interior, and native agents at Tiehling, Mukden, Liaoyang, Kuangchengtzu and Hsimintun would be better able to watch the demand and cater thereto than the merchants who are content to make their sales from Shanghai, and remain in comparative ignorance of the local conditions governing the trade they are endeavoring to secure.

The British-American Tobacco Company have branches at all the important points along the railroad, with foreign representatives at Mukden and Tiehling, and a manager resident at Newchwang, who is constantly moving from point to point, keeping in close touch with the consumers. The company's sales have increased steadily, and in many places seriously threaten the profits of the Japanese tobacco monopoly. Arnhold, Karberg & Co., a large German firm, which deals extensively in American piece goods, as well as the Singer Sewing Machine Company, have opened offices in Mukden, and the Manchurian Trading Company, with an American agent, is preparing to handle tinned goods, clocks, provisions, wines and miscellaneous articles, for which there is a growing demand among the Chinese, and other importing houses are sending their representatives to look over the field.

The Board of Agriculture established by the Viceroy has ordered a number of American harvesters, plows, reapers, harrows, hullers and other farm machinery, to be used at its agricultural experiment station in Mukden. Labor saving devices would be welcomed in Manchuria as nowhere else in China, for the population is scant as compared with other portions of the Empire. The Liao Valley is one of the richest agricultural areas in the world, and the broad plains stretching from Newchwang to the north are capable, with improved methods, of greatly increased production. Rye, barley and sorghum millet yield large annual crops, and it is proposed to introduce alfalfa, sugar beets, cotton and various cereals.

Several of the highest provincial authorities have suggested that it would be mutually beneficial if manufacturers of agricultural machinery should send their representatives with a number of implements to tour the country, demonstrating their use at frequent exhibitions. Such an enterprise would meet with the approval of the Viceroy, and could doubtless be undertaken under the auspices of the provincial administration. The Chinese farmer is a ready purchaser when once he is convinced of the utility of an article.

A British firm has already sold four large Howard steam plows, shipping them north from Newchwang. Tracts of Government land are now being opened for cultivation. The large grain firms would doubtless be ready to invest in hullers for cereals, and a machine which would remove the beans from the pod would meet an already existing demand. The officials and merchants interested in such projects who have already requested catalogues would be

more inclined to buy if they were to be given a practical lesson in the operation of such machinery.

In the other treaty ports of China there are old established firms with regular connections, and at such places it is not always easy for the newcomer to build up a paying business. Manchuria, however, is practically virgin territory. There are opportunities for trade as well as for investment. The Japanese market requires sugar, their breweries require barley, and flour mills should be operated with profit at points along the railroad. American goods have heretofore been sold in Manchuria largely by foreign firms and by native honges which purchase their stocks in Shanghai. If direct shipments were to be made to Dalny or Newchwang there would be a saving in time and transshipping charges. Agricultural development should be followed by industrial activity, and those merchants who avail themselves of the desire of wealthy Chinese to associate themselves with foreigners and study local conditions should be well rewarded.

This consulate general has just recently received information, apparently trustworthy, that there are large deposits of gold, silver, soda and coal, with a plentiful supply of timber, in the area between the headwaters of the Liao and the Taluho, a branch of the Amur, about 200 miles from the terminus of the China Eastern Railroad at Hsinmintun.

Japanese and Russian prospectors have visited this region, but have not thus far recorded claims with the officials of the district. Investors who are desirous of looking into this matter more thoroughly might find the opportunity a valuable one, and the undertaking profitable, particularly under the new Chinese mining regulations, which it is hoped will offer more liberal terms to foreigners than do those which are now in force.

COMMERCIAL MOVEMENTS.

EXPOSITIONS AND RAILWAYS TO DEVELOP CHINA'S COMMERCE.

Special Agent W. A. Graham Clark calls attention to the two impending industrial exhibitions at Mukden, in Manchuria. He inspected the work on these and found that progress was being made on both. The Japanese industrial exhibition, which was to have been opened in November, is now expected to open this month.

The Japanese exhibition will last three months, showing a varied line of manufactures, especially those that the Japanese desire to introduce into Manchuria. Though not a large affair, the exhibition is important as illustrating the fact that Japan is sparing no pains and neglecting no opportunity of advertising the country's products in China.

The grounds are entered by a large ornamental gateway. The buildings are all one story brick, one large building, containing about 10,000 square feet, being in the centre of the grounds, surrounded by six or seven smaller ones, each about 30x50 feet. The central building is reserved exclusively for Japanese products, but foreigners are allowed space in the outbuildings. An American merchant just establishing himself at Mukden secured space for a booth at a cost of only \$7.50 for the three months.

The Chinese industrial exhibition will be a larger affair, and is to be permanent. If the buildings can be finished in time it will open March 1. There will be three or four large buildings two stories high and built of black brick, the total floor space aggregating about 50,000 square feet. This exhibition was originally intended for the display of Chinese articles only, being educational in its purpose. It was proposed to exhibit products of the other provinces of China, and to illustrate the methods of production and manufacture. The Chinese now announce, however, that foreigners can also obtain space through their respective consuls. The space rates have not yet been fixed, but they will be low. As in the Japanese exhibition, articles will be for display only and not for sale, but they will both afford a good opportunity for the exploitation of American manufactures.

Manchuria will prove a good field for the exploitation of farm implements, such as plows, grain drills, etc.; of small tools, such as monkey wrenches, braces and augers, emery wheels, etc.; of machine tools, such as small wood turning lathes and drill presses; of small gas and oil engines; of portable sawmills; of hydraulic presses for compressing bean cake and baling hides, etc.; of stock and dies for making small machine bolts, etc.

The large and fertile fields of Manchuria are tilled with wooden plows. The vast number of well made carts that are turned out are constructed with crude tools, laboriously fashioned in the local blacksmith shop, and a day is taken to put in shape iron fittings that an expert machinist, with good cold chisel and emery wheel, would finish in half an hour. The borings are made with hand fashioned augers, operated with a bow and cord. Labor is cheap, but already foreign inventions are creeping in, and if properly introduced there are a great number of articles made by American manufacturers that would find a good sale here. The Chinamen are conservative, and first have to be familiarized with the appearance and use of the new articles, and for this purpose exhibitions are valuable.

At Mukden, where the Japanese are macadamizing the streets, the writer saw two Chinese men operating a big English built street stone crusher, while other Chinese stood around admiring their skill. Ten years ago or less these same Chinese would have fled at the sight of a street roller at work. Ten years from now these men will macadamize their own streets, build their own railroads, operate machine tools and use the latest farming machinery. Whose will be the profit depends on whose labor saving and advanced appliances gains the first hold on the country.

It is expected that work will be begun in the spring by the Japanese to widen their railway track from 3½ feet to the standard American and English gauge, 4 feet 8½ inches, which will also enable it to connect with the Chinese railways. The Japanese track to Kwanchengtze will therefore be the standard gauge, and the Russian 5 feet. All passengers will therefore have to be transferred at this neutral station.

The Chinese Government also purposes in the spring to begin active work on a standard gauge line from Kwan-

chengtze to Kirin, a distance of 80 miles. The Japanese desired to build this line, but piles and cross ties have already been stacked en route by the Chinese, and a Newchwang merchant informs the writer that he sold the Chinese authorities a sawmill for this work. This line will also connect at the neutral station, so the roads of three nations—Russian, Japanese and Chinese—will meet at Kwanchengtze. Though this station will be nearly 3 miles from the present walled town of Kwanchengtze, the effect will be to greatly enhance the importance of this place, and will strengthen its present practical position as the largest interior distributing market in Manchuria.

FRONTIER CUSTOMS HOUSES.

The following report was written by Special Agent W. A. Graham Clark, from Newchwang, November 27, and furnishes information regarding the establishment of custom houses at Dalny and other points:

I have learned from an official in position to be well informed that the Chinese Government has definitely declared that a custom house will be established at Dalny by April 1, 1907. The reason given for not establishing it earlier is that time is required to perfect the necessary arrangements and that most of the northern ports, soon becoming ice-bound, the shipping trade would cease for the winter. Russia has also given definite assurance that she will not oppose customs stations being established on the northern frontier and that simultaneously with their establishment at Dalny customs stations will also be established at the two points where the Siberian Railway crosses the Manchurian frontier.

The Japanese have all along contended that they were willing for customs houses to be established at Dalny if they were also established on the northern frontier, but that they would not agree for Russian goods to come in by rail free and Japanese goods have to come by ship and pay duty. The establishment of customs houses at other entrances to Manchuria will help the port of Newchwang, and incidentally the sale of American goods, as this is the port through which the great bulk of American goods are introduced.

The plan to establish the customs at Dalny, April 1, gives Japanese merchants four months in which to rush in their goods duty free, and with eighty-one out of their eighty-five mills running night and day it is assumed that they will take full advantage of these months of grace. Newchwang will be ice-bound within a month, also Vladivostok, but Dalny is open all the winter. The report was sent out from Tokyo in June that the five largest weave mills in Japan had formed an association to push the sale of their goods in Manchuria and that 1,000 bales would be shipped each month and be handled through the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha. Agents of this company in Manchuria inform me that for the last two months this amount was raised to between 2,000 and 3,000 bales a month, which shows that they are making good use of the time left to them of free port advantages.

CROSSING SIBERIA BY RAIL.

Vice Consul General Nelson Fairchild, of Mukden, reports that notwithstanding the prevailing idea that political disturbances have seriously interrupted the railway communications throughout Russia, the journey through Siberia and northern Manchuria may be made with only the ordinary difficulties which beset the traveler. As information regarding the trip from London to St. Petersburg and across Siberia is not readily obtainable in the United States, the following information from Mr. Fairchild will be of interest:

Trains for St. Petersburg leave the Victoria station, London, daily at 9 a. m. to connect, via Dover, with the Nord Express at Ostend, which reaches Berlin at 7:40 next morning. The regular St. Petersburg express leaves at 10 o'clock, and after a thirteen hours' trip the Russo-German frontier at Eydtkuhnen-Wirballen is reached. It is here necessary before changing trains, owing to the difference between the Russian and the German gauge, to pass the Russian customs and to submit passports for vise by the police authorities. Baggage is handled by a corps of porters, and the traveler is able to pass the time before the train leaves, at 1 a. m., in one of the excellent restaurants which are to be found at all the larger Russian stations. Those who wish to be certain of a berth in a well lighted car should telegraph ahead. Leaving at 1 a. m., it arrives at St. Petersburg at 6:40 the following evening.

The night "train de luxe" leaves St. Petersburg for Moscow at 10:30 p. m., arriving at 10:30 the following morning.

The regular Government trans-Siberian express leaves Moscow twice a week, on Sundays and Thursdays, at 12:10 a. m. (local time), the "wagon-lit" train leaving on Wednesdays. By taking the latter, however, it is necessary to wait one day at Irkutsk, while the other two trains, with two hours' leeway, connect with the Vladivostok express, and, except for the lavatory accommodations, the ordinary express carriages are quite as comfortable as the more expensive sleeping cars. It is an eight day trip without change from Moscow to Irkutsk. At the latter station, on account of the change of trains, it is necessary to secure a new berth. It will be found more convenient to have the agent in Moscow secure the ticket by telegraph. It is necessary to watch the baggage, as the platform is crowded and thieves are not uncommon.

From Irkutsk the train passes south of Lake Baikal, running very near the water's edge over a hastily constructed roadbed which requires constant watching. It is proposed to build a second line farther to the south, avoiding the mountains which surround the lake. The run to Harbin is five days without a break, at Karamskaia the line changing from the trans-Baikal to the Chinese Eastern Railroad. At about 11 a. m. (local time) the train reaches Harbin, where those going south must change to the old Port Arthur line, the express going through to Vladivostok, arriving there thirty-six hours later.

The south-bound train leaving Harbin at 10:30 p. m. for Changchun (Kwangchentsu) does not compare with those on the main line, consisting of ordinary post cars. Changchun, the last station on the Russian line, is reached at 10 the next morning.

The Japanese railroad begins 5 miles south of Changchun. The schedule has not yet been completed, but there is at least one train a day each way, consisting of one second, a number of third class and box cars. Mukden is about sixteen hours away on the main Port Arthur line.

The St. Petersburg express leaving Berlin is composed of comfortable first and second class vestibule carriages, with a good dining car attached. From Wirballen to St. Petersburg there is a regular "wagon-lit" train, while the express between St. Petersburg and Moscow is the

best train in Russia. It is made up of lighted cars of the latest type. The Moscow-Irkutsk Government express consists of first and second class cars only. The first class compartments are for two or four, while the second class accommodates four persons. Each compartment is fitted with a small table and electric reading light, and there is a lavatory at either end of the car. From Irkutsk on the trains are built on the same plan, but slightly larger, with three lavatories.

On all the Russian trains (except that between Harbin and Changchun) there is a restaurant car, where the prices are reasonable and the fare, though good, is monotonous. As the stops are long, a change of menu may be found at the station buffets. It is unsafe to drink un-boiled water, but Russian and other mineral waters are supplied at low rates. The light Caucasian wines are good and cheaper than French or German clarets or hocks. Russian beer is fairly good, and at the stations peasants offer bottles of milk for sale, while tea or coffee may be had at any hour of the day.

Baggage may be registered through to Harbin or Vladivostok on the payment of a not excessive charge, but only 54 pounds is allowed free on a single ticket. The state-rooms, however, are large enough to permit the carriage of pieces the size of a small steamer trunk.

Neither towels, soap, nor toilet paper are furnished on the trains. It is well, also, to buy such postage stamps as may be needed for letters to be posted en route, as they are difficult to obtain at the stations. Blankets are necessary both at Harbin and on the road south.

A knowledge of French or German, preferably the latter, is most useful, as the porters do not, as a rule, speak English. An open letter to the station masters from the Minister of Ways and Communications will be found valuable, should any difficulty arise, and a passport visaed by the Japanese minister would be useful in transferring from the Russian to the Japanese lines at Changchun.

Coal and coke are the principal fuels, though on parts of the road wood is used. The light rails and the poor quality of the fuel are responsible for the low rate of speed, which rarely exceeds 25 miles an hour.

The rails throughout are very light, about 60 pounds in weight, and the roadbed is poorly ballasted. Both show the effects of the heavy traffic. From Cheliabinsk on there are single sidings every 5 versts, with many more at each station. The railroad is divided into three parts—the trans-Siberian from Moscow to Cheliabinsk and Irkutsk, the trans-Baikal from this point to Karamskaia, and the Chinese Eastern from Karamskaia to Vladivostok.

Connecting with the trans-Siberian line there are branch railroads from Cheliabinsk to Ekaterinburg and Perm, shortly to be connected with a road from St. Petersburg via Vologda; from Taiga to Tomsk, and from Karamskaia to Stretensk. Cheliabinsk, moreover, within another year will be connected with Irkutsk by a second line to the south, and a new circum-Baikal as well as a Stretensk-Habarovsk line is contemplated. Water routes and connecting railroads, both constructed and projected, supply the main arteries, and only the network of the connecting lines is necessary to complete the opening of the country.

The towns along the line appear to be fairly active, growing places, with their saw and flour mills, distilleries and factories. The larger ones, such as Cheliabinsk, Petropavlosk, Omsk, Kainsk, Taiga, Ilanskaia, Nijnieoudinsk, Irkutsk and Tchita, show signs of great commercial activity.

The bulk of the population of Siberia is made up of emigrants and exiles from Russia proper. At present the exiles form only from 8 to 9 per cent. of the whole, and this proportion is decreasing, while the number of

voluntary emigrants is growing each year. The latter are chiefly farmers, who are given Government land, rent free for a number of years, after which they are obliged to pay a small tax.

The native population consists of nomadic tribes—the Kirghiz, Tartars, Turks, Mongols, Bukhariots, Samoyedes and Buriats—living in felt tents. They are not agricultural but pastoral races. Their flocks and herds provide food, clothes and shelter, and they rely on the frequent fairs held at large towns to meet and exchange commodities for their other needs.

The natural resources of the country are great, large mineral deposits being found throughout; gold, which is the most important, forming one of the chief sources of wealth. After it, in the order named, are coal, iron, silver, lead and salt, as well as quantities of precious stones. These mines are worked by primitive methods, though in the Tomsk district some modern American machinery has been introduced, and the output is at present very considerable and annually increasing. Although the numerous coal and iron deposits have not been extensively exploited, coal is furnished in sufficient quantity for railroad use, and a certain amount of pig iron is exported. Silver, lead, salt mines and oil wells, though not as important, are profitable, and contribute to the general wealth of the country. Timber also, if felled under proper restrictions, should be a constant source of revenue both to the Government and to the lumbermen.

A certain amount of capital is invested in canneries, for the country abounds in rivers and lakes, which are supplied with fish in abundance—salmon, sturgeon, sterlet and trout.

Farming is the chief industry of Siberia, for the Russians are essentially an agricultural people. Partly, however, owing to the crude implements in use and partly to the community ownership of land, the production has been small in comparison with the fertility of the soil. Agricultural machinery has not been employed to any great extent, notwithstanding the enormous area capable of cultivation; and the peasantry are content to work their farms by hand. Common ownership of land, as in Russian Siberia, interferes with proper fertilization and rotation of crops, for the land is each year divided by their head among the various members of the community according to the size of the families. The peasants consequently regard any attempt to improve land that they are to part with at the end of the year as a waste of time and money. Furthermore, each family's land is arbitrarily subdivided into three portions, one for planting, one for grazing, and one to lie fallow, reducing the possible cultivation to two-thirds of its natural extent.

In spite of the defects in the Russian system great quantities of grain are exported annually. Wheat is the principal crop, but rye, barley, oats, flax, linseed and beet root are cultivated as well. In many parts the absence of snow and the shortness of the summer presents serious difficulties, yet two crops are almost invariably handled each year.

Cattle, sheep and horse breeding form another important industry, and furnish the supplies used by the meat canners, as well as the establishments for the production of cheese, butter, tallow and soap.

The tea traffic between Siberia and Mongolia and China forms the largest import trade. Other imports are piece goods, groceries, glass, finished metal goods and pottery. Exports consist of grain, flour, linseed, coal, tallow, butter, cheese, hair, skins, furs and cattle.

Out of the great number of Siberian rivers few are navigable, and those that are closed during such a large part of the year that the amount of water borne freight is limited. The rates, both by river and canal, on account of the short open season, are very high. The most important rivers are the Om, the Irtysh, the Ob and the Yenisei—the two latter being connected by a canal which

joins Tiumen and Irkutsk. Carts are generally used for transport, carrying large loads over almost impassable roads.

The border range of Siberia—the Urals—is low and well wooded, and falls away gradually into the steppes, which are unvaried save for forests of birch and fir, until the foothills of the mountains which surround Lake Baikal are reached. Thenceforward the country is rugged and grades considerably, until the Chingan mountains are succeeded by the rolling grass country of northern Hei Lung Chang. While the miles of steppes showed only occasional signs of cultivation, a patch here and there or a little clearing in the brush, the country about Irkutsk is much more thoroughly settled; there are well tilled fields, and the villages look more prosperous than those of central Siberia. Beyond Baikal, also, wheat and barely are grown in the valleys; but from Tchita to the east there are few signs of habitation, and the district between Manchuria station and Harbin is bare and wind swept, and almost untouched by the farmer. Around Harbin, however, the land yields a large annual crop.

Harbin, the most important city in northwest Manchuria, is divided into nine parts—the administration, military, hospital, manufacturing, river, railway, old, new and Chinese towns. The hospital town, however, is chiefly composed of barracks; and in the manufacturing town there is very little manufacturing. The flour mills are in the river town; they are fairly large, prosperous, and in most cases are adding to their plants. At present they are operated by steam power, but it is proposed to experiment with water power as well. Their machinery is almost entirely from Zurich, but some of the small pieces are made in Moscow. Grain is delivered to them at 40 kopecks (kopeck, one-half cent) per pud (36 pounds), and the flour sold at 1 ruble (ruble, 51½ cents) 90 kopecks, 1 ruble 80 kopecks, 1 ruble 65 kopecks, and 1 ruble 40 kopecks, per pud, according to the quality. The largest has a capacity of 3,000 puds per day, but this will be more than doubled when the additions are completed. American flour is still popular with the Chinese, but owing to the low cost of the native product it is being supplanted by degrees. Harbin is a distinctly Russian town; cabmen, waiters and servants are white rather than Chinese.

South of Harbin the agricultural implements are even more primitive than in Siberia itself; but as the country is extraordinarily fertile the crops are large. The chief grain is kaoliang, a sorghum millet, which grows to a great height and which the natives use for flour and fodder. Beans form the other staple, there being little else except garden truck. The mineral wealth is entirely unexploited, with the exception of the coal mines at Fushun, which the Japanese work in a small way, and some coal deposits near Tiehling, which the Chinese are said to be working. The quality of coal from the Fushun mine is not very good, being filled with shale.

The most apparent need of Siberia and Manchuria is agricultural machinery. The territories are sparsely settled, and the areas capable of cultivation are great. Agricultural schools have been established at several places in Siberia, and a certain number of steam plows, reapers and similar implements are now in use, but the field has never been thoroughly canvassed. At the large towns electric plants are in operation, which, with the general use of the telephone and the telegraph, show that there should be a demand for electrical machinery.

To secure a supply of pure water, artesian wells have been drilled at some places, and the sale of apparatus for this purpose, windmills for the isolated farmers, and filters should find a ready market, while the demand for mineral waters might be supplied by the exploitation of the numerous mineral springs. Foreign canned goods are used to a considerable extent in Siberia, although they must compete with the native article.

The sale of woollens, cottons, dust (automobile) glasses, cheap boots and shoes, cutlery, tools, axes and lanterns would be increased by establishing closer relations with the local markets. In a few places there are grain elevators; but they are neither large nor numerous enough to handle the crops. The American investor, in partnership with a Russian, whose presence is necessary in order to represent the business with the administration and railroad officials, should find this also a source of profit.

TABLE OF TIMES AND FARES.—HOTELS.

For convenience pounds sterling are reckoned at \$5 and rubles at 50 cents in the following schedule:

| | Time of departure. | Fares. |
|--|--------------------|---------|
| London to Berlin (via Dover-Ostend)..... | 9 a. m. | \$69.01 |
| Berlin to Petersburg..... | 10 a. m. | |
| St. Petersburg to Moscow..... | 10.30 p. m. | 121.40 |
| Moscow to Irkutsk..... | 12.10 a. m. | |
| Irkutsk to Harbin..... | 8.56 p. m. | 5.00 |
| Harbin to Changchun..... | 10.30 p. m. | |

For food on the train \$2.50 to \$3 a day should be allowed, while hotel charges are as follows: St. Petersburg—Hotel de Europe, \$1.75 to \$10 per day; Hotel de France, \$1.75 to \$7.50 per day. Moscow—Hotel National, \$1.50 to \$5 per day; Hotel Metropole, \$1.50 to \$7.50 per day. Harbin—Gomaretle Hotel, \$1.50 to \$5 per day.

THE TREATY POWERS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

The following is part of a speech delivered on the above subject by the Hon. David J. Foster, of Vermont, in the House of Representatives on January 16:

The simple fact was: The United States had learned during the brief but eventful years of the Confederation that it was not the sole function of the treaty power to confer right and privileges upon foreign subjects on American soil; that the chief purpose of the power was to secure rights and privileges and protection for American citizens abroad, and that in order to accomplish this high purpose most successfully and effectively it was essential that the Government be able to reciprocate by treaty stipulations which should be binding upon the whole American people. Those were not the days when the people of the States were willing to concede any power to the national Government without full knowledge of the consequences of their acts. All the ties that had bound the colonists together during the bitter night of the Revolution had burst asunder, and, in place of a people working together in unity and concord, there stood forth thirteen petty republics, each racked by the intensest jealousy of all the others; each fearful lest the least concession of right or privilege for the common weal might open the way for the tyrant or the oppressor. John Fiske well describes the time as the critical period of our history. The representatives of the thirteen States in the convention that framed the Constitution adopted the provisions respecting the treaty power deliberately and with full knowledge of their true import. It was their judgment that they had properly safeguarded the States by providing that a treaty, to be effective, must be ratified by a two-thirds vote of the Senate present. The Senate was to be composed exclusively of representatives of the States, and surely, said they, if two-thirds of these representatives concur in support of the provisions of a treaty it may be safely assumed that they contain nothing of serious detriment to any State. And the experience of more than a hundred years proves how rightly they judged.

This view of the scope of our treaty making power is sustained by an unbroken line of decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, as well as by many decisions of the State courts. One of the first cases considered by

the Supreme Court involving the question of the treaty power of the national Government was that of *Ware vs. Hylton*. It is not only a leading case, but one of great historic interest. It was decided in 1796, seven years after the inauguration of the new Government under the Constitution. Washington was still President. The proceedings of the Constitutional Convention were still fresh in the minds of those who had participated in them, and the echoes of the fierce controversy that attended the adoption of the Constitution were still heard. Justice Chase, who wrote the principal opinion, who was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and who has been described as "the torch that lighted up the revolutionary flame in Maryland," was a citizen of Maryland, where the controversy arose. Justice Patterson, who wrote a concurring opinion, had been a member of the Constitutional Convention, where he was largely instrumental in shaping the provisions relative to the treaty power. Justice Wilson, who also concurred, was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and one of the ablest men in the Constitutional Convention. Marshall and Patrick Henry were of counsel in the case. The fourth article of the treaty of peace with Great Britain provided for the payment of debts due British subjects from American citizens in the several States. Maryland, by an act of her Legislature, had confiscated such debts due from her citizens. This action was brought to recover such a debt from Hylton, a citizen of Maryland, who had paid the larger part of the debt into the State treasury under the confiscating statute, and the question was whether the treaty stipulation was paramount to the Maryland statute.

"Chase, Patterson, Wilson and Cushing, impressed by the uncommon magnitude of the subject; the bitter and exciting controversies it had provoked, and the far reaching consequences by which their decision would be attended, although differing upon some matters of detail and in the mode of their reasoning, reached the conclusion that the treaty of 1783 was the supreme law, equal in its effect to the Constitution itself, in overruling all State laws upon the subject, and the words that British creditors should meet with no lawful impediment were as strong as the wit of man could devise to avoid all effects of sequestration, confiscation or any other obstacle thrown in the way by any law particularly pointed against the recovery of such debts. The decision expanded from a statement of the contractual liability of an individual to an assertion that the treaty obligations of the nation were paramount to the laws of the individual States."

In the course of an elaborate opinion Justice Chase, after stating his belief that treaties made by Congress during the existence of the Confederation were superior to the laws of the States, said this:

"If doubts could exist before the establishment of the present national Government, they must be entirely removed by the sixth article of the Constitution, which provides that 'all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States shall be the supreme law of the land, and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.' There can be no limitation on the power of the people of the United States. By their authority the State constitutions were made, and by their authority the Constitution of the United States was established; and they had the power to change or abolish the State constitutions or to make them yield to the general Government and to treaties made by their authority. A treaty cannot be the supreme law of the land—that is, of all the United States—if any act of a State legislature can stand in its way. If the constitution of a State (which is the fundamental law of the State and paramount in its legislature) must give way to a treaty and fall before it, can it be questioned whether the less power, an act of the State legislature, must not be prostrate? It is the declared will of the people of the United States that every treaty made

by the authority of the United States shall be superior to the constitution and laws of any individual State; and their will alone is to decide. If a law of a State contrary to a treaty is not void, but voidable only by a repeal or nullification by a State legislature, this certain consequence follows, that the will of a small part of the United States may control or defeat the will of the whole."

For more than a century this case has been cited with approval, not only by the Supreme Court of the United States, but by many of the courts of last resort of the several States. In 1879 the Supreme Court, in the case of *Hauenstein vs. Lynham*, held that our treaty with Switzerland was superior to the laws of Virginia. That treaty provided that citizens of Switzerland might inherit real estate situated in the United States, and if by the laws of the State in which it lay they could not hold it by reason of their being aliens they were given a reasonable time in which to sell it. Hauenstein, a citizen of Virginia, died possessed of real estate and without heirs, except certain citizens of Switzerland. By the laws of the State of Virginia an alien could not inherit property within the State, and it was claimed that the real estate escheated to the State; but the Swiss heirs contended that under the treaty they had the right to sell the land and avail themselves of the proceeds of the sale. The court sustained their contention. Justice Swayne, in rendering the opinion of the court, cited with approval the case of *Ware vs. Hylton*, and after quoting largely from the opinion of Justice Chase, as "showing the views of a powerful legal mind at that early period, when the debates in the convention which framed the Constitution must have been fresh in the memory of the leading jurists of the country," said this:

"It must always be borne in mind that the Constitution, laws and treaties of the United States are as much a part of the law of every State as its own local laws and constitution. This is a fundamental principle in our system of complex national policy. We have no doubt that this treaty is within the treaty making power conferred by the Constitution, and it is our duty to give it full effect."

In 1889, in *Jeofroy vs. Riggs*, the Supreme Court again reviewed the treaty making power of the United States. Justice Field, in rendering the decision of the court, after declaring that Article 7 of the treaty of 1800 with France suspended during the existence of the treaty the statutes of Maryland, so far as they prevented citizens of France from taking by inheritance from citizens of the United States property, real or personal, situated therein, said this:

"That the treaty power of the United States extends to all proper subjects of negotiation between our Government and the governments of other nations is clear. It is also clear that the protection which should be afforded to the citizens of one country owning property in another, and the manner in which that property may be transferred, devised or inherited are fitting subjects for such negotiation and of regulation by mutual stipulations between the two countries. As commercial intercourse increases between different countries the residence of citizens of one country within the territory of the other naturally follows, and the removal of their disability from alienage to hold, transfer and inherit property in such cases tends to promote amicable relations. Such removal has been within the present century the frequent subject of such treaty arrangement."

In all the times that our treaty making power has been under review by the Supreme Court of the United States not once has it been suggested by the court that any provision of the treaty under consideration was beyond the treaty power. In every instance the question has been whether the State law in question contravened the stipulations of the treaty. If so, then it must yield to the supreme law of the land.

In 1855 the Supreme Court of California reviewed the treaty making power of the National Government in the case of *The People vs. Gerke & Clark*. The State denied the power of the Federal Government to make a treaty

which should remove the disability of alienage as against the laws of the State respecting inheritance of lands situated in that State. In upholding the treaty the court called attention to the fact that cases have frequently arisen where aliens have claimed to inherit by virtue of treaty provisions analogous to the one under consideration, and that all of them were enforced in favor of the foreign claimant. The fact was noted that in none of these cases was the question raised as to the power of the Federal Government to make the treaty. Attention was called to the fact that, although it had been the practice of the Government from an early period after the ratification of the Constitution, its power was now for the first time disputed. The court then said:

"One of the arguments at the bar against the extent of this power of treaty is that it permits the Federal Government to control the internal policy of the States, and in the present case to alter materially the statutes of distribution.

"If this was so to the full extent claimed it might be a sufficient answer to say that it is one of the results of the compact, and if the grant be considered too improvident for the safety of the States the evil can be remedied by the Constitution making power. I think, however, that no such consequence follows as is insisted. The statutes of distribution are not altered or affected. Alienage is the subject of the treaty. Its disability results from political reasons which arose at an early period of the history of civilization and which the enlightened advancement of modern times and changes in the political and social condition of nations have rendered without force or consequence. The disability to succeed to property is alone removed, the character of the person is made politically to undergo a change, and then the statute of distribution is left to its full effect, unaltered and unimpaired in word or sense. If there is one object more than another which belongs to our political relations and which ought to be the subject of treaty regulations, it is the extension of this comity which is so highly favored by the liberal spirit of the age and so conducive in its tendency to the peace and amity of nations.

"Even if the effect of this power was to abrogate to some extent the legislation of the States, we have authority for admitting it if it does not exceed the limitations which we have cited from the work of Mr. Calhoun and laid down as the rule to which we yield our assent."

In 1879 a case of interest and importance, bearing upon the treaty power of the United States, was determined by the Circuit Court of the United States for the district of Oregon. Our treaty with China, then in force, declared that—

"Chinese subjects visiting or residing in the United States shall enjoy the same privileges, immunities and exemptions in respect to travel or residence as may be then enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation."

In 1872 Oregon passed the statute which provided that—

"It shall be unlawful to employ any Chinese laborers on any street, or part of street, of any city or incorporated town of this State, or on any public works or public improvement of any character, except as a punishment for crime; and all contracts which any person or corporation may have for the improvement of any such street, or part of street, or public works or improvements of any character, shall be null and void from and after the date of any employment of any Chinese laborers thereon by the contractor."

And the question involved was whether this statute was in contravention of the provisions of the treaty then in force.

The court, in rendering its decision, declared:

"This treaty, until it is abrogated or modified by the political department of the Government, is the supreme law of the land, and the courts are bound to enforce it fully and fairly. An honorable man keeps his word under all circumstances, and an honorable nation abides by its treaty obligations, even to its own disadvantage.

"The State cannot legislate so as to interfere with the operation of this treaty or limit or deny the privileges or immunities guaranteed by it to the Chinese residents in this country. * * *

"It will be observed that the treaty recognizes the right of the Chinese to change their home and allegiance and to visit this country and become permanent residents thereof, and as such residents it guarantees to them all the privileges and immunities that may be enjoyed here by the citizens or subjects of any nation. Therefore, if the State can restrain and limit the Chinese in their labor and pursuits within its limits, it may do the same by the subjects of Great Britain, France or Germany.

"True, this act does not undertake to exclude the Chinese from all kinds and fields of employment. But if the State, notwithstanding the treaty, may prevent the Chinese or the subjects of Great Britain from working upon street improvements and public works, it is not apparent why it may not prevent them from engaging in any kind of employment or working at any kind of labor.

"Nor can it be said with any show of reason or fairness that the treaty does not contemplate that the Chinese shall have the right to labor while in the United States. It impliedly recognizes their right to make this country their home, and expressly permits them to become permanent residents here; and this necessarily implies the right to live and to labor for a living. It is difficult to conceive a grosser case of keeping the word of promise to the ear and breaking it to the hope than to invite Chinese to become permanent residents of this country upon a direct pledge that they shall enjoy all the privileges here of the most favored nation and then to deliberately prevent them from earning a living, and thus make the proffered right of residence a mere mockery and deceit. In *Chapman vs. Toy Long* (4 Saw. 36) this court, in considering these provisions of this treaty, said: 'The right to reside in the country, with the same privileges as the subjects of Great Britain or France, implies the right to follow any lawful calling or pursuit which is open to the subjects of these powers.'

It is firmly settled that the United States may by treaty stipulations remove all the disabilities of alienage affecting property rights and place the persons thus relieved on an equality with the citizens of the United States with respect to those rights, the laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding. It may provide by treaty that the citizens of a foreign country living in any one of the States may acquire real and personal property by gift, purchase, or inheritance; that he may hold it or dispose of it by sale, gift or will as freely and on the same terms as may be done by an American citizen. It may provide that the foreign citizen may have the same access to the courts of the several States as is given to their citizens. It may provide that he shall be subjected to no greater burden of taxation than is borne by the citizens of the State in which he lives.

JAPANESE IN MANCHURIA.

A recent issue of *Asiatic Commerce*, of Tokyo, reports Baron Kiyoura, who recently returned to Japan from Manchuria, as making the following remarks:

Astonishingly large numbers of Japanese have emigrated to Manchuria, there being many Japanese colonies with more than 1,000 inhabitants. Women are everywhere. The Japanese are "feeding on each other," so to speak, and do not much engage in Chinese trade and local industries. Agriculture in Manchuria is in an advanced state. The land, several times as large as a Japanese farm, is cultivated by farmers numbering only 20 per cent. of the number of the Japanese farmers. The deficit is made good by the abundance of cattle and horses and by the laborers from Shan-

tung Province. Promising enterprises for the Japanese are mines, there being many mines in addition to the Fushun colliery. The Japanese coal merchants apprehend a falling off in the quotations of coal, owing to a competition with the merchants of Fushun. But such falling is beneficial for various industries. The cultivation of barley, the manufacture of flour and the rearing of wild silkworms, each of these is a promising business. Commercial rivalry will be unavoidable between Tairen (Dalny) and Ying-kow.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION IN JAPAN.

In connection with the semi-international exhibition to be held in Japan in 1912, the following plan and estimates are reported:

| REVENUE:— | Yen. |
|----------------------------------|-----------|
| Municipal Contributions..... | 3,000,000 |
| Exhibition Revenue..... | 2,000,000 |
| Contributions from Treasury..... | 5,000,000 |

The revenue from the exhibitions is estimated as follows:

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Admission tickets | 1,000,000 |
| Admission tickets to Refrigerator | 200,000 |
| Admission tickets to Aquarium | 200,000 |
| Ground-rent | 330,000 |
| Luggage-room Receipts | 70,000 |
| Ground-rent of Commercial Bazaar | 150,000 |
| Proceeds from printed matter | 100,000 |
| Revenue from Monopoly business | 70,000 |
| Supply of Motors | 30,000 |

The area of the exhibition ground is estimated at 300,000 tsubo, and both foreign and domestic exhibits are to be exhibited in the three buildings to be known as the industrial, machinery and electric buildings, except buildings that may be built by foreign exhibitors. The exhibition will be held in Tokyo, and will be open for seven months—from April to October, 1912. The principal buildings to be erected thereon comprise: Scientific buildings (2), industrial buildings (2), machinery and electric buildings (2), transportation building, marine products building, zoological building, fine arts building, agricultural building, mining building, forestry building, foodstuffs building, aquarium, Oriental building, refrigerating room, post and telegraph office, horticultural building, concert halls (3), fountains (5).

The following are the principal items to be carried out as auxiliary to the main business in the vicinity of the exhibition building: Construction and improvement of roads, bridges, etc., and the establishment of perfect communications; laying of waterworks and drainage; fitting of gas and electric light and cleaning the compound; erection of a public hall; hotel and carriage accommodation; establishment of theatre, concert hall and other pleasure resorts; creation of various guilds for promoting the interests of the exhibition, and arrangements for the reception of foreign and Japanese visitors.

It may be remembered that at a meeting of the Tokyo Municipal Council held an unconditional contribution of 3,000,000 yen was voted, and the business mentioned under the exhibition revenue was also contracted for at 2,000,000 yen by the municipality.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

Corrected to February 1, 1907.

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Hon. William W. Rockhill, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to China.
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 Hill, Samuel (gas and electric lighting), Seattle, Wash.
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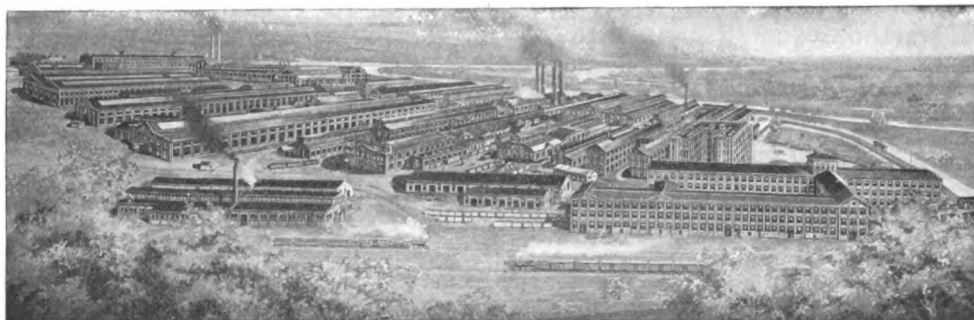
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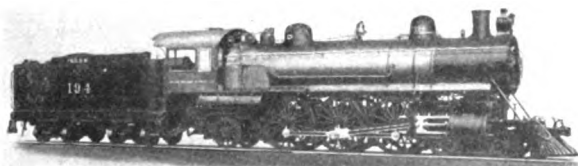
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Journal of The American Asiatic Association

VOL. VII.

March, 1907
PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

NUMBER 2

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JAPAN has very sensibly abstained from protest against the amendment to the immigration law inserted by way of settling the controversy raised over the admission of Japanese children to the public schools of San Francisco. The amendment, as finally adopted, is in these terms: "That whenever the President shall be satisfied that passports issued by any foreign government to its citizens to go to any country other than the United States, or to any insular possession of the United States, or to the Canal Zone, are being used for the purpose of enabling the holders to come to the Continental territory of the United States to the detriment of labor conditions therein, the President may refuse to permit such citizens of the country issuing such passports to enter the Continental territory of the United States from such other country, or from such insular possessions, or from the Canal Zone." California accepts the bar which has been interposed to Japanese immigration by way of Hawaii in return for her consent to live up to the terms of the treaty between the United States and Japan. The connection between the two things will not be obvious to critical foreign observation, nor does it, indeed, seem anything save an artificial one to many of our own people. But the arrangement was apparently the best that could be made to relieve an embarrassing situation, and since Japan is ready to accept the good intentions of the President as an offset to the slur that has been passed on her people, further comment on the matter may seem superfluous.

UNFORTUNATELY, the easiest solution of the Japanese school difficulty fails to settle anything. It leaves in a condition of distressing uncertainty the very important question whether, in a matter of this kind, the police power of one of the States of the Union can be invoked to nullify the admitted obligations of a treaty with a foreign nation. Considering the apparently uniform and not at all uncertain voice of the Supreme Court on this question, it seems a pity that in the new form in which the question presented itself in California it was not again submitted to that tribunal. Leaving out of view the peculiar disqualifications of the mayor of San Francisco to discuss with the President of the United States an issue which the President had most vigorously attacked and disposed of in his Annual Message, there was a distinct surrender of national dignity in the whole negotiation. For negotiation it was, in the strict meaning of the word, and negotiation implies the existence of powers or parties,

each independent of the other. But while the sovereignty of the State of California is unquestioned within the scope of the powers reserved to the States, the whole contention turned on the claim that in this matter the sovereignty of the State was necessarily limited by the terms of the Federal compact. The Administration gave away its whole case, when it virtually conceded that, in restoring Japanese children to their former status in the public schools of San Francisco, the city and the State had done something entitling them to be humored in the matter of excluding Japanese immigrants. To make matters worse, neither the intelligent sentiment of the State of California nor that of the other Pacific States favors such exclusion, and the demand for it comes merely from the ranks of that particularly vociferous, intolerant and shortsighted body of sentiment known as organized labor. It would be to ascribe to the leaders of this body an amount of common sense and self restraint which they have never yet displayed, to assume that they will be content with the sacrifice of national self respect which has been made on their behalf. It would be to ignore some of the simplest requirements of satisfactory international intercourse to believe that there is not in the so called settlement the seeds of future trouble.

It seems hardly worth while recalling the terms of the President's Message of December, 1905, in which reference was made to the gross injustice which had been done by this nation to the people of China, to appreciate the humor of the statement that the advocates of what was left of the President's recommendations for a measure of justice to China should have been "called off" in the last days of the session, if not by Executive suggestion, at least with Executive approval. It should be added, however, that, acting within its proper sphere, the Administration has, through the Secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor, given its approval to some very timely amendments to the regulations governing the admission of Chinese. The most important of these relate to the designation of officers in foreign countries to issue to Chinese subjects or citizens of such countries the certificate prescribed by Section 6 of the act of 1884. For example, throughout Europe the Chinese Minister or Chargé d'Affaires at any of the various capitals has authority to give such certificates; in Mexico the authority is vested in the Department for Foreign Affairs, and in the Straits Settlements in the Colonial Secretary. The very intelligent definition which Secretary Straus made in October of the meaning of the word "student" is incorporated in the amendments to the regulations elsewhere reproduced. As will be perceived, the definition which has heretofore prevailed has been enlarged by declaring that a student is "a person who pursues some regular course of study, including the higher branches of learning, but not excluding the elementary or preparatory branches, if undertaken in good faith." It will also be observed that the Secretary is more liberal than the House Committee was prepared to be in limiting himself to the requirement that a student

must also be "a person whose intention it is, upon the conclusion of his studies, either to depart from the United States, or, if he remains, to engage in no pursuit or calling which would render his presence in the United States unlawful." This is in gratifying contrast to the requirement of the proposed new law that the term student should be held to mean "a person coming to the United States for the exclusive purpose of pursuing any branch of liberal education, religious, scientific, mechanical, literary or artistic, for information or to become fitted for some profession or occupation and not as a means of livelihood in the United States."

It will be observed that in response to the appeal issued by a sub-committee of the Association, the sum of \$9,422 has been received for the benefit of the Chinese Famine Relief Fund. This constitutes a respectable proportion of the amount transmitted by the American National Red Cross Association up to date. As in the case of the Japanese Fund collected for the benefit of the survivors of those killed during the war, the contribution for which Dr. Louis Klopsch, publisher of the *Christian Herald*, is directly responsible, represents by far the larger proportion of the total. It is matter for some disappointment that the distress in China has appealed less powerfully to the beneficence of the American public than its extent and seriousness demanded that it should. This may be partly accounted for by the swift recurrence of great calamities for whose relief appeals have been made to our people, and by the simultaneous occurrence of a great famine in Russia, for whose relief contributions have also been invited. The list is not yet closed, however, and it may be hoped that the figures which we elsewhere publish will mark merely the beginning of a charitable offering more nearly adequate to the terrible reality of Chinese distress.

Our export and import figures of Far Eastern trade again resume comparison with the previous fiscal, instead of the calendar, year. In the matter of exports to China, the total for the seven months is decidedly disappointing, being only a little over \$13,000,000, against nearly \$29,000,000 for the corresponding period of 1906, and about \$23,500,000 for the first seven months of the fiscal year 1905. The exports to Japan show a slight falling off as compared with 1906, but are very nearly of the same value as for the similar period of 1905. While the imports from China are, for the first time in years, some \$6,000,000 in excess of the exports, those from Japan are already more than double the exports, and have increased from about \$32,000,000 in the first seven months of the fiscal year 1906 to nearly \$46,500,000 for 1907. A large share of the increase of Japanese imports is accounted for by the steady rise in the amount of raw silk brought into this country. From all sources we imported during the seven months in question \$44,500,000 of raw silk, of which close upon \$28,000,000 came from Japan.

Exports of Domestic Cotton Cloths, Mineral Oils, and Wheat Flour from the United States to China and Hongkong, during the seven months ending January 31, 1906 and 1907.

EXPORTS TO CHINA.

| Months. 1906. | Cotton Cloths. | | Mineral Oils. | | Wheat Flour. | |
|------------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|-----------|
| | Yards. | | Gallons. | | Barrels. | |
| July | 46,166,783 | \$2,724,181 | 4,577,172 | \$246,800 | 1,110 | \$4,892 |
| August | 63,411,786 | 3,519,840 | 5,102,675 | 372,815 | 1,028 | 4,046 |
| September | 49,969,790 | 2,881,780 | 6,812,489 | 534,576 | 2,770 | 9,963 |
| October | 29,828,023 | 1,839,189 | 3,835,150 | 396,589 | 32,871 | 109,773 |
| November | 52,705,438 | 3,212,585 | 5,780,919 | 351,938 | 9,694 | 34,859 |
| December | 48,525,998 | 2,896,758 | 5,500,971 | 545,659 | 20,747 | 77,192 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January | 45,178,409 | 2,532,515 | 3,270,649 | 241,022 | 28,774 | 96,746 |
| Total | 335,786,161 | \$19,606,848 | 34,600,451 | \$2,657,340 | 96,994 | \$337,471 |

| 1906. | | | | | | |
|-----------------|------------|-------------|------------|-------------|---------|-------------|
| July | 16,895,213 | \$1,070,858 | 6,554,814 | \$514,067 | 40,024 | \$155,473 |
| August | 11,542,141 | 762,060 | 2,966,586 | 121,993 | 14,582 | 50,534 |
| September | 15,389,513 | 1,016,379 | 3,892,695 | 189,198 | 49,824 | 158,516 |
| October | 8,796,507 | 555,740 | 2,929,800 | 128,200 | 218,590 | 750,955 |
| November | 7,367,251 | 531,273 | 4,026,954 | 407,633 | 45,975 | 165,757 |
| December | 2,895,000 | 201,658 | 6,781,682 | 536,188 | 86,603 | 271,864 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January | 1,613,462 | 112,456 | 7,181,252 | 489,166 | 80,567 | 265,564 |
| Total | 64,899,087 | \$4,250,424 | 35,868,161 | \$2,331,466 | 536,167 | \$1,818,663 |

EXPORTS TO HONGKONG.

| 1906. | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|---------|-------------|
| July | 30,064 | \$3,177 | 712,246 | \$73,254 | 108,132 | \$384,254 |
| August | 83,435 | 11,328 | 71,338 | 10,352 | 59,660 | 231,092 |
| September | 15,608 | 2,375 | 2,093,430 | 168,400 | 56,935 | 206,244 |
| October | 49,941 | 6,210 | 8,524 | 1,095 | 81,934 | 294,056 |
| November | 4,761 | 904 | 229,861 | 24,622 | 154,321 | 531,685 |
| December | 2,646 | 590 | 979,013 | 104,860 | 83,375 | 301,473 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January | 21,428 | 2,815 | 55,704 | 8,470 | 81,395 | 313,296 |
| Total | 207,883 | \$27,399 | 4,150,116 | \$390,853 | 625,952 | \$2,262,100 |

| 1906. | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|---------|-------------|
| July | 50,027 | \$6,228 | 15,063 | \$2,346 | 65,248 | \$229,073 |
| August | 100,392 | 9,345 | 423,404 | 44,580 | 94,848 | 352,466 |
| September | 73,674 | 10,041 | 2,291,031 | 200,285 | 93,980 | 359,384 |
| October | 63,879 | 8,109 | 1,681,916 | 168,713 | 98,187 | 364,904 |
| November | 22,621 | 2,927 | 21,599 | 2,591 | 92,545 | 349,077 |
| December | 69,227 | 9,089 | 1,479,169 | 149,565 | 103,487 | 362,374 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January | 26,890 | 4,052 | | | 56,708 | 193,828 |
| Total | 406,710 | \$49,791 | 5,912,182 | \$568,080 | 604,703 | \$2,211,106 |

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR,

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 2, 1907.

Digitized by Google Bureau of Statistics.

Imports of Tea and Silk into the United States for the seven months ending January 31, 1905, 1906 and 1907.

TEA.

| Imported from | 1905. | | 1906. | | 1907. | |
|---------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. |
| United Kingdom..... | 4,533,088 | 897,249 | 4,642,944 | 1,041,114 | 4,994,646 | 1,114,377 |
| British North America.... | 1,338,739 | 303,343 | 1,250,050 | 305,191 | 1,373,313 | 326,731 |
| Chinese Empire..... | 29,662,079 | 4,268,694 | 27,815,806 | 3,866,974 | 22,197,953 | 3,144,599 |
| East Indies..... | 4,496,721 | 645,461 | 3,714,545 | 546,363 | 4,223,276 | 605,627 |
| Japan..... | 35,971,852 | 6,221,175 | 35,472,266 | 5,755,868 | 34,975,783 | 5,663,509 |
| Other Asia and Oceania.. | 239,902 | 30,961 | 311,171 | 55,405 | 442,444 | 78,999 |
| Other countries | 190,094 | 40,280 | 95,739 | 21,315 | 180,444 | 39,384 |
| Total..... | 76,433,375 | 12,407,163 | 73,302,521 | 11,592,230 | 68,387,859 | 10,973,226 |

RAW, OR AS REELED FROM THE COCOON.

SILK.

| Imported from | 1905. | | 1906. | | 1907. | |
|----------------------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. |
| France..... | 473,470 | 1,372,215 | 305,315 | 1,106,626 | 224,525 | 881,513 |
| Italy..... | 2,580,398 | 9,287,945 | 1,973,386 | 7,892,394 | 2,130,304 | 9,057,562 |
| Chinese Empire..... | 1,746,724 | 4,714,784 | 1,748,987 | 5,087,551 | 1,877,183 | 6,290,991 |
| Japan..... | 5,493,202 | 18,718,738 | 4,337,063 | 16,283,713 | 6,799,183 | 27,968,803 |
| Other countries | 896,877 | 2,548,392 | 76,795 | 285,798 | 71,271 | 255,044 |
| Total..... | 11,190,671 | 36,642,074 | 8,441,546 | 30,656,082 | 11,102,466 | 44,453,913 |
| Wastelbs...free.. | 2,698,920 | 836,364 | 2,048,848 | 795,640 | 961,931 | 512,538 |
| Total unmanufactured | | 37,478,463 | | 31,460,435 | | 44,989,997 |

THE CENTRAL CHINA FAMINE RELIEF FUND.

In response to the appeal for aid from the committee of the Central China Famine Relief Fund, the following letter was issued by the executive committee of this Association and signed with the names of a sub-committee appointed for this special purpose:

AMERICAN ASIATIC ASSOCIATION,
New York, February 16, 1907.

A most urgent appeal for aid in the salvation of life is necessary as the result of the disaster which has overtaken one of the most densely populated portions of the Chinese Empire. Measured in terms of human life, this disaster far transcends in suffering, privation and death the destruction wrought by earthquake and fire at San Francisco or at Kingston.

Briefly stated, there has been a total or partial failure of the crops, owing to incessant rains and consequent floods, over an area of 60,000 square miles, inhabited by ten millions of people. The latest advices received by this Association show that there are something like one million persons congregated around some of the more accessible cities, every one of whom must be fed every day to escape death from starvation.

The responsibility of relieving the distress of these famishing millions rests primarily, of course, with the Chinese Government and people, but the magnitude of the task and the inadequacy of the resources available for meeting it warrant the most urgent appeal to those interested in the *welfare of China* and to the humanity of the entire American people.

Contributions should not only be *liberal*, but should be *prompt*, if death by starvation for multitudes is to be averted. "He gives *twice* who gives quickly."

Contributions should be addressed to Mr. Jacob H. Schiff,

treasurer of the Red Cross Fund, 52 William street, New York. Yours respectfully,

SILAS D. WEBB,
CHARLES A. CONANT, } Committee.
THOMAS A. PHELAN, }
JAMES R. MORSE, Chairman.

The following subscriptions have been received from members of the Association and others to whom the appeal was addressed:

| | |
|---|------------|
| China and Japan Trading Company, New York.. | \$1,000.00 |
| American Trading Company, New York..... | 500.00 |
| Carter, Macy & Co., New York..... | 500.00 |
| J. & W. Seligman & Co., New York..... | 500.00 |
| D. O. Mills, New York..... | 500.00 |
| "A Friend"..... | 300.00 |
| Clarence Whitman & Co., New York..... | 250.00 |
| Francis L. Leland, New York..... | 250.00 |
| Weld & Neville, New York..... | 250.00 |
| Charles Hathaway & Co., New York..... | 250.00 |
| Bliss, Fabyan & Co., New York..... | 250.00 |
| William Skinner Manufacturing Company, New York | 200.00 |
| The McConway & Torley Company, Pittsburg.... | 200.00 |
| John S. Lyle, New York..... | 200.00 |
| Charles D. Tenney, Cambridge, Mass..... | 150.00 |
| William C. Sheldon & Co., New York..... | 150.00 |
| R. Fulton Cutting, New York..... | 100.00 |
| Catlin & Co., New York..... | 100.00 |
| Morris K. Jesup, New York..... | 100.00 |
| F. B. Schenck, New York..... | 100.00 |
| Minot, Hooper & Co., New York..... | 100.00 |
| Edmund B. Barbour, Boston, Mass..... | 100.00 |
| Francis B. Forbes, Boston, Mass..... | 100.00 |
| Borden's Condensed Milk Company, New York.. | 100.00 |

Total..... \$9,422.00

PORTLAND, Ore., February 20.—When the Portland and Asiatic Steamship Company's steamer Numantia, Captain Faass, sails for China and Japan from this port she will have stowed among the cargo beneath the hatches about 5,000 bushels of seed wheat donated by Portland firms and individuals for the benefit of the famine and poverty stricken Chinese of the interior. E. H. Harriman personally granted free transportation for the wheat on the liner, which will leave here in about ten days, and American Consul General Rodgers at Shanghai will see that the wheat is judiciously and justly distributed.

It was the Red Cross Society that took the initiative toward lending a helping hand to the suffering Chinese by applying to Governor Chamberlain. The State's chief executive turned the matter over to T. B. Wilcox, of the Portland Flouring Mills, who immediately donated 1,000 bushels. Other firms fell in line, until the whole required quantity had been subscribed, and it will reach the Orient in time for sowing this season. Following are the donors:

| | Bushels. | Value. |
|---------------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Portland Flouring Mills Company..... | 1,000 | \$750.00 |
| Northwestern Warehouse Company..... | 500 | 375.00 |
| Balfour, Guthrie & Co..... | 500 | 375.00 |
| Kerr, Gifford & Co..... | 500 | 375.00 |
| Oregon Daily Journal..... | 100 | 75.00 |
| First National Bank..... | 500 | 375.00 |
| Merchants National Bank..... | 250 | 187.50 |
| Title Guaranty and Trust Company..... | 250 | 187.50 |
| United States National Bank..... | 250 | 187.50 |
| Oregon Trust and Savings Bank..... | 133 | 100.00 |
| <i>The Oregonian</i> | 133 | 100.00 |
| Meier & Frank Company..... | 250 | 187.50 |
| Olds, Wortman & King..... | 250 | 187.50 |
| Lipman, Wolfe & Co..... | 250 | 187.50 |
| H. H. Northrup..... | 10 | 5.00 |
| Mrs. Rhoades..... | 20 | 10.00 |
| Bank of California..... | 125 | 93.75 |
| Pacific Export Lumber Company..... | 250 | 187.50 |

The Numantia is due to arrive at the mouth of the Columbia River this afternoon, and she is expected in the harbor late tonight or the first thing in the morning. She brings 4,000 tons of coal.

WASHINGTON, February 28.—The American National Red Cross has forwarded by cable to China today for the relief of the famine sufferers of that country \$65,000, of which \$40,000 will be placed in the hands of the missionary relief committee at Chin-kiang and \$25,000 will be administered by the Shanghai Central Relief Committee. This entire remittance was received today from Dr. Louis Klopsch, publisher of the *Christian Herald*, who in his letter of transmission said:

"The advices which by letter and cable have reached this office show such a distressing condition of affairs in China

that the *Christian Herald* feels impelled to put forth a mighty effort to stay the ravages of starvation, plague and death to the full extent of its ability."

Of this remittance \$50,000 is advanced by the *Christian Herald*. To this date the Red Cross has cabled to China for the relief of famine sufferers \$110,000 and has shipped to China \$10,000 worth of flour and 7,500 bushels of seed wheat, which was in most part contributed.

The editor of the *North China News*, of Shanghai, has sent a cable to Dr. Louis Klopsch, telling of famine conditions. Dr. Klopsch has forwarded the dispatch to the State Department. It follows:

"The distribution of relief to famine sufferers by the

missionary committee, with headquarters at Chin-kiang, is proceeding smoothly. It is recognized, however, as only a drop in the ocean of needs. The area of affected district is enlarging as winter advances and destitution is longer drawn out. Daily the number of deaths is increasing, and in the interior are thousands of deaths that will never be reported.

"Authorities are sending many refugees who can travel back to the localities whence they came, promising individual relief when possible. The trouble is so few have homes to which they can return, floods having destroyed houses as well as crops. Isolated riots are reported, but all are unimportant."

FAMINE RELIEF.

ISSUED BY THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE IN CHINA.

It had been hoped that in the famine districts the severest distress would not be reached for another month, but the latest information received shows the people to be already in such a condition that it is almost impossible to imagine anything more pitiable.

Mr. Bradley, writing from Suchien on January 1, says: "The people are in much worse condition than at first supposed. Thirty per cent. must face starvation before February. Yesterday we opened up work on a public road for the poor with a capital of \$300 only. We gave out 100 tickets; there were 1,000 applicants at only 100 cash per day. The people were so eager that I came very near being hurt in the rush. Today we shall give our tickets secretly, and if funds were sufficient would give out 300 or more. I believe the scheme to make them work, even if they are weak, at a small wage is better than to give, as it will eliminate the scoundrels; and I am telegraphing to you for money."

Miss Reid, of the China Inland Mission, writes from Antung also on January 1: "The gentry of the city called on me this morning asking me to beseech you to relieve soon in some way if you can the pressing need of thousands in this district. Many have been forced home from Tsingkiangpu and are in a most dreadful condition. Some are eating the old wadding which lines their garments in places, as potato leaves are getting less, and there are no weeds left by the frost. The selling of children is becoming more frequent. A child was sold on the street here for two sheng of rice, and a girl of thirteen for \$4; even little boys are now being sold, and many are being left at the home for children. . . . Every day increases the distress, and there is very little being done. The refugees collected outside the city have returned home, but only to starve to death, many of them, before help can come. Grain is rising rapidly in price. The cry is 'What shall we do?' and 'It is all up with us.' The great desire of the gentry is that any money sent be not put into a native's hands. They say the only hope for the people is in a foreigner distributing relief.

I do hope something may be done soon; we are helpless in the face of it all. If a foreigner could come up from Shanghai, we would be glad to give every assistance we could."

Rev. M. B. Grier, writing on December 27, gives some interesting information regarding the conditions existing in the Hsuehou prefecture. "Of the eight hsien in this prefecture," he says, "the most destitute are Suchien, Suining and Pichou. Do not understand, however, that I wish to underestimate at all the needs of this hsien (Tungshan) or to create the impression that famine conditions do not exist, even to a worse degree than eight years ago. Flour, the main dependence of the people, which in ordinary years sells for twenty-five cash a catty, is now over fifty. Even when this wheat flour is mixed with flour from other cereals it will hardly be possible to sustain life on less than thirty cash per mouth per day, which will provide only thin gruel with no solid food. The situation is daily growing more critical, as the small balance of last spring's wheat is being exhausted. Stock and land are being sold or mortgaged at outrageous rates of interest. While the well-to-do farmers were able to get their seed wheat in this fall and thus have hope for the next spring crop, the poorer ones could not afford the seed for a full sowing, and thus can expect only partial relief even when the new crop comes in. This will not be till early June, so that there is at best before us a period of five solid months of ever increasing distress. As there is official sale of grain here at about cost price, it would seem to be best to send money, at least for the present, as long as grain is to be had."

The district from Tsingkiangpu southward is thus described in a letter dated January 2 by the Rev. A. R. Saunders (C. I. M. Yangchou): "First as to Yangchou. A little more than a week ago I visited the refugee camps on the north side of this city, and after counting the straw huts in three out of seven enclosures, and allowing five persons to each hut, I calculated that there are at least

50,000 refugees here. They looked as if they were fairly well cared for, and none of them bore signs of having been actually without food. During the tenth Chinese moon the responsibility of feeding this homeless multitude was upon the local gentry, and it must be admitted that they cared for them as well as they might be expected to do under the circumstances. For the eleventh and twelfth moons the care of them will lie with the salt commissioner. After the Chinese New Year will be the time when outside help will be more urgently needed.

"From our missionaries at Tsingkiangpu, and from native sources as well, I understand there are at the very least 500,000 refugees gathered in camps around that city, and while money at the rate of 30 cash per person a day has been distributed, no food has as yet been given out, and the people have had to buy eatables as best they could with the money allowed. It is to be hoped that foodstuffs will soon be sent up there in sufficient quantity that its distribution may be commenced at once.

"At Antung, where the famine conditions are about the worst, almost the whole farming population have gone to the encampments at Yangchou, Tsingkiangpu or outside their own city, where a large piece of empty ground is covered with the mats of refugees. The only exceptions are a few of the better class landowners and the Christians (about 150 persons, who have been cared for by the missionaries). About three weeks ago Antung was barely saved from a serious riot, owing to the indiscreet actions of three native deputies said to have been sent from Shanghai with relief. The story is too long to enter into in this letter, but it brings me to the general subject of famine distribution. It is my opinion that, however good the intentions of our missionary friends are, this work can only be done by the officials. This famine differs from most others in that the refugees are all gathering in immense camps, and when you think that in Tsingkiangpu alone you have a great army of over 500,000 people, it is a multitude difficult to deal with, and the work of famine relief will have to be carried out with the utmost care in order to prevent a rising of the refugees. I would strongly urge that high officials be appointed to personally oversee this work, and that it should not be left to the care of any of the great army of out of employment men of official rank, nor should it be left to the gentry, who, after all, have not much power behind them. A missionary residing in Antung writes me on this point, and says that it would be a great mistake for them to undertake the general relief work, and what is true there is also true of all districts. We trust that you will be guided in the manner of distribution, and let me assure you of my own and fellow missionaries' warmest sympathy in this great work. The need is great, and we trust the funds needed will be forthcoming."

The committee's circular letter (already published) outlining its scheme of relief work will have made it clear ere this that it recognized from the outset that it is the Government alone that can deal with such masses of humanity as are congregated in the refugee camps, and that what it contemplated is the relief of distress chiefly in outlying districts; and the necessity for such work

is made clear by Miss Reid's letter above, which demonstrates the cruelty of the policy of dispersing the refugee camps without first organizing systematized relief in the places to which the refugees are sent.

The following letter has been received:

SUCHIEN, December 31, 1906.

Your effort to relieve the distress here is greatly appreciated by all the gentry and people who have heard of it. You will certainly be the means of saving thousands who otherwise must perish.

I met thirty-one people on a road this morning; twenty-three of these had changed color from hunger. Last week we scraped together \$200 and proposed to help a few of the neediest. Not daring to make a present of the money, we hired several of the most desperate to crack stones. The next day twenty-five were pounding, although it was understood that we were only giving 100 cash per day (two-thirds ordinary wage). The third morning when the doors were opened the crowd fell in. The foreigner who had 100 tickets to distribute to the workers was rushed and crushed till he fainted. This was at dawn, before people, it was supposed, would be up. The hundreds of hungry faces waited around for hours, then went quietly away—some crying. Note! This was not a scramble for gifts, but for the opportunity to work at two-thirds ordinary wage.

These conditions must only grow worse; without some steady income multitudes must perish. It must be evident that to support these people by gifts is out of the question, for the desperate must number several millions.

I write to ask whether or not you can encourage some public works.

The proposed Chinkiang-Tientsin railroad must pass through this portion of the province. Can the authorities be prevailed upon to build the section for Shantung to Tsingkiangpu this coming spring?

There is no doubt but that 50,000 men could be found in ten days to shovel dirt.

This portion of the line has few cuts and few bridges, only banking. The very work that these laborers could most easily do, and do with their own implements. It would get the work done quickly, provide wages for a starving people, and the gift of wages at this time would make the railway and its owners popular as nothing else could do.

Popular opinion would force the right of way now with as little friction as would be possible at any time. The freezing of the ground will not embarrass the work after March 1. Some work needs to be done in repairing the canal level, but this is not very much. The Haichou-West Railway mentioned in an interview with the viceroy would be right through the needy section.

Can you delegate some of your influential men to push this side of the relief question? If public work can be provided for 100,000 men it will be a veritable boon. The condition of the people waiting, and without work is deplorable in the last degree.

If I were at home now (I am traveling out) my col-

leagues and the natives would, I know, be in hearty sympathy with any effort to provide work.

(Signed) B. C. PATTERSON.

The sum of £8 has been received toward the famine fund from the Transvaal. Of this amount £7 was subscribed by some fifty Christian coolies at work on the Glen Deep and other mines of the East Rand, who contributed from 40 cents to \$10 each.

The price quoted by the successful tenderer for 10,000 bags of flour for famine relief purposes was Tls. 1.23 per bag.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MINUTES.

At a meeting of the executive committee of the Central China famine relief fund held on January 14, the chairman stated that the circular letter, addressed to the missionaries in the famine area and which had been approved of at the last meeting, had already been sent as directed. Ten thousand bags of flour had been purchased and forwarded to five centres. Five hundred dollars had been sent to Suchien and Tls. 1,000 to Hsüchoufu, the money in each case to be used in famine relief works. It was stated that \$500 would provide work for 300 persons for a fortnight, and that this amount of money would provide food for 1,500 persons. The missionaries had stated that on the list of persons receiving relief from this fund there were no Christians. Tenders were asked for 10,000 bags of flour, this amount to be sent forward at two different times. One thousand dollars per month was voted to Dr. Bradley, of Suchien. The same amount was voted to Antung, unless other relief should be provided in the future. Form of a telegram to be sent to the two stations was approved. Thanks were ordered to be sent to Lee Mongkow, of Victoria, who had just sent gold \$2,010. The treasurer reported that up to noon of the 14th the amount of money contributed was \$83,546.58 and Tls. 50,183.68. The committee also voted to send an extra \$500 to Yaowan, in addition to the flour which had already been dispatched. The committee adjourned at 5:45 p. m.

GILBERT REID, }
SHEN TUN-HO, } Honorary Secretaries.

NOTES ISSUED BY THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

Rev. Père Thomas, S. J., has sent from Yaowan a report to his mission here on the conditions existing in three of the five sub-prefectures under his spiritual charge—Peichou, Suining and Suchien, all in the northernmost portion of this province. This letter, which has been kindly communicated to the committee, states that these three sub-prefectures, walled cities and market towns apart, are composed of villages containing thirty, forty or fifty families each, and of some 2,000 smaller villages containing only ten families each. Very little commerce being carried on in these districts, the inhabitants

are entirely dependent on agriculture for their living, and the floods have swept away the last harvest and rendered all subsequent tilling impossible. In the small villages all are absolutely destitute; in the larger of, say, thirty families, there are only two which are still living on their own means, while ten have made their way south as refugees. Of the remaining eighteen, eight can by selling their all—land, trees and cattle—eke out a bare existence till next harvest, over five months hence. The other ten are condemned to die of hunger, if no one comes to their assistance, for they have sold all they had to sell. Each family comprises five or six individuals, and Père Thomas works out that the number of the famine stricken in each of these sub-prefectures is not less than 200,000. He computes that at present prices at least \$2 a month per head will be needed to keep the people alive; this will mean a minimum expenditure of \$1,200,000 a month for five months. Clothes are urgently needed, almost all who saved any having pawned them to buy food. Flour costs 50 to 55 cash, rice 45 to 50 cash and a kind of cake made of bean flour 30 cash per pound; and it is necessary to allow to each person a little more than a pound of either food-stuff per diem. "Yaowan," he says, "is ordinarily a large food distributing centre on the Grand Canal, people coming 60 or 80 li to buy their supplies here; but today there is only grain enough for another month. And after that (?) I have been assured that some will come from outports. But no one knows what may happen. Bad weather, snow, etc., can retard or prevent things getting here, and in that case the state of affairs will be frightful."

Rev. Mr. Junkin telegraphs, also from Yaowan, on the 10th instant: "Just returned from visit to Peichou district. Hundreds of thousands destitute. This district, larger than Suchien and as needy, should not be overlooked. Both districts are largely dependent on grain from Shantung, but without official protection it cannot be brought across border. There is great complaint because anyone attempting to bring grain across is plundered and no punishment is inflicted. (It will be remembered that Père Thomas spoke in a letter about a fortnight ago of brigandage being already rife.) Can you not do something to assure protection to small and large traders? Grain is advancing in price daily. If it be not shipped here speedily conditions will soon be terrible. Multitudes more will be fleeing south to make conditions there worse. Merchants say need grain quickly."

A pathetic appeal by wire was received the same day from the native educational committee of the same place for speedy shipment of grain, as "there is an absolute dearth of foodstuff, and the people have nothing before them but death."

But in the present condition of the Grand Canal grain shipped now could not possibly reach Yaowan before the end of this month, and how many deaths such delay may mean no one can tell. The native authorities have, therefore, been addressed with a view to the suppression of brigandage, and a remittance of money is being telegraphed for the purchase of grain meanwhile.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF CHINA.

THE ANNUAL REPORT.

The following is the annual report of the association read at the meeting on Thursday afternoon, December 27:

Your committee have the honor to present the following brief review of the association's interests during the year now closing: There have been ten meetings of the executive committee. The regular meeting place has been at the offices of the British-American Tobacco Company, to whom our thanks are due for their courtesy. The membership list has been increased by the addition of fifteen non-resident and seventeen resident members; there have been, however, two losses, one by withdrawal and one by death (that of Captain Roberts), making then the present number of members 207. There is only one change to be noted in the personnel of the executive committee, namely, the resignation of Dr. C. F. S. Lincoln on his leaving for the United States on furlough, and the election of Dr. F. L. Hawks-Pott to take his place. An informal farewell was given to Consul General Rodgers in July on the eve of his departure for Washington on a busy furlough for the promotion of the interests committed to his care at this post. The urgent need for more suitable housing for the American consulate general and the other official establishments of our Government in Shanghai led to the preparation by your committee of a letter, addressed to the Government at Washington, which was circulated and generally signed by Americans in Shanghai and vicinity, and forwarded to the President, in support of Mr. Rodgers' efforts in this behalf. We are happy to report that American mails coming by steamers which linger long at Japanese ports are now forwarded from Yokohama by the most expeditious service—the Post Office Department at Washington having responded most considerably to our representations made in support of the consul general's recommendations in this matter last year. A great American enterprise of peculiar significance to East Asia was brought to successful completion this year, namely, the Commercial Pacific Cable. The event was celebrated with a complimentary dinner given under the auspices of this association on April 25 to Mr. George Gray Ward, vice-president and general manager of the company.

The year has been signalized by an important forward step in the extra-territorial jurisdiction of the United States, namely, the organization of a United States court for China. This measure relieves consular officials of an onerous burden and brings the United States into line with the policy of the British Government in this respect. The Hon. L. R. Wilfley, Attorney General for the Philippine Islands, was appointed by the President as judge of the new court, and arrived in Shanghai in July. An informal reception was at that time tendered him under the auspices of the association. The other officers of the court are: Mr. A. Bassett, attorney general; Mr. O. GAL 2—The American Association of China.

K. Leonard, marshal, and Mr. F. E. Hinckley, Ph. D.,

clerk. Some modifications in the law fixing the jurisdiction of this court have been recommended by your committee to the Government at Washington looking to relieving the consul general at Shanghai from all judicial functions. We have reason to expect favorable action on this matter. On December 18, Consul General Rodgers and Judge Wilfley having returned from Washington, a complimentary dinner was given by the association to them and the staff of the new court. The dinner was a success in every way, and full particulars will appear in our forthcoming *Journal*. Our national holidays have been duly observed, and full reports will be found in the *Journal*. In general trade conditions with the United States the year has been for the most part unsatisfactory. Some cursory notes on the trade in the major articles dealt in will be embodied in our January *Journal*.

One of the subjects which have engaged the especial attention of your committee this year is the condition of trade in Manchuria. From the considerable correspondence published it may be seen that the prospects in that region are generally improving. The question of the mixed court jurisdiction and procedure, which seemed to be at a critical stage a year ago, has not yet been settled. Educational work carried on among the Chinese under foreign auspices, whether missionary or otherwise, has been subjected to some disquietude by the reported action of the ministry of education, which has lately been established, with a new system of regulations, denying to such institutions the privileges of government recognition as a part of the general system of education. No formal pronouncement on the subject has been published, however.

One of the most notable movements of the year in China has been the anti-opium movement. The consistent policy of the United States in discountenancing the opium trade made it fitting that a prominent part in the present aggressive movement should be taken by an American missionary—the Rev. H. C. Du Bose, of Soochow. The agitation gives promise of much positive result. The anti-footbinding movement in China has passed a notable stage of its development. The foreign friends of China who have been active in promoting this reform, among whom the name of Mrs. Archibald Little is most widely known, have now enlisted the co-operation of Chinese leaders so strongly in the movement that foreign guidance seems no longer necessary. At a public meeting on December 16 the entire management was handed over to the Chinese organization, which will henceforth carry on the work.

Your committee has co-operated with other representative bodies in bringing the Kiangpoh famine distress to the attention of the public at home by means of a telegram and letter sent through the committee of the American Asiatic Association in New York. There are a large number of Americans residing within the famine area who have signified their willingness to co-operate in the distribution of funds. The committee that has been formed

is a representative one, composed of persons of different nationalities, and we are confident that the funds that are collected in China and contributed in the homeland will go to the actual relief of those who are in distress. American merchants and others have been prompt in subscribing to the fund, while the President of the United States has signified his willingness to secure assistance from our fellow-men, either in supply of food-stuffs or in money, to be sent to the famine district through the committee that has been formed in Shanghai. Your committee are of opinion that a better service of American telegrams might be secured in the Shanghai daily papers, and would recommend that the matter be commended to the attention of the incoming committee.

On September 1 an imperial edict was published notifying the people that constitutional government would, within a few years, be introduced into the country. This edict was the result of the reports furnished by the five imperial commissioners who had been sent abroad to Europe and America to study the institutions of the West with a view to the inauguration of government reforms in China. The commissioners brought favorable reports of what they had seen, and recommended to the Emperor and Empress Dowager to establish constitutional government in China at an early date. As was to be expected, much opposition was encountered by the advocates of reform, and party lines were soon tightly drawn. But the liberals carried the day, so far as the issuing of the edict was concerned. When the edict became known throughout the empire there was general rejoicing everywhere. In many of the cities and larger towns public meetings were held by the gentry and people, where congratulations and felicitations were exchanged over the advent of the new era, which it was thought would bring with it many blessings to the country at large. Not that the people understood very clearly just what "li-hsien" (the Chinese for constitutional government) meant. But it was generally supposed to mean something very good for everybody, perhaps a general remission of taxes, or the escape from paying land rent or the suppression, if not the complete ousting, of the foreigners, etc., and many were the rejoicings of the people in anticipation of the glorious time when the promised "li-hsien" should become *un fait accompli*. Since the publication of that decree many drastic changes and reforms have been made in the present government system, preparatory, it is said, to the introduction of real constitutional government. Old boards have been abolished or amalgamated, and new ones established in bewildering profusion, with long lists of names not understood, and, in many cases, even unheard of by the people in general. Many hundred officials have been thrown out of employment by the sweeping readjustments under the new régime, and it has become a serious question what to do with them. The proposition to send them out among the provinces as expectant officials is received with dismay by the governors and viceroys, who already have more of such unemployed hangers-on than they know what to do with. In the meantime three parties seem to be pulling against one another in the northern

capital. First, the conservatives who want to hold on to the old régime and who have much to lose and but little to gain under the drastic changes proposed by the reformers. Second, the reformers who are working to reform the government, correct widespread abuses and bring the country into line with Western nations, so that China may be in position to take her rightful place among the nations of the earth, able to maintain her sovereign rights against all comers. Third, there is the revolutionary party who appear to be working for the overthrow of the present Manchu dynasty in order to set up a purely Chinese dynasty in its place. With this party are associated, more or less closely, many socialists and anarchists, whose object is the destruction of all government, together with all symbols of authority, in order to establish so called "personal freedom." This, of course, is but another name for license and anarchy and misrule which would end in the destruction of organized society and the reign of mob law. These changes in the government are but one symptom of a deep and far reaching revolution, which is going on all over the country. Educational, social, moral and religious changes are moving at a rapid rate, and it is beyond the power of any prophet to tell whither the country is tending. It seems inevitable that a mighty upheaval in the whole structure of the social fabric in China is coming in the near future.

Tea Standards for 1907.

The Board of Tea Experts at its annual conference has adopted the same standards for 1907 as those which prevailed in 1906, running through twelve numbers, as follows: No. 1, Formosa Oolong; 2, Foochow Oolong; 3, Congou; 4, Ceylon (use for India); 5, Pinsuey green; 6, Country green; 7, Japan pan fired (use for sun dried); 8, Japan basket fired; 9, Japan dust or fannings; 10, Caper (use for scented Orange Pekoe); 11, Canton Oolong; 12, Scented Canton.

As teas are imported subject to the national tea inspection act, and are said not to be subject to the food and drugs act, no action was taken by the board on tea coloring before import. The board is of the opinion that repacked teas will not have to be labeled as containing coloring matter.

Cottons in Vogue in China.

The Austro-Hungarian Consul at Shanghai reports that black Italians and fancy Venetians (cottons) have grown in popularity in that market in 1906, especially among the poorer classes who bought them for their silky appearance in place of the more expensive silk fabrics, and the consul at Tientsin reports that the figured-colored satins are now in request at that place instead of the formerly much-demanded printed calicoes, while in North China a growing preference is being shown for black material, with silky luster for linings. Cretonnes for upholstering and hangings are also selling well in North China.

TEXTILE OPPORTUNITIES IN MANCHURIA.

Special Agent W. A. Graham Clark, after a study of the field, concludes that Manchuria at present would hardly afford a market for textile products other than what it now uses, though it can be expected to take an increasing amount of these and gradually to use some finer goods. Samples of the goods named can be obtained from the Bureau of Manufactures as soon as they arrive from China. Mr. Clark details the textile requirements, with suggestions for adaptations by American mills, as follows:

As shown by the customs returns, the textile demand in Manchuria is for sheeting, drills and jeans, gray and white shirting, and for yarn. There is also a small demand for T cloths, for black Italians, Turkey red shirtings, prints, dyed shirtings and brocades, velvets and velveteens, handkerchiefs and towels. The following imports of cotton piece goods at Newchwang show the trend of trade in these lines for the years mentioned:

| Description | 1896 | 1900 | 1903 | 1904 | 1905 |
|---|----------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Shirtings, gray, plain: | | | | | |
| American.....pieces..... | 79,108 | 62,548 | 38,470 | 85,385 | 79,216 |
| English.....do..... | | | 95,317 | 63,867 | 109,730 |
| Japanese.....do..... | | | 5,440 | 1,500 | 8,000 |
| Sheetings, gray, plain: | | | | | |
| American.....do..... | 376,105 | 426,113 | 1,063,089 | 1,140,620 | 2,252,165 |
| English.....do..... | 27,352 | 2,792 | 5,200 | 6,004 | 10,905 |
| Japanese.....do..... | 1,402 | 1,496 | 71,100 | 2,280 | 60,286 |
| Shirtings, white, plain: | | | | | |
| Drills: | | | | | |
| American.....do..... | 246,908 | 118,525 | 569,625 | 442,201 | 974,557 |
| Dutch.....do..... | 2,925 | 210 | 110 | 600 | |
| English.....do..... | 9,980 | | 480 | 7,870 | 2,115 |
| Japanese.....do..... | 360 | | 3,100 | 3,950 | 11,862 |
| Jeans: | | | | | |
| American.....do..... | 700 | 18,710 | 92,410 | 80,350 | 151,023 |
| English.....do..... | 8,268 | 2,230 | 25,310 | 58,240 | 33,468 |
| T-Cloths | | | | | |
| Chintzes and plain cotton prints.....do..... | 33,250 | 10,870 | 4,060 | 4,125 | 7,983 |
| Dyed shirtings, figured, brocaded and spotted.....do..... | 14,571 | 26,968 | 18,000 | 3,365 | 24,962 |
| Dyed shirtings and sheetings, plain.....do..... | 630 | 2,496 | 100 | 1,892 | 1,207 |
| Turkey red shirtings and cambrics.....do..... | 2,252 | 959 | 2,829 | 3,752 | 8,387 |
| Velvets and velveteens.....do..... | 8,852 | 5,465 | 12,535 | 6,648 | 26,460 |
| | 5,804 | 2,524 | 5,772 | 2,900 | 12,102 |
| Total cotton cloth imported.....do..... | 851,984 | 708,355 | 2,043,454 | 1,985,196 | 3,890,769 |
| American piece goods, imported from Shanghai.....do..... | 567,670 | 532,890 | 1,555,720 | 1,568,000 | 3,230,375 |

This shows the large proportion of American goods received via Shanghai. A small amount of American goods also comes direct, and from other ports, such as Chefoo, so that there is a very small amount of foreign piece goods other than American entering this port.

The other manufactures of cotton imported are handkerchiefs, towels and yarn, and the amounts for the years mentioned have been as follows:

| Description | 1896 | 1900 | 1903 | 1904 | 1905 |
|-------------------------------|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|
| Handkerchiefs.....dozens..... | 20,470 | 57,546 | 49,827 | 83,184 | 72,417 |
| Towels.....do..... | 90,846 | 48,368 | 156,790 | 172,750 | 251,380 |
| Cotton yarn: | | | | | |
| English.....pounds..... | 615 | 186 | 87 | 185 | 243 |
| Indian.....do..... | 157,867 | 32,799 | 148,168 | 123,422 | 117,651 |
| Japanese.....do..... | 1,158 | 8,861 | 29,561 | 32,763 | 51,190 |

a Pound=128½ pounds.

Of the sheetings and drills imported, the United States has had an almost exclusive monopoly, but this is now

threatened by the progressive business methods of a new competitor. The American sheetings and drills are pure sized, which fact is well known by the shrewd Chinese merchant, and it has given the American cloths such a popularity that English sheetings and drills, which are usually sized heavily, have not been able to compete. Manchuria being a cold climate most of the year, the people dress in padded cloths made of two thicknesses of cloth with cotton sewed in between. Sheeting is often used for the inside and drills for the outside thickness. Both trousers and coats are so padded, and this padded cloth has become the distinctive dress of the northern Chinaman, and in winter they usually wear five or six coats one over the other. Sometimes so many coats are worn that the men can hardly lift their arms. These cotton-padded cloths are much preferred to woolen clothes, and the latter have not been able to get much footing.

American sheetings and drills have heretofore sold themselves on this market, their widespread use simply being due to their quality and the fact that they filled a need that could not be supplied elsewhere, but hereafter the American monopoly can only be held by Americans in Manchuria pushing the sale of American goods. Of these goods imported the great majority, probably 80 per cent. of the total, are 2.85 and 3 yard goods of about 48 by 48 average construction. There are also some 3.25 and 3.50 yard, and a few 4 and 4.50 yard goods.

In jeans the United States, while not having as absolute a monopoly as on sheetings and drills, yet has over three-fourths of the trade. This is due to the popularity of a single brand of American jeans that is practically the only one sold here. This "chop," the well known "Beaver" brand of the Pepperell Mills, is so popular that it has been imitated by English mills, as shown by two samples forwarded to the Bureau of Manufactures. The "chop" and

wording on the American and on the two English cloths are as follows:

| | | |
|--|---|---|
| —Beaver— Fine Jeans Pepperell Mills, Biddeford, Maine. Trade-Mark Registered. Manufactured in United States of America. 30 yds. | —Beaver— Fine Jeans, Marlborough Mills, Manchester, England. Geo. & R. Dewhurst, Ltd. Manufactured for Brand Bros. & Co. 30 yds. | —Beaver— Very best Jeans Pure cloth, Superior cotton, Sole Importers: Munsterberg & Co., Shanghai. 30 yds. |
|--|---|---|

The American cloth is 96 by 64 ends to the inch and 29 inches wide, while the English cloth is 92 by 64 and 29½ inches wide. The English cloth is sized a little heavier than the American. At some places I found the two selling even, but at most places the keen-eyed merchants have seen by the difference in spacing of the letters that the two cloths are not the same make, and though the lettering is all Greek to them, and the "chop," the clue to their purchases, a "beaver" in this instance, having been exactly imitated, they still give the American the preference by about 10 cents a piece. There are other jeans on the market, but the "beaver" chop practically dominates the trade in this line in Manchuria.

In gray shirting America in 1905 supplied Manchuria with 79,216 pieces, England supplied 100,730 pieces, and the Japanese 8,000 pieces. There is no reason why this field cannot be controlled by America as well in sheetings. These gray shirtings are 38, 38½ and 39 inches wide and 38 to 39 yards long, with a few 36 inch 40 yard goods, also classed as shirtings. They are quoted not by the yards to the pound, but always by the pounds to the piece. They run from about 7 to 11 pounds to the piece, which would correspond to 5½ to 3.65 yards to the pound. Constructions vary from 14 by 11 to 18 by 20 per quarter inch. In Manchuria the principal gray shirting used seems to be an 8¾ pound (= 4.65 yards to pound), 38½ inches wide and 38½ yards long. The construction was sixty warp and fifty-six filling ends per inch. This was selling at Newchwang November 1, 1906, at 2.2 taels per piece, which equals \$1.67 gold per piece, or, say, 4.34 cents per yard. At Kirin, on November 12, this same piece was selling at \$4 in Kirin small coin, which equals \$1.82 gold per piece, or, say, 4.73 cents per pound.

These goods are sold among the Chinese on the "chop" reputation, so that to give list of prices for different weights would be of no value, as one 8¾ pound piece might be of Galley 2—Textile Opportunities in Manchuria.... 0 k6 the same value as another 7 pound piece, depending entirely on the varying construction and make of the goods and the standing of the "chop."

Nearly all of these gray shirtings have a heading woven in the piece at the end. This is not a colored heading such as is used for T-cloths and Mexicans, but is made by using a different number of filling for a few picks, usually about twice as coarse as the regular filling, and also running in a few picks of tinsel. For instance, in the 8¾ pound piece mentioned there were six repeats or filling stripes, consisting of four coarse and one tinsel pick each, and then there was a space of 2 inches of the regular filling and then eight picks of coarse filling. This is the usual style of heading, the first of coarse filling and tinsel being about an inch

wide and the other, 2 inches away, of a few picks of coarse filling about one-quarter inch wide.

Gray shirtings are used for all the purposes that fine sheeting is used—for clothes, linings, burial cloths, under-clothing, lining the inner side of quilts, etc. Some are also oiled and used in place of window glass. This is quite an extensive practice, much being used as oiled paper. Another use is for mosquito netting, etc. All used for the outer clothing are dyed, and statements I have made on dyeing sheetings apply also to this.

In 1905 there were imported into Newchwang 125,261 pieces of white shirting, of a value of 461,011 haikwan taels, or, say, \$357,736 gold. These were not classified according to country, but were nearly all English. The term "white shirtings" covers a wide range, from pure sized, close woven, high grade goods to others that are simply China clay and starch stretched on a framework of yarn. These goods come 32 to 37 inches wide, and in 40 yard lengths. They are used to a small extent for outer clothing after being dyed—for stockings, lining of padded bedclothing, etc., the stiff finish being also used largely for hangings, screens, etc. White shirtings are not sold on their weight, as with gray shirtings, but are graded, according to sizing, width, finish and general appearance. For this reason prices would be of no value unless samples were also sent, but prices range from 4 cents a yard up to as high as 15 cents. The 4 cent goods are clay-filled rags, while the 15 cent goods are high grade shirtings. The pure sized are preferred for clothing, as they take the dye more readily.

THE T-CLOTH TRADE.

There is a small business done in T-cloths, and the Japanese have also begun to introduce these, but a T-cloth is practically a narrow sheeting, and the people prefer the full-width sheetings. T-cloths are said to have been so called from the fact that they were originally exchanged for Chinese tea, hence the name tea cloth or T-cloth. They are usually 32 inches wide by 24 yards long; others are 36 inches wide by 24 yards, while still others, classed as T-cloths, are 32 inches wide by 40 yards long. Most of the 32 inch 24 yard class imported into China are Indian, while of the other two kinds English make largely predominates. Very little comes from America, and none of this gets to Manchuria. Altogether, in 1905, Manchuria imported only 7,983 pieces of T-cloth, of which 7,608 were 32 inch widths, and only 375 of the 36 inch width. These goods, like Mexicans, have a colored heading which varies from one-half to 1¾ inches wide.

The T-cloth that is most largely used in Manchuria is a 7 pound, 32 inch, 24 yard piece that has sixty-eight warp ends and seventy-two filling picks per inch. This piece was selling in Kirin at \$3.20 a piece, in Kirin small coin, which is about 6 cents a yard gold. The head ends on these, as on gray shirtings, are many and various, and are frequently made to order to suit a particular merchant. As an illustration, however, one of the headings most frequently seen was as follows: Purple, four picks filling; white, four; purple, four; white, two; red, ten; green, six; yellow, ten; green, two; yellow, ten; green, six; red, ten;

white, two; purple, four; white, four, and purple, four, the whole being $1\frac{1}{8}$ inches wide.

ITALIANS, CHINTZES AND PRINTS.

The ordinary fast-black cotton Italian, which is smooth and close woven, has from its lasting qualities and dressy appearance quite a popularity among the northern Chinese and is increasing in use. These are mostly made from Egyptian cotton and are rather too high in price, so the people in Manchuria, probably in other places also, are making imitation black Italians by dyeing sheeting and shirting black, the color "dzu ching" (noted under head of dyeing), and then starching and given a finish with sesamum seed oil. This gives the cloth the smooth, shiny appearance peculiar to the black Italian, and cloth so dyed is very popular. I have forwarded samples of this to the Bureau of Manufactures, and think it would be a profitable experiment for some mills to dye cloth after this pattern and ship out here. A large number of the people use trousers colored the blue "dzung lan" shade, and the outer coat of this an oiled finish black "dzu ching" color.

In chintzes and plain cotton prints there is a good demand. The importations into Newchwang for the past five years have been 17,166, 39,648, 18,000, 3,365 and 24,962 pieces, respectively. This does not show any big increases (except the natural contrast between 1904 and 1905), but, according to the merchants, there is an increasing demand for these goods. Of course, there are many kinds of prints used, but the ordinary print cloth, 28 inches or under, is not used on this market, and the 30 inch width is the one in popular use. This same fact was noted in Japan; and if our mills want their share of the print-cloth business of these markets, they will have to make and ship mostly 30 inch widths. The usual length is 24 yards, and the weights $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 yards a pound. A good portion of this business is printed T-cloths, 32 inch, 24 yards. Print cloths are used mostly for women's wear, though also for many other purposes, such as bedding, curtains, etc. Prices run from 7 to 12 cents a yard for ordinary market prints.

Velvets and velveteens amounted to 488,091 yards in 1905, as against 115,979 yards in 1904, and 230,872 in 1903. They are used for clothing as upper coats by well to do merchants, for collars and borders, for the upper part of native boots, etc. These come in varying widths and lengths, but are mostly either 22 or 27 inches wide and 38 to 40 yards long. They come in blue, red, violet, maroon, etc., but the solid black is the color most favored.

Turkey red shirtings and cambrics, while a small import as yet, are increasing in popularity, and the imports were, for 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904 and 1905, respectively, 2,530, 7,073, 12,555, 6,649 and 26,460 pieces. These are used mostly for clothing for women, though also used as linings, curtains, etc. T-cloth and shirtings are dyed locally, but those dyed at the mill are more uniform in color and command a higher price. These cloths are sold mostly in the 32 inch widths, some 30 to 36 inches, and in 24, 30 and 40 yard lengths. Prices range from 5 to 10 cents a yard.

The highest priced goods in Manchuria today are not the

American standard sheetings and drills, but the Chinese native nankeen. At Kirin, for instance, "Buckshead," the high grade American sheeting, 2.85 yards, 48 by 48, 36 inches wide, was selling at \$7 a piece in Kirin small coins, unbranded, $17\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, 48 by 56 construction, sold on same market for 10 cents in Kirin small coins, per Chinese big feet, which is approximately 7.8 cents a yard, gold. The Chinese cloth, $17\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, was therefore selling for practically the same per yard length as the American cloth 36 inches wide.

The American cloth is shipped to Shanghai and thence to Manchuria, while the Chinese cloth is also shipped to Shanghai and thence to Manchuria, the majority of it being so imported from outside the province. Definite figures are not available, as this cloth comes in through the native customs, and so does not show in the published maritime customs report, but, according to the large Chinese merchants, one-third of all cloth used in China is nankeen. A large quantity of yarn is imported and cloth woven therefrom on the hand looms of Manchuria, though not to the extent that obtains in some of the other northern provinces. In fact, as has been stated, in winter all North China is one vast weave shed, and the magnitude of this weaving on hand looms, in the homes and in small weaving shops, is enormous.

Most of the nankeen imported into Manchuria comes from Shanghai, and, though some is made of Indian and Japanese yarns, the finest qualities are made of the best grades of the cotton grown in the neighborhood of Shanghai, where an excellent, clean and even running cotton is produced. The cloth so produced is soft but yet very strong. It is stronger than sheetings and not as stiff as drills and is a very well wearing piece of goods. It is used for clothing in place of sheetings, is largely used to make the Chinese shoe and has also a wide use for patching. Being soft, yet strong, it is the best material to use to mend a torn drill coat, and some Chinamen are all patches.

This cloth is shipped in bales of various sizes, but the bales are usually round and about 2 feet in diameter, covered with a piece of the widest cloth wrapped around the outside and half-inch sisal rope tied crosswise. The bales usually contain about forty pieces, approximately 38 Chinese big feet, or $22\frac{1}{2}$ yards long, which gives a total yardage of 900. Some bales have thirty pieces, with a yardage of approximately 675 feet. At Newchwang a bale of nankeen is given as 253 "chang," and one "chang" was stated to be 10 Chinese small feet, which is approximately 1.2 English feet. This would give a bale yardage of about 1,012 yards, but the majority of the bales are not so large. Each bale usually contains twelve or fifteen different kinds of cloth, not, as with our bales, one kind only.

PROFIT IN NANKEENS.

The range is shown by the following five representative pieces I picked out of an open bale at Kwanchengtze, and samples of which have been forwarded the bureau of manufactures:

Chinese nankeen:

- No. 1. $17\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, 48 warp, and 56 filling picks per inch; price at Kirin 7.8 cents gold a yard; if dyed red, 11.7 cents a yard; if light indigo blue, 12.3 cents a yard; if dark indigo blue, 15.6 cents a yard.
- No. 2. $18\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, 40x40; price 7 cents a yard.
- No. 3. $16\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, 40x32; price $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents a yard.
- No. 4. $16\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, 32x28; price $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents a yard.
- No. 5. 16 inches wide, 24x16; price 3 cents a yard.

At these prices there should be a profit in making this cloth in America. Low grade cotton cannot be used in the finer qualities of this nankeen, such as No. 1, where the cotton should be at least strict middling. It is well known that in hand carding and weaving, if carefully done, there is less tendering and injury to the fibre than in machine processes, and for this reason it may be difficult to make duplicates that are as strong and yet not put in so much twist as to destroy the softness and pliability that is one of the characteristics of this cloth. I have forwarded a full sized piece of No. 1, so tests can be made for strength by those interested in this cloth.

The Japanese have thoroughly studied the field in Manchuria and know what will pay best, therefore it is interesting to see on what they branch out. Their main work is being put in to extend the sale of Japanese sheetings and yarn. Next to this they are spending the most efforts in trying to enlarge the sale of an imitation nankeen made in Japan. Speaking with the agent of a large Japanese house he said there was good money in the nankeen market, but that his imitation nankeen had not found favor, owing to the raw material being too harsh. They were using Indian cotton, while the best Chinese nankeen was being made out of superior Tungchow cotton; but he went on to state that they expected to do a large business along this line, even if they had to use all American cotton to do it.

The Japanese are experimenting in shipping both dyed nankeens and dyed sheetings, and are even going further and shipping in lots of finished dyed and padded cloths ready for use.

Hand loom weaving is not carried on as extensively in the three provinces of Manchuria as in other provinces of northern China, possibly due to the fact that the most of the great long distance cart traffic in winter employs the time of the men, while the women have to look out for the homes; also possibly as a result of the unsettled conditions in Manchuria due to three wars. There is still a large business done, however, in the sale of yarn, and if there was an American agent here to keep the mills in touch with the market there are times that it would pay well. Ordinarily the higher priced raw material and labor of the American yarn would hardly allow competition with the Japanese and Indian.

Practically the entire yarn trade of Manchuria is in the hands of the Japanese firm of Mitsui Bussan Kaisha (Mitsui Products Company). The proportion of Japanese yarn is increasing, but the larger portion of the yarn is still Indian. In 1905, at Newchwang, one-fourth of the yarn was Japanese and three-fourths Indian, but a large amount is being brought in at Dalny (there were 3,387

bales in September and 1,530 bales in October direct from Japan), so that now the total proportion of Japanese is nearly equal to that of the Indian. The Indian yarn, which is nearly all handled by Mitsui, is bought by them in Shanghai and Hongkong, and also some direct from Bombay. There seems to be but two numbers used in Manchuria—10s single, which is mostly Indian, and 16s single, which is Japanese. The natives described them as "in" and "out" twist yarn, the Indian yarn having the ordinary right hand twist, while the Japanese yarn has a left hand twist. By right hand twist is meant twist that slopes up to the right like the threads on an ordinary screw, and left hand twist is the opposite, when the twist slopes up to the left. The largest majority of the yarn seems to be 10s. At Tieling, the big yarn market, the prices quoted November 5, 1906, were:

| | Gold per pound |
|---|----------------------|
| "Tea carrier" chop of Graves Cotton & Co. | |
| No. 10s.—\$108 Mexican a bale— | \$0.15 $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| "Bridge and boat" chop of Currimbhoy | |
| No. 10s.—\$114 Mexican a bale— | \$0.16 $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| "Blue fish" chop of Kanegafuchi mills. | |
| No. 10s.—\$115 Mexican a bale— | \$0.16 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| No. 16s.—\$140 Mexican a bale— | \$0.20 $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| "Red horse" chop of Settau Spinning Co. | |
| No. 16s.—\$136 Mexican a bale— | \$0.19 $\frac{1}{4}$ |

As showing the topsy-turvy condition of prices in Manchuria at present, I found the Kanegafuchi bluefish 16s selling at Kirin at $19\frac{3}{4}$ cents a pound, which is less than the Tieling price, though much farther inland.

All yarns are, as usual in America, put up in 400 pound bales, but they are also bunched. Each bale consists of forty to pound packages, and each package consists of skeins (usually the number of skeins corresponding to the number of yarn) tied with three or four strings and wrapped in stiff wrapping paper. On this is placed the label of the mill, the "Golden Elephant" of the Osaka mill, the "Blue Fish" of the Kanegafuchi mill, or some such design. The whole is wrapped in heavy wrapping paper and gunny sacking and baled with four to six ties, usually colored orange. Half-round pieces of bamboo are put under the ties at the four edges before baling. The Indian bales, which are brought from a greater distance, also have a heavy tarred gunny sacking placed between the paper and the outer covering of burlap or gunny sacking.

Occasionally a bale of yarn is found mildewed, which is due to too much moisture being put in the yarn at the mill with a watering can in order to gain weight. As is well known among mill men, proper conditioning is all right and not only makes a smoother and better weaving yarn by laying the fibre, but actually increases its strength. Cotton put through the processes incident to an ordinary mill loses from 2 to 7 per cent. or over of its natural moisture, and if this moisture is restored the yarn simply regains its normal condition. At one mill in Japan I saw this done by simply spreading a cloth over the yarn and using a watering can, but this method is crude, and in an effort to get too much weight the fibre gets too much water and has a tendency to rot.

It is well known that the millions of Chinese living in the northern sections of China are clothed in American sheetings and drills. It is also well known that they wear no white outer garments, unless in mourning, and that nearly everything is dyed some shade of blue.

It has been considered that on account of China's cheap labor and the cheapness of their dye it would not pay to dye this cloth in America. From what I have seen of the small establishments in which this dyeing is carried on and the fact that indigo dyeing on a large scale is done very cheaply now in the United States, I am inclined to doubt this and think it is a matter worth looking into by our manufacturers and dyers.

While at Mukden and at Newchwang I visited some of the dyehouses and obtained some information from the merchants as to the best selling shades. I also obtained samples that I am forwarding to the Bureau of Manufactures showing the exact shades used. At the dye-houses I was informed that the Japanese had been there before me several months ago, and that the information I wanted in an interview they had obtained by repeated visits and careful observation of the operations and had noted everything in detail, from the cost of the clay to support the "kongs" or dye pots to the average wage cost per piece. At the merchant's place I was shown Japanese woven and dyed nankeen in imitation of the Chinese; also samples of dyed sheetings with which they were experimenting.

Most of the Chinese dyehouses are small affairs. The clay pots in which the cloth is dyed are termed "kangs," and are about 5 feet high, tapering from about 30 inches diameter at the top to about 12 inches diameter at the bottom, and holding probably 100 gallons. This is the usual size, though many different sizes and shapes are used. These are arranged around the sides of the room in mud embankments about 30 inches high, the rest of the "kang" being down in the ground. The blues are all dyed with indigo. To dye, the "kang" is first filled with water and this heated to boiling. Then indigo dye and natural soda are stirred in, and then lime added until the color is to the dyer's satisfaction—a yellowish, streaked blue color. This is kept boiling for twelve hours, then the bolt of American sheeting is brought forward and pushed in with a stick, fold by fold. This is kept in for, say, half an hour and then taken out and hung on a high bamboo framework to dry in the wind or, as is often done, is spread out along any convenient place, such as the city wall, and where it is exposed to all the dust kicked up by passing teams. For some colors this is then put back and dyed again and then dried again. For some shades this is done three times. In bringing the cloth out of the bath it is pulled through holes in a small board to remove the surplus dye and water.

At Mukden, according to Tien Ho Tung, one of the largest merchants, nearly all cloth is dyed one of three shades of blue called, respectively, "yu lan," "dzung lan" and "fur ching," or else fast black called "dzu ching." All other colors and shades are dyed in comparatively small quantities. The full list of all ordinary colors dyed

at Mukden, and prices per piece of 40 yards for dyeing, were given as follows:

| | |
|---------------------------------------|--------|
| Yu lan, a fish blue (light blue)..... | Gold |
| Dzung lan, a gentian..... | \$0.83 |
| Fur ching, a dark-purple blue..... | 1.00 |
| Dsu ching, a black..... | 5.50 |
| Mao pao, a pale blue..... | 2.75 |
| Tao ching, sky blue..... | 1.75 |
| Ping hong, red..... | 1.90 |
| Ping lao, green..... | .38 |
| Plug tase, purple..... | .45 |
| Ping line, dark blue..... | .38 |
| Qual loh, dark green..... | .75 |
| Ngu hwang, goose yellow..... | .40 |
| Gan ching, pebble blue..... | .40 |
| Fur ching, purple..... | .75 |
| Hsiang se, olive green..... | .58 |
| Feng hung, pink..... | .65 |
| Tientain, dark gentian..... | .35 |
| | .85 |

The high priced colors above are all indigo dyed. The most expensive of all is "fur ching" (not to be confounded with another color also pronounced fur ching, though the Chinese characters are a little different, that is a cheap aniline dyed color), and the next is the blacks. "Lan" means "blue," while "ping" means "foreign" or "novelty," and usually denotes colors that are dyed with foreign dyes or at least shades that were so first introduced.

The firm giving these prices is a large one, and as it pays over \$5,000 annually for dyeing alone it gets the lowest prices, about 30 per cent. below the open market rate. Contracts with the dyers are made at the beginning of each quarter, fixing the price for the ensuing three months. The prices given are the prices for this quarter.

At the dyers' establishments I also obtained some figures which showed a good deal of variation, but on the whole were one-fourth to one-third higher than the merchants' prices named. The regular quotation on "yu lan" was \$1.28 gold. The dyers' prices were for small lots.

At Newchwang the firm of Yung Fung Hsing gave the principal shades of blue as four in number and one black, and stated that practically all cloth dyed there is in one or the other of these five colors. I have forwarded samples to the Bureau of Manufactures, and if American manufacturers attempt to reproduce these the shades should be exactly matched and the colors should be fast. This firm gave their prices (in gold) for this quarter as being per piece of 40 yards in indigo blue: Yu lan, 80 cents; dzung lan, \$2; she lan, \$4.60, and fur ching, \$6.40, while the price for black, dzu ching, was \$2.70.

On account of the quantity they send to the dyer each quarter they get about 25 per cent. cheaper prices than the charges for small lots. These prices show some discrepancy as compared with those I obtained at Mukden, but as the colors I find are not of exactly the same shade and the cost of dyeing is varied to each merchant, not only by the cost to the dyer but by the merchant's trade, this is to be expected.

For dyeing the light blue shade of indigo known as "yu lan," the shade most used by the poorer classes, such as coolies, etc., there is used to one kang full of water 10 catties (13½ pounds) indigo; 5 catties (6½ pounds) natural soda, and 1 cattie (1½ pounds) lime. Four pieces are dyed with this, which, with 2.85 sheeting, is 160 yards, or 56 pounds of cloth. The cloth is dyed twice in the same bath—that is, dyed, taken out and dried, put back and dyed again, and then dried again.

For dyeing "dzung lan" there is used 20 catties (26 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds) indigo; 15 catties (20 pounds) natural soda, and 2 catties (2 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds) lime. Usually three pieces are dyed in one "kang" of this.

For dyeing "she lan" there is used 24 catties (32 pounds) indigo; 21 catties (28 pounds) natural soda, but no lime. Two to three pieces are dyed with this, each piece being dyed three times. Each time it is starched with 6 ounces of "swe gow" or gum.

"Dzu ching" is a black obtained by dyeing with wild or mountain tea leaves that the natives call "san tzar year." It is usually produced by dyeing over the blue shade known as "dzung lan." About fifteen buckets of water are put in a large flat pan and the water heated to boiling, 13 pounds of these wild tea leaves added and also 3 pounds of an ingredient that resembles a green alum. Fifteen pieces are dyed with above and each piece boiled twice. The pieces are then starched, using about 1 pound of starch to a piece, dried and folded ready for use. There is quite a lot of cloth dyed this shade and then oiled to give it a shine in imitation of black Italians, and cloth so dyed is very popular. To get this finish 10 ounces of sesamum seed oil is mixed with 2 catties (2 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds) of bean flour. This is boiled in clear water and stirred until it is a thin paste. The cloth is brought through this dried and rolled.

The foregoing proportions were obtained from native dyers, but, as they themselves stated, are rather general, as the actual amounts to be used are left to the judgment of the individual dyer and are varied according to the quality of the dye, the quality of cotton used in the cloth, the coarseness of weave, etc.

At Newchwang a little foreign indigo is imported, but the most of the indigo used in Manchuria is native grown, is manufactured into dye at Kwanchengtze and other places, and is bought by the dyers both as a powder and as a paste. A leading authority on Manchuria gives a good account of the method of manufacture:

The only dye plant grown in Manchuria is the dyer's knot weed (*Polygonum tinctorium*, L.). True indigo from *Indigofera tinctoria*, L., is not a product of these provinces; but the polygonum yields a similar blue dye, which is universally employed in the many large dyeing establishments of Manchuria, where it is called "santien." The seeds are sown in April in drills about 9 inches to 1 foot apart, and in the latter half of September, and before blossoming, the plants are cut down near the roots, steeped tip downward in lime lined vats containing water and weighted with stones. The steeping lasts thirty-six hours. The plants are then removed, and the water in which they were steeped—now green in color—is poured into large earthenware jars, standing on a concrete floor, having a conduit leading to a large tank sunk in the ground.

Into another similar jar, also containing green water from the vat, a piece of lime is placed, and a part of the stirred-up mixture, weighing about 3 pounds and of the consistency of cream, all undissolved lime and impurities being avoided, is poured into each of the other jars. A man then proceeds to beat the contents of each jar with a square piece of wood, in the centre of which a long wooden handle is fixed. Gradually the green water

assumes a dark blue color, and it is calculated that when 500 blows have been struck the grain has been completely separated. The jar is then emptied into the conduit, by which the contents find their way to the tank. Here the blue granules sink to the bottom, and when the surface water is removed the sediment is collected and made up into cakes for market as dry indigo, or poured into water-proof papered baskets and sold under the name of liquid indigo.

This native indigo is much cheaper than the foreign genuine indigo. At Mukden the dyers gave the price they were paying as 30 cents Mexican a cattie (13 cents gold a pound), and at Newchwang as 20 cents Mexican a cattie (8.7 cents gold a pound), but the price varies with the quality, quantities in which bought, etc.

The natural soda is used in the shape of rough bricks weighing about 5 catties each and costing 50 cents Mexican a brick, which makes it approximately 4 cents gold a pound. This natural soda is obtained in various places, but most of it comes down in carts from the north, where, it appears, there is quite an industry carried on in extracting it from the soda and salt impregnated steppes in the southwest of Hei-lang-chiang province.

Lime is also a local product and costs 2 cents Mexican a cattie, or three-quarters of a cent gold a pound. It takes about 50 catties (67 pounds) coal to dye each "kang," and this is now bought at 75 cents Mexican a hundred catties, which is at the rate of about \$5.65 gold a ton. This coal is not burned straight, but is mixed with a kind of clay soil that is brought into the cities from neighboring deposits by the cartload and sells for about 80 cents Mexican a cartload, which contains probably 300 pounds. This clay also burns up completely, leaving slight residue.

To dye a "kang" of "dzung lan" is usually considered to take two men twenty-four hours, or, say, two days' work. Figuring from above the cost of dyeing a "kang" of "dzung lan," say we have

| | |
|--|--------|
| Dye: | |
| 27 pounds indigo, at 8.74 cents..... | \$2.35 |
| 20 pounds natural soda, at 4 cents..... | .80 |
| 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds lime, at $\frac{1}{4}$ cents..... | .02 |
| Fuel: 67 pounds coal, at \$5.65 a ton..... | .19 |
| Labor: 2 men 2 days, at 30 cents each..... | 1.20 |
| Total..... | \$4.56 |

Dividing this by three, three pieces being dyed by above amount, gives \$1.52 as cost of dyeing 40 yards. The price the large merchants paid for this was \$2 a piece, which leaves 48 cents a piece for the dyer to pay all other expenses, not included in the foregoing rough estimate and for profit. A piece of 2.85 sheeting weighs 14 pounds per 40 yards, which makes it 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound to dye, according to costs in the table.

Sheetings are 36 inches wide and drills only 30 inches, but owing to the closer texture of the latter, three harness instead of two, it is considered that they cost about as much to dye, so no distinction is made between them in dyeing charges.

Fur ching, which is the most expensive shade, costs \$5.50 to \$6.50 a piece to dye in large quantities, and makes the resultant cloth almost as costly as silk. It is a very popular shade, however, especially with the merchant class. Indian Head sheetings that are now (November, 1906.) selling at Newchwang at \$6.20 Mexican a piece, or 9 cents gold a yard, after being dyed "fur ching," are selling at \$18 Mexican a piece, or 26 cents a yard. Of the \$11.80 Mexican difference \$11.50 represents cost of dyeing, and 30 cents Mexican the usual amount the merchants add on for their trouble in having it dyed.

The foregoing gives a cost of dyeing with "fur ching" of \$11.50 Mexican or \$6.67 gold a piece of 14 pounds at present exchange rate of \$0.58. This is 47.6 cents a pound, say ordinarily 50 cents a pound, and this shade should certainly be produced cheaper than this in the United States.

BANKING IN MANCHURIA.

Special Agent W. A. Graham Clark, in reviewing the present state of financial affairs in Manchuria, says:

Money conditions in Manchuria are bad, due in great part to the fact that there is no one stable currency. At Kwanchengtze, for instance, there is the Kirin tael, the Kwanchengtze tael, the Kirin Province small coins, other provinces' small coins, the copper cash, the Mexican dollar, the Japanese gold yen, the Japanese war notes, the Russian rouble, etc., all with fluctuating values, not to mention the numerous counterfeits.

If the Japanese war notes had been backed by a gold reserve, as with other Japanese money, they would have furnished the best solution of the question; in fact, in the hands of the people, they were very popular until it was found that the Japanese would not give face value for them either in gold or silver. They have therefore been at a discount of 3 to 24 (or over) per cent. of their face value and have been the subject of much speculation and quite a considerable loss to the people.

The Russian rouble notes which were largely circulated were also the basis of much speculation, but there are no figures available as to the amount of these in circulation. They are not current at present south of Kwanchengtze, and it is interesting to note that at this point, within the Russian lines, the Japanese war note has a higher value than the Russian rouble. A Japanese war note, however, which is worth 56.31 cents gold at Newchwang is only worth 51.02 cents gold at Kwanchengtze.

In regard to foreign banks in Manchuria there are only two (though some Shanghai banks have merchants at Newchwang acting as agents), the Russo-Chinese Bank and the Yokohama Specie Bank, both of which are really Government banks and have certain Government functions.

The Chinese Government Bank at Mukden is trying to replace the war notes of the Japanese by notes of their own issue. Seeing the popularity attained by the convenient small notes of the Japanese, they are now issuing notes for small denominations based thereon. These notes are from 10 cents up.

The great majority of the business in Manchuria passes through the hands of the native banks. These banks as a rule do not lend on stored goods nor very much on any securities, but keep their money in circulation in handling active trade. They are well organized and usually stand by each other, so that ordinarily failures are rare. A number suffered severely on account of the war and some of them speculated in war money with disastrous results.

According to a foreign bank at Newchwang, there are now only seventeen Chinese banks at Newchwang regarded as solvent, and of these none are in a very strong position, when there were fifty to sixty two years or less ago. Failures in 1906 up to November have aggregated about 1,700,000 taels at this one city. Shanghai bankers have withdrawn their usual facilities on account of the financial straits here, and this lack of banking facilities, together with the blockade of goods, militate against any holding of prices or early resumption of normal business.

There has been considerable discussion as to what has become of the millions left by the Russian and Japanese armies in the country, and if the people are, as frequently stated, in a more prosperous condition and have more money why this does not come out and relieve the present dullness by heavy buying of foreign goods? My impression, obtained from the Chinese direct, is that the northern section is much better off than the southern, and that while the people as a whole are better off, the amount of this increased prosperity that is in actual cash available for foreign purchases has been somewhat exaggerated.

The Russians seem to have been freer spenders than the Japanese, and paid higher prices for horses and for coolie and cart hire. The fact is sometimes overlooked

that a very large quantity of money so earned went out of the country in 1905 for foreign goods. Most of the Chinese contractors, etc., were not Manchurians, but were nearly all from Shantung and Pechili provinces, and the money made by them went south and out of this country. While a great many people made money, others lost; and there was great destruction of property. As one man, himself a sufferer from the war, stated:

"Our farmers took their carts and went out to look for money, and returned to find the armies had passed in their absence and their roofs were gone, so in the long run they lost. Such men returning with \$200 or \$300 made hauling for the troops and not knowing when another army would be along buried this money and fled to the border country. Some have not yet returned, but those that have are spending what they saved in putting roofs on their houses and in putting in window sash and in restocking their farms. They are spending as little on food and apparel as possible and making their old clothes last for another season."

One reason for less money in the south than in the north is that not only did the Japanese know better the usual prices for coolie hire, etc., and so paid less than the Russians, but that they brought their own coolies, and the money made by these coolies all went back to Japan, either direct or through the Japanese merchants that came with the army.

The northern section of the country made good money from the Russians and suffered much less from the effects of war ravages, but is not absorbing the great amount of cloth stocked up, so I inquired into this as fully as possible. On account of speculation on the part of merchants in Kirin Province, aided by the efforts of the Newchwang merchants, who last winter sent men here to offer special inducements to the merchants to buy and so relieve the congestion at Newchwang, much more cloth was pushed up into this province than could possibly be absorbed in any but a great boom year. In the spring the boom did not come and the people did not buy foreign goods in the quantity anticipated. A great deal of this money made by the people was for ponies sold to the Russians, and this money was spent in buying better teams from Mongolia. Others spent it in buying farms and wooded hills. A great many people went into the foot hills on the border of Mongolia where they could purchase land for one-fourth what they would have to pay around Kwanchengtze or Kirin. Both Japanese and Russians destroyed many houses simply to use the rafters, etc., as fuel during the severe cold weather, and the Chinese had to spend considerable to patch up their houses and get them in shape again.

I would say, therefore, that of the money spent by the armies a great deal was and is now being used to repair damage done by the armies, a large amount went into Mongolia to replace ponies bought by the armies, a good deal went out of the country during the boom in the spring of 1905 for foreign goods, contractors sent a lot to Shantung Province, and Japanese coolies and merchants to Japan, and what is left is being spent for additional fields and timbered land, besides a certain amount, which I think has been somewhat exaggerated, that is being hoarded by the people. The farmers have had prosperous crops, but with them the money comes hard, and is not spent freely as with the coolies, who made money easily.

The money that has been put into field and timbered land, into houses and stock, will hardly get to the merchants before next fall at least, and with the large stocks on hand in the interior there cannot be any great boom in the spring of 1907. When the country has settled down more, the timber sold, and the new lands producing, transportation made quicker and cheaper, and the country better policed, the trade will be larger than ever before, and 1908 should be a great trade year.

AMENDMENTS TO THE REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ADMISSION OF CHINESE.

DEPARTMENT CIRCULAR NO. 143.

BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR,

OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY.

WASHINGTON, February 26, 1907.

To All Officers Charged With the Enforcement of the Laws and Regulations Governing the Admission of Chinese into the United States, and All Others Whom It May Concern:

The following amendments to the regulations approved February 5, 1906, governing the admission of Chinese into the United States, are hereby approved.

OSCAR S. STRAUS, Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR,

BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION,

WASHINGTON, February 26, 1907.

To Immigration Officers, and Others Concerned:

Rules 15, 17, 22, 23, 30 and 38 of the regulations approved February 5, 1906, governing the admission of Chinese into the United States, are hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Rule 15. The return certificate provided by Section 7 of the act of September 13, 1888, shall be issued only to such Chinese persons as have been duly registered under the provisions of the act of May 5, 1892, or the act of November 3, 1893, and present a certificate issued thereunder, or such as have established before a court of competent jurisdiction the lawfulness of their residence in the United States and present a certified copy of the court's decision. (See Department Decision No. 109, July 31, 1906.)

Rule 17. A Chinese laborer claiming the right to be permitted to leave the United States and return thereto, under the terms of Rule 15, shall apply in person to the immigration officer whose official station is most conveniently reached from his place of residence, at least a month prior to the time of his intended departure; shall deposit with said officer a certificate of registration, or a certified copy of a decision of a court of competent jurisdiction showing that he is lawfully resident in the United States, and shall make, on oath before the officer, in writing, a full statement descriptive of his family, or property or debts, as the case may be, and fully describing himself, giving his age, name, local residence, occupation, color of eyes and complexion, and distinguishing marks, if any, and naming the port from which he expects to depart from the United States, which shall be one of those designated in Rule 4. Such written description shall be filed in duplicate, and to each shall be permanently attached a photograph of the Chinese person referred to therein. The officer with whom such certificate or certified copy of court record and written description are filed will make a thorough examination as to the accuracy of the descriptive statement, whether the photograph accompanying the latter for the purpose of identification is

that of the person described in such certificate or certified copy of court record and statement, and whether his height and descriptive physical marks are accurately given, and will then write his official signature in part across such photograph and in part upon the adjoining portion of the written descriptive statement, to prevent substitution. The said officer will also transmit the certificate of registration to the Commissioner General of Immigration, for comparison with the record thereof in his office, in respect not only to name and date therein, but in all other particulars, or the certified copy of court record to the clerk of the court by whom issued for verification. At the same time the said officer will in person, or through an immigrant or Chinese inspector, make thorough investigation as to the facts stated by the applicant. As soon as practicable thereafter the said officer will transmit the certificate or certified copy of court record, one copy of the sworn statement, and the reports of investigation to the officer in charge at the port from which such Chinese laborer intends to depart from the United States, and at the same time will transmit to said Chinese laborer the duplicate copy of the sworn statement, with instructions to present the same in person to the officer in charge at the port of departure. Upon the receipt of such certificate or certified copy of court record, the duplicate copy of said sworn statement, and the reports of investigation, the officer in charge, or his deputy at said port of departure, after one month from the date of filing of the original application with the officer who investigated the case (or sooner if it is evident that the intent of the law—a thorough investigation of the case—has been met), if he finds that the person presenting such duplicate statement is the Chinese person therein described and is entitled thereto, may sign and give to such person on his departure from said port a certificate containing the number of the description referred to, in the following form:

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

No.

Certificate Issued to Chinese Laborers Departing from the United States With the Intention of Returning Thereto.

This is to certify that —, a Chinese laborer, described in identification paper numbered —, port of —, departed from this port for — on this — day of —, 190—, with the avowed intention of returning to the United States via this port within twelve months from said date.

Given under my hand and seal this — day of —, 190—, at —, State of —.

[SEAL.] Officer in charge, Port of —, District of —.

If the last named certificate be transferred, it shall become void, and the person to whom it was given by the officer in charge shall forfeit his right to return to the United States.

The certified description shall be carefully preserved by the officer in charge at the port of exit as a means of identification of the Chinese person therein mentioned, who must return via the port of departure within one year from the

date of his leaving the United States, unless prevented by sickness or other disability beyond his control.

The officer who conducts the above mentioned investigation will furnish the officer in charge of the district in which the Chinese laborer resides with a copy of the report forwarded by him to the officer in charge of the port of departure.

Rule 22. Upon the arrival of any returning Chinese laborer at a port of the United States designated in Rule 4, he shall exhibit his return certificate to the officer in charge of the enforcement of the Chinese exclusion laws at said port, and if the evidence already secured in such a case establishes the right of such returning Chinese laborer to admission, and is not controverted, he shall at once be admitted, but otherwise he shall be refused admission until he establishes his right thereto.

Rule 23. If a returning Chinese is admitted his certificate of residence, or certified copy of court record, which must have been left with the officer who granted him a return certificate, shall be returned to him and the said return certificate be taken up. After indorsing upon such return certificate his action in the case and the date thereof, the officer in charge shall forward it to the Commissioner General of Immigration, accompanied, if the Chinese applicant is denied admission, by said laborer's certificate of residence.

Rule 30. The officers whose titles are given below have been authorized by their respective governments to issue to Chinese subjects, or citizens, of such governments the certificates prescribed by Section 6 of the act approved July 5, 1884.

Brasil: Chiefs of police, or corresponding officers in the municipalities and civil subdivisions.

Canada:

Vancouver—Collector of customs.

Victoria—Collector of customs.

Ottawa—Chief controller of Chinese, or chief clerk in the Department of Trade and Commerce.

China (in Chinese Empire):

Acting viceroy of Hu Kuang (Hunan and Hupeh).

Acting viceroy of Sze Ch'uen.

Acting viceroy of Liang Kuang (Kuangtung and Kuanghsi).

Tartar General of Fu-chou and customs superintendent of Fu-k'ien.

Governor of Anhui.

Governor of Hunan.

Governor of Shantung.

Governor of Kiangsi.

Customs taot'ai of Tientsin.

Taot'ai of the Hui-Ning-Ch'ih-T'ai-Kwang circuit.

Taot'ai of the Hang-chia-hu circuit.

Acting taot'ai of the Ning-Shao-T'ai circuit.

Taot'ai of the Wen-Ch'u circuit.

Taot'ai of the Yue-Ch'ang-Li circuit.

Taot'ai of the Teng-Lai-Ch'ing circuit.

Taot'ai of the Su-Sung-T'ai circuit.

China (in countries foreign to China):

Austria-Hungary—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Vienna.

Belgium—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Brussels.

Cuba—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Habana.

England—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, London.

France—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Paris.

Germany—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Berlin.

Hawaii—Chinese consul general, Honolulu.

Italy—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Rome.

Japan—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Tokyo; Chinese consul general, Yokohama.

Korea—Chinese consul general, Seoul.

Mexico—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Mexico City.

Netherlands—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, The Hague.

Peru—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Lima.

Philippine Islands—Chinese consul general, Manila.

Portugal—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Lisbon.

Russia—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, St. Petersburg.

Siberia—Chinese commercial agent, Vladivostok.

Spain—Chinese minister or chargé d'affaires, Madrid.

Straits Settlements—Chinese consul general, Singapore.

Transvaal—Chinese consul general, Johannesburg.

Cuba: Chief of immigration department.

German protectorate of Kiautschow: Commissioner for Chinese affairs to the government, civil commissioner or oberrichter.

Gautemala: Minister of foreign affairs or subsecretary of state.

Hongkong: Registrar general.

Japan:

Governor of any fu (district) or ken (prefecture).

Hokkaido—Governor general.

Formosa—Chief of prefecture having jurisdiction.

Macau, Portuguese province of: Secretary general.

Mexico: Department for foreign affairs.

Philippine Islands: Collector of customs.

Society Islands: Commissioner of police of the municipality of Papeete, Tahiti.

Straits Settlements: Colonial secretary.

Federated Malay States: Colonial secretary, federal secretary, or secretary for Chinese affairs.

Trinidad: Governor.

Venezuela: Mayors of cities or governors of provinces.

Rule 38. In view of the provisions of Section 1 of the act approved April 29, 1902, it will be necessary for Chinese persons of the exempt classes who are citizens or subjects of other insular territory of the United States than the Territory of Hawaii to comply with the terms of Section 6 of the act approved July 5, 1884, and for this purpose the permission of such persons to go from one insular territory to another insular territory of the United States, or from such insular territory to the mainland territory of the United States, shall be granted by officers designated for that purpose by the chief executives of said insular territories, and the duties imposed by Section 6 of the act

approved July 5, 1884, upon United States diplomatic and consular officers in foreign countries in relation to Chinese persons of the said classes shall be discharged by the officers in charge of the enforcement of the Chinese exclusion acts at the ports, respectively, from which any members of such excepted classes intend to depart from any insular territory of the United States; provided, however, that the privilege of transit shall be extended to all Chinese persons other than laborers, as provided in Rule 37.

As by Section 4 of the act approved April 30, 1900 (31 Stat. L., 141), all persons who were citizens of the Republic of Hawaii on August 12, 1898, are declared to be citizens of the United States, persons of the Chinese race claiming such status may be admitted at either mainland or insular ports of entry upon producing evidence sufficient to establish such claim. Subjects of the Chinese Empire of the exempt classes residing in Hawaii must obtain certificates from the representatives of their own Government (the Chinese consul general, Honolulu), and such certificates must be viséed by the inspector in charge of the immigration service at said port, instead of by a diplomatic or consular officer.

The civil governor of the Philippine Islands having, by executive order No. 38, of September 23, 1904, designated the collector of customs, Manila, to issue to Chinese citizens of those islands the certificate provided by Section 6 of the act of July 5, 1884, and it being impracticable, even if desirable, under existing circumstances, to require that such certificates shall be viséed, officers at ports of entry for Chinese will regard certificates issued to such Philippine citizens in the same manner as certificates issued by officials of foreign countries and viséed by American diplomatic or consular officers. Certificates issued by the Chinese consul general, Manila, to subjects of the Chinese Empire residing in the Philippines will be viséed by the collector of customs at Manila, and when so viséed will be accorded the usual consideration.

Rule 51 is hereby amended so that the sixteenth and nineteenth lines of the list of officers in charge, therein given, will read as follows:

Chinese inspector in charge—El Paso, Tex.—Texas and New Mexico.

Chinese inspector in charge—Tucson, Ariz.—Arizona.

Attention is also directed to Department Circular No. 130, of October 1, 1906, amending Rule 25; and the following new rule is hereby promulgated:

Rule 31a. A student within the meaning of the treaty and laws of the United States relating to the admission and exclusion of Chinese is—

(a) A person who pursues some regular course of study, including the higher branches of learning, but not excluding the elementary or preparatory branches, if undertaken in good faith;

(b) A person who attends one of the recognized educational institutions of the United States, designed for those whose entire time may be given to scholastic work;

(c) A person who studies to be fitted for some particular profession, occupation, or calling requiring a technical or otherwise special mental training; or

(d) A person, already possessing a liberal education, who devotes himself to the study of special subjects or questions, as a student of manners, customs, institutions, politics, economy, history;

And who, in any case, is also a person for whose maintenance and support as a student in the United States adequate financial provision has been made or satisfactorily assured, or a person who, if he undertakes to provide for his own support, does not become a "laborer," or acquire any other status which would bring him within the class of Chinese persons excluded by statute or treaty; and who, in any case, is also a person whose intention it is, upon the conclusion of his studies, either to depart from the United States, or, if he remains, to engage in no pursuit or calling which would render his presence in the United States unlawful.

F. P. SARGENT, Commissioner General.

THE 1906 COTTON TRADE OF CHINA.

The reduction in importation of cotton goods into China is not confined to the American product. Much interest and some anxiety have been developed in the United States by reason of the fact that our own export figures show a fall of about \$14,000,000 in the value of cotton cloths sent to China in the eleven months ending with November, 1906, compared with the corresponding months of 1905. This falling off was explained by those acquainted with that trade as largely the result of over importations of cotton goods into China last year, and figures from China just received by the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor seem to sustain the assertion that the reduction in China's imports is general and not aimed exclusively at the products of the United States.

The commercial statements of the Chinese Government are issued in quarterly and annual statements. The quarterly statements give merely the quantity of certain articles entering the principal ports of China, but do not give the figures of values. They are further complicated by the fact that the figures of imports of the interior and smaller coast cities include the merchandise reshipped thence from the larger ports of China. It is not practicable, therefore, to state from these quarterly returns the aggregate quantity of the various classes of cotton cloths imported into all China. The fact, however, that Shanghai is the principal port of original entry for cotton goods and many other leading articles imported, and that more than two-thirds of the total imports of China enter originally at Shanghai, indicates that an examination of the quarterly figures of imports at that port will give a fair indication of the trend of the import trade of China for the elapsed period of the current year.

These quarterly statements of the Chinese Government regarding the imports of the current year have reached the Bureau of Statistics and cover the three quarters ending with September, 1906. A combination of these three quarterly statements indicates that the falling off in imports of cotton piece goods from the United Kingdom, our chief rival in the cotton trade of China, is as great proportionately as in the case of the United States.

The four principal classes of cotton goods which China has been accustomed to draw from the United States and the United Kingdom in any considerable quantities are cotton sheetings, shirtings, drills and jeans.

The quarterly statements in question show that the imports at Shanghai of American gray sheetings, which increased from 990,426 pieces in the nine months ending with September, 1904, to 6,163,820 pieces in the nine months ending with September, 1905, fell to 4,750,744 pieces in the nine months ending with September, 1906. English gray sheetings, the imports of which amounted to 414,811 pieces in the nine months ending with September, 1904, were 343,318 pieces in the same months of 1905, and 283,256 pieces in the corresponding months of 1906. Of Japanese sheetings the imports in the first nine months of 1904 were 115,260 pieces; in the corresponding months of 1905 they were 46,962 pieces, and in the same months of 1906 93,252 pieces.

Of drills the imports into Shanghai of the American product were, for the nine months ending with September, 1904, 702,189 pieces; in the nine months of 1905, 2,525,534 pieces, and in the nine months of 1906, 1,680,235 pieces. Of English drills, the imports into Shanghai were, in the nine months of 1904, 78,393 pieces; in the same months of 1905, 215,667 pieces, and in the corresponding months of 1906, 145,654 pieces. Of Japanese drills, the imports into Shanghai in the nine months of 1904 were 37,233 pieces; in the same months of 1905, 81 pieces, and in the corresponding months of 1906, 2,566 pieces.

Of American jeans the imports into Shanghai in the nine months ending with September, 1904, were 89,860 pieces; in the corresponding months of 1905, 320,070 pieces, and in the same period of 1906, 212,380 pieces. Of English jeans the import figures were, for the nine months of 1904, 232,962 pieces; of 1905, 640,005 pieces, and of 1906, 340,162 pieces. Of Dutch jeans the import figures for the nine months of 1904 were 5,688 pieces; of 1905, 63,319 pieces, and of 1906, 18,991 pieces.

Of American gray shirtings the import figures for the first nine months of 1904 were 61,324 pieces; of 1905, 342,663 pieces, and of 1906, 239,145 pieces. Of English gray shirtings the imports in the nine months of 1904 were 2,490,674 pieces; of 1905, 5,154,483 pieces, and of 1906, 3,794,241 pieces; and of Japanese gray shirtings the imports in the nine months of 1904 were 2,740 pieces; of 1905, 3,994 pieces, and of 1906, 1,221 pieces.

A condensation of these statements regarding the various great classes of cotton goods imported at Shanghai—sheetings, shirtings, drills and jeans—shows that the total number of pieces of these four principal classes of cotton goods from the United States was, the nine months ending with September, 1905, 9,352,087, and in the corresponding period of 1906, 6,882,504, a reduction of 26 per cent.; and that the number of pieces of English goods of these four classes imported was, in the nine months of 1905, 6,353,473, and in the same months of 1906, 4,563,313, also a reduction of 26 per cent. In the case of Japanese goods the number of pieces of these classes imported was for the nine months of 1905 but 51,037 and in the corresponding months of 1906 but 97,039—so small a total as to have no perceptible effect, of course, upon the receipts from other countries.

These figures of imports at Shanghai do not of course include all of the cotton goods of these principal classes imported into China; but the fact above alluded to, that the other ports include in their figures of imports the foreign merchandise brought from other ports of China, makes it impossible to obtain from the quarterly statements in question the net figure of cotton goods imported into China as a whole, though the fact that about two-thirds of the general imports of China enter at Shanghai suggests that the above figures may be accepted as a fair measure of conditions in the cotton piece goods trade of China in 1906 compared with 1905.

Another method, however, of determining whether the United Kingdom, our chief rival in the cotton trade of China, is also experiencing a reduction in its shipments of cotton goods to China is available by an examination

of the export statements of the United Kingdom, which have reached the Bureau of Statistics for the ten months ending with October. They show that the number of yards of gray or unbleached piece goods shipped to China in the ten months of 1905 was 311,995,900, and in the ten months of 1906, 216,584,700; of bleached piece goods, in the ten months of 1905, 188,832,500, and in the corresponding months of 1906, 154,564,100; and of dyed piece goods, in the ten months of 1905, 135,895,100, and in the same months of 1906, 140,310,300. Thus the total quantity of piece goods exported from the United Kingdom to China in the ten months' period decreased from 636,723,500 yards in 1905 to 511,459,100 yards in 1906. In values the fall shown by the figures of the United Kingdom is not so great as that shown by the figures of the United States, the value of British exports of cottons to China in the ten months ending with October, 1905, being, in round terms, \$41,000,000, and in the corresponding months of 1906, \$36,000,000; while in the case of the United States the figures for the eleven months ending with October, 1905, were, in round terms, \$31,000,000, and in the same months of 1906, \$17,000,000.

Kerosene oil for lighting is the second article in importance in our export trade with China, and this also shows a reduction in our own figures from 71½ million gallons in the eleven months ending November, 1905, to 43½ millions in the corresponding months of 1906. The Chinese figures show for the nine months a fall from 39,000,000 gallons of American kerosene entering Shanghai in 1905 to 25,000,000 gallons in 1906. Russian oil entering Shanghai, in the nine months of 1905, was 12½ million gallons, and in 1906 none. Of Sumatra kerosene imported into Shanghai the total for the nine months ending with September, 1905, was 8,000,000 gallons, and for the corresponding period of 1906 a little less than 6,000,000. Borneo oil is for the first time making its appearance in the trade of China, and appears to be responsible, in some degree at least, for the reduction in imports of American oil, since the quantity of Borneo oil imported at Shanghai in the nine months of 1906 was 9¼ million gallons, against 2½ millions in the corresponding months of 1905, and nothing in previous years. The Hankow figures, which are in some degree probably those of reshipments from Shanghai, show 7,000,000 gallons of Borneo oil imported in the first nine months of 1906, against 1½ millions in the same months of 1905, and nothing in 1904; while Newchwang and Canton show each about a quarter of a million gallons of Borneo oil imported in the nine months of 1906 and none in any earlier year.

Russian oil seems to have disappeared in the 1906 figures from the imports of nearly all of the ports of China. At Shanghai the figures for the nine months of 1905 were, as above indicated, 12½ million gallons, and none reported for 1906; and this is also true of Tientsin, into which the imports of Russian oil in the nine months of 1905 were 2,000,000 gallons; while at Newchwang the reports show no imports of Russian oil in 1905 or 1906, against 250,000 gallons in the nine months of 1903. At Canton conditions are similar, no imports of Russian oil being reported for 1906, while in 1903 the figures for the nine months showed a total of over a half million gallons; and at Hankow the imports of Russian oil have steadily decreased from a little less than 4,000,000 gallons in the first nine months of 1904 to 172,500 gallons in the same months of 1906.

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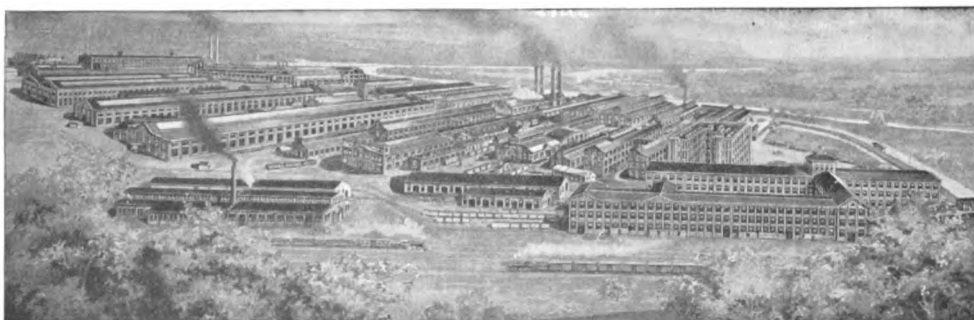
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50 Wall Street, New York.

Journal of The American Asiatic Association

VOL. VII.

June, 1907
PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

NUMBER 5

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| The United States, | One Dollar per year |
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| Japan, | Two Yen per year |

All communications relating either to the reading matter of the JOURNAL or to its advertisements should be addressed to

JOHN FOORD, PUBLISHER,

78 Beekman Street,

New York City.

His Excellency Sir Chentung Liangcheng has accepted an invitation to luncheon tendered him by the Executive Committee on behalf of the members of the Association. The luncheon will be given at the Merchants' Club, 106 Leonard street, on Saturday, June 22, at 1 p. m., and invitations will be sent to the members a fortnight ahead of the event. The Association has every reason to pay a special mark of respect to the retiring Chinese Minister. On his arrival in the country to assume his present post Sir Liang was the guest of the Association at its fifth annual dinner, held on April 23, 1903. On that occasion the president of the Association referred to the special gratification that he had in recognizing in Sir Liang one of the Government students of thirteen years ago, who carried with them to China not only the culture of our chief seats of learning but a thorough sympathy with American ideas and a clear understanding of American institutions. At the sixth annual dinner of the Association, when the guest of honor was His Imperial Highness Prince B'u Lun, Sir Liang was referred to as a product which is of no nation but which represents the best part of all—"a charming combination of culture, manliness, humor and common sense." From his first appearance here as Minister of China, Sir Liang has constantly referred to the favorable impression made on his countrymen by the beneficent policy pursued by Secretary Hay under President McKinley and President Roosevelt toward China. At the very outset of his term he declared that the United States had been China's steadfast friend in time of trouble, and that China would not soon forget it. At the time when the grievances against our Government of visiting Chinamen and Chinese resident here provoked the retaliation of the boycott, Sir Liang exerted all his powers of persuasion and all the influence at his command to convince his countrymen that they had mistaken their remedy. In all the intercourse which the officers of this Association have held with the Chinese Minister, they have found him perfectly frank in dealing with questions of common interest, and absolutely sincere in his endeavors to maintain the best possible relations between the two countries, and to remove any obstacles to the freedom of their commercial intercourse.

THERE was, unfortunately, neither time nor opportunity to make the attendance at the luncheon to which Mr. Charles Denby, the new Consul General at Shanghai, was invited more than the informal gathering which it was. From the brief record given elsewhere of the remarks

made at the luncheon it will be observed that Mr. Denby adds to his other qualifications for his new post a very clear conception of his duty to serve the interests of American commerce. Mr. Denby recognizes the fact that, while increased commercial activity is not the sole, nor perhaps the main, object of successful government, yet increase of trade is a fair measure of a government's success. Mr. Denby has lived long enough in China to know that to be pro-American does not necessarily mean to be anti-anybody else. While encouraging every disposition to have Americans represent American interests, he is not the less ready cordially to recognize that American interests have been effectively and intelligently represented by others. On one other point Mr. Denby's rule of action shows the fruit of mature experience and observation, and that is that one of the foremost duties of a consul in China is to establish such relations with the Chinese officials as to enable him to support with effect the representations of merchants of his own nationality, and to induce the native officials to consult with him on business questions of interest to both. It may be confidently predicted that the interests of Americans in China, whether engaged in trade, in evangelization, in scientific research, or in works of philanthropy, will be perfectly secure in the hands of Consul General Denby.

THE lavish hospitality which has attended the entertainment of General Baron T. Kuroki, of the Imperial Japanese Army; Vice-Admiral G. Ijuin, of the Imperial Japanese Navy, and the officers of the Japanese warships "Tsukuba" and "Chitose," and the sentiments expressed at the various festive gatherings which they have attended can hardly fail to assist in drawing closer the ties that bind the two countries. There has been, of course, a good deal of loose statement in regard to the early relations between Japan and the United States, and to those who are familiar with the facts there is something a little humorous in Secretary Straus' reference to the time when America "took Japan by the hand and led her out of her Oriental seclusion and showed her the triumphs of our Western civilization, and introduced her, with proverbial American hospitality, to the council board of Western nations." There was something just a little rude in the grasp of that hand which America extended in the person of Commodore Perry and his black ships, and it was anything but a hospitable instinct which prompted our reminder to Japan that she must get ready to accept some international responsibilities, which she had shown a disposition to perversely ignore. But a slight overaccentuation of the note of sentiment was not at all out of place in the various receptions given in honor of the Japanese officers. They will doubtless carry home with them a realizing sense of the fact that such outbreaks of anti-Japanese feeling as that of the San Francisco school incident and the later riotous demonstrations against Japanese in the same city are by no means significant of the general attitude of the American people toward Japan.

THESE later demonstrations are, nevertheless, evidence that the spirit in which the Government of Japan met the overtures of the Government of the United States for placing a temporary restriction on Japanese immigration to this country has been entirely misunderstood by at least a portion of the people of San Francisco. The questions

raised by the school incident were hardly a proper subject for compromise, since they related directly to the supremacy of the provisions of a treaty with a foreign power over the legislation of one of the constituent States of this Union. An admission of the right of Japanese children to have free admission to the public schools of San Francisco had really nothing to do with the desire of the Labor Union element of San Francisco to restrict Japanese immigration. The fact that the opposition of the municipal authorities on one point was disarmed by concessions made on the other, did not make the arrangement other than a decidedly clumsy and illogical one, measured by any standard of international obligation. Like all patched-up settlements, it has already begun to show signs of weakness, and the Government of the United States has already been appealed to by that of Japan to intervene for the protection of Japanese in San Francisco. To ordinary apprehension, it is not at all clear what has been gained by the bargain made between Mayor Schmitz and his associates on one hand, and the National Administration on the other. Schmitz appears to have conceded more than the blatant demagogues who are his political creators were willing to approve, but the President and the Secretary of State manifestly conceded more in return than time and experience are likely to justify. There is already talk of what should be the terms of the treaty with Japan which is to take the place of that expiring in July, 1911, and a negotiation of the new convention will certainly not be rendered any more easy by the doubt which still exists as to whether a treaty of the United States is the supreme law of the land, and by the presumption raised through the tolerance given to the anti-Japanese sentiment of San Francisco that State legislation may invalidate some of the most essential privileges which a treaty is expected to secure.

MR. HUBERT HOWE BANCROFT, the historian, and long a resident of San Francisco, must be held to be a fairly competent judge of the real character of the anti-Asiatic sentiment of the Pacific Coast. In a letter to the *Sun*, which we reproduce on another page, Mr. Bancroft deals with the anti-Chinese agitation, and declares that in the States west of the Rocky Mountains there has never existed that strong feeling against the Chinese which has come to the surface in politics. He insists that, for fifty years, the people of these States have been misrepresented by the press and politicians in subservency, first to the gold miners of California, then to the San Francisco sand-lotters and Kearneyites, and, finally, to Union labor. He goes on to show that whatever may have been public sentiment in the past, a large proportion of the best citizens of these States are not opposed to Asiatic labor, more especially Chinese labor, but are in favor of the admission into the United States of the people of China on an equality with the other yellow men of Asia, and with the white men of Europe. The time is evidently coming when a choice must be made between an absolute arrest of the agricultural development of California and the adoption of a more liberal policy in regard to the admission of Asiatic labor. As Mr. Bancroft puts the case: "Already a labor famine is upon us. The fruit industry in California is seriously imperiled, and other industries have probably received their deathblow." It would thus seem to be not at all improbable that from the Pacific States themselves may come a demand for a readjustment of our treaty relations with both China and Japan on something like their original basis. Digitized by Google

Exports of Domestic Cotton Cloths, Mineral Oils, and Wheat Flour from the United States to China and Hongkong, during the ten months ending April 30, 1906 and 1907.

EXPORTS TO CHINA.

| Months. 1905. | Cotton Cloths. Yards. | | Mineral Oils. Gallons. | | Wheat Flour. Barrels. | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|
| July..... | 46,166,783 | \$2,724,181 | 4,577,172 | \$246,800 | 1,110 | \$4,892 |
| August..... | 63,411,726 | 3,519,840 | 5,102,675 | 372,815 | 1,028 | 4,046 |
| September.... | 49,969,790 | 2,881,780 | 6,812,489 | 534,576 | 2,770 | 9,963 |
| October..... | 29,828,023 | 1,839,189 | 3,835,150 | 396,589 | 32,871 | 109,773 |
| November..... | 52,705,432 | 3,212,585 | 5,780,919 | 351,928 | 9,694 | 34,859 |
| December..... | 48,525,998 | 2,896,758 | 5,500,971 | 545,659 | 20,747 | 77,192 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| January..... | 45,178,409 | 2,532,515 | 3,307,162 | 247,699 | 28,774 | 96,746 |
| February..... | 40,068,662 | 2,299,574 | 795,586 | 84,404 | 2,504 | 9,535 |
| March..... | 30,065,930 | 1,730,955 | 3,928,492 | 231,514 | 7,757 | 27,526 |
| April..... | 38,398,916 | 2,460,385 | 2,756,782 | 155,325 | 3,818 | 12,784 |
| May..... | 30,702,112 | 1,993,654 | 3,522,202 | 365,476 | 32,633 | 108,426 |
| June..... | 23,499,621 | 1,549,772 | 9,014,331 | 723,107 | 10,515 | 38,272 |
| Total..... | 498,521,402 | \$29,641,188 | 54,933,931 | \$4,255,892 | 154,221 | \$534,014 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| July..... | 16,895,213 | \$1,070,858 | 6,554,814 | \$514,067 | 40,024 | \$155,473 |
| August..... | 11,542,141 | 762,060 | 2,666,586 | 121,993 | 14,582 | 50,534 |
| September.... | 15,389,513 | 1,016,379 | 3,892,695 | 189,198 | 49,824 | 158,516 |
| October..... | 8,796,507 | 555,740 | 2,929,800 | 128,200 | 218,590 | 750,955 |
| November..... | 7,767,251 | 531,273 | 4,026,954 | 407,633 | 45,975 | 165,757 |
| December..... | 2,895,000 | 201,658 | 6,781,682 | 536,188 | 86,603 | 271,864 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January..... | 1,613,462 | 112,456 | 7,259,261 | 500,088 | 80,567 | 265,564 |
| February..... | 3,556,507 | 250,293 | 5,761,237 | 488,363 | 115,062 | 382,467 |
| March..... | 4,447,000 | 295,627 | 11,670,174 | 939,393 | 306,946 | 1,042,870 |
| April..... | 6,346,106 | 446,784 | 10,097,174 | 741,179 | 253,943 | 849,248 |
| Total..... | 79,248,700 | \$5,243,128 | 61,940,377 | \$4,566,302 | 1,212,116 | \$4,093,248 |

EXPORTS TO HONGKONG.

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 1905. | | | | | | |
| July..... | 30,064 | \$3,177 | 712,246 | \$73,254 | 108,132 | \$384,254 |
| August..... | 83,435 | 11,328 | 71,338 | 10,352 | 59,660 | 231,092 |
| September.... | 15,608 | 2,375 | 2,093,430 | 168,400 | 56,935 | 206,244 |
| October..... | 49,941 | 6,210 | 8,524 | 1,095 | 81,934 | 294,056 |
| November..... | 4,761 | 904 | 229,861 | 24,622 | 154,321 | 531,685 |
| December..... | 2,646 | 590 | 979,013 | 104,860 | 83,375 | 301,473 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| January..... | 21,428 | 2,815 | 55,704 | 8,470 | 81,395 | 313,296 |
| February..... | 24,514 | 5,630 | 2,810 | 759 | 105,367 | 388,473 |
| March..... | | | 80 | 25 | 48,941 | 178,973 |
| April..... | 68,404 | 10,155 | 88,173 | 13,149 | 46,532 | 181,163 |
| May..... | 37,357 | 5,980 | 1,666,150 | 172,044 | 67,965 | 258,538 |
| June..... | 36,805 | 4,702 | 59,362 | 10,090 | 31,423 | 122,440 |
| Total..... | 374,963 | \$53,866 | 5,966,691 | \$587,120 | 925,980 | \$3,391,687 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| July..... | 50,027 | \$6,228 | 15,063 | \$2,346 | 65,248 | \$229,073 |
| August..... | 100,392 | 9,345 | 423,404 | 44,580 | 94,848 | 352,466 |
| September.... | 73,674 | 10,041 | 2,291,031 | 200,285 | 93,980 | 359,384 |
| October..... | 63,879 | 8,109 | 1,681,916 | 168,713 | 98,187 | 364,904 |
| November.... | 22,621 | 2,927 | 21,599 | 2,591 | 92,545 | 349,077 |
| December..... | 69,227 | 9,089 | 1,479,169 | 149,565 | 103,487 | 362,374 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January..... | 26,890 | 4,052 | 250 | 100 | 56,708 | 193,828 |
| February..... | 46,467 | 7,610 | 1,996,250 | 205,345 | 101,949 | 387,496 |
| March..... | 66,397 | 7,630 | 115,967 | 13,243 | 40,509 | 147,965 |
| April..... | 83,997 | 11,462 | 985,871 | 107,746 | 67,685 | 248,296 |
| Total..... | 603,571 | \$76,493 | 9,010,520 | \$894,514 | 815,146 | \$2,994,863 |

Imports of Tea and Silk into the United States for the nine months ending March 31, 1905, 1906 and 1907.

| TEA. | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|--|
| Imported from | 1905. | | 1906. | | 1907. | | |
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | |
| United Kingdom..... | 5,609,952 | 1,103,769 | 6,425,061 | 1,379,015 | 6,184,496 | 1,393,255 | |
| British North America.... | 1,646,871 | 377,954 | 1,579,630 | 378,200 | 1,763,089 | 422,690 | |
| Chinese Empire..... | 39,951,485 | 5,548,707 | 33,188,266 | 4,557,720 | 27,031,175 | 3,747,856 | |
| East Indies..... | 6,370,653 | 869,963 | 5,104,215 | 730,441 | 5,078,840 | 756,683 | |
| Japan..... | 39,751,461 | 6,770,764 | 36,696,662 | 5,927,554 | 35,985,276 | 5,810,933 | |
| Other Asia and Oceania .. | 280,866 | 36,480 | 354,707 | 61,464 | 520,228 | 91,566 | |
| Other countries | 216,563 | 46,436 | 148,185 | 34,383 | 275,250 | 61,566 | |
| Total..... | 93,827,851 | 14,754,073 | 83,496,726 | 13,068,777 | 76,838,354 | 12,284,549 | |
| RAW, OR AS REELED FROM THE COCOON. | | | | | | | |
| Imported from | 1905. | | 1906. | | 1907. | | |
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | |
| France..... | 619,555 | 1,794,015 | 393,020 | 1,436,633 | 328,031 | 1,269,424 | |
| Italy..... | 3,384,269 | 12,210,290 | 2,587,938 | 10,330,018 | 2,840,314 | 12,384,702 | |
| Chinese Empire..... | 2,068,708 | 5,706,856 | 2,102,531 | 6,112,003 | 2,412,770 | 8,249,029 | |
| Japan..... | 6,579,900 | 22,673,053 | 6,139,842 | 22,913,163 | 8,198,479 | 34,459,445 | |
| Other countries | 975,770 | 2,798,450 | 85,749 | 316,746 | 89,485 | 326,942 | |
| Total..... | 13,628,202 | 45,182,664 | 11,309,080 | 41,108,563 | 13,869,079 | 56,689,542 | |
| Waste.....lbs..free.. | 3,546,082 | 1,090,271 | 2,394,673 | 983,267 | 1,421,199 | 823,634 | |
| Total unmanufactured | | 46,280,796 | | 42,103,282 | | 57,536,732 | |

THE EVACUATION OF MANCHURIA.

A date of considerable importance in the history of Manchurian affairs, and indeed of affairs in the Far East generally, has passed this week with very little public notice. By the Treaty of Peace between Russia and Japan it was mutually agreed that the High Contracting Parties would completely withdraw their troops, other than railway guards, from Manchuria, except from the leased territory of the Liaotung peninsula, within a period of eighteen months from the day on which the Treaty came into operation. That date had been conventionally fixed for April 15, 1907, which is, in actual point of fact, nineteen months after the date (September 15, 1905) on which notifications of the ratification of the treaty were exchanged between the two governments. The engagement, therefore, came into operation last Monday. Formal notification had, however, some days earlier been given by the Japanese Minister at Peking to the Chinese Government that the withdrawal of Japanese troops was complete, and the Russian Minister was in the position to make a similar declaration. Japanese journals report, with regard to the railway guards, that the entire force now retained by Japan in Manchuria is one division—the 14th—under Lieutenant-General Sameshima, and three battalions of reservists. The former body was recently removed from Tieliang to Liaoyang, which will be its headquarters for the future. The number of troops represents ten men to every kilometre, or five less than the conventionally fixed number. For purposes of convenience about seven or eight men per kilometre will be posted along the line and the remainder will be retained at headquarters. We are not in possession of exact information in regard to the disposition of the Russian guards, but there is no reason to believe it is other than equally satisfactory.

Thus may China, at length, be said to be again in undisputed territorial possession of the rich and as yet little exploited provinces which cradled her present rulers. The gradual restoration of her powers during the past eighteen months has robbed the final moment of particular glamour, but it has also enabled her to form a more just conception

of the circumstances in which her sovereignty is resumed. Manchuria is China's, but never again in the old exclusive sense, which still rules throughout the eighteen provinces. Attempts have been made at Mukden and Kirin to impose restrictions on the terms by which they, in common with sixteen other towns, have been thrown open to the world's trade; those attempts were very promptly resisted and precedents have been established which make it improbable that similar obstructions will be raised in other centres. The terms of the supplementary treaty with Russia are unfortunately still delayed in settlement, but under the treaty with Japan progress has already been made in the direction of railway development, which should be of the greatest possible advantage. The depredations of the Hunghutze are also as yet frequent, and the manner of dealing with these troublesome bandits is one of the earliest problems China will have to face, if only to prevent any excuse for fresh intervention from outside.

To foreign traders in Shanghai and elsewhere the final evacuation of Manchuria brings the hope of at length finding that entry for their goods which was prematurely expected immediately on the declaration of peace. It is to China they must now look for a genuine opening up of the Eastern provinces as a market with equal opportunity for all. The control of the railway systems by Japan and Russia gives those countries apparent advantages, and the fact that by Article VII of the peace treaty it was agreed by both governments that they would "exploit their respective railways in Manchuria exclusively for commercial and industrial purposes," may be regarded as some warrant for pressing those advantages. To that article, however, no outside powers were parties, and they can justly hold both Japan and Russia to their declaration in favor of the Open Door, and to their reciprocal engagement (in Article VI) "not to obstruct any general measures common to all countries which China may take for the development of the commerce and industry of Manchuria." The events of the next few months will be watched very closely by those who, after a brief period of agitation, due to an easily understood desire to lose no time after the restoration of peace, have waited with admirable patience for the opportunities which should now be legitimately theirs.—*North China Daily News, April 19.*

LUNCHEON TO CONSUL GENERAL DENBY.

On the eve of his departure to assume the duties of Consul General of the United States at Shanghai, Hon. Charles Denby was entertained at luncheon on Tuesday, May 14, by the Executive Committee of the American Asiatic Association at the Downtown Club, 60 Pine street.

In the unavoidable absence of President Morse, First Vice President Lowell Lincoln, of the association, occupied the chair. John Foord, secretary of the association, who was charged with the duty of expressing the sentiments of the membership in regard to Mr. Denby's appointment, spoke as follows:

"It is hardly necessary for me to express the satisfaction with which the members of this association regard the appointment of our friend and fellow member, Mr. Charles Denby, as Consul General of the United States at Shanghai. It is a piece of exceptional good fortune for all American interests in China that they should have at the head of the consulate of the great treaty port so well trained and resolute a defender.

"Mr. Denby takes with him to his new post the fruits of a ripe experience gained during a long residence in China. To these he has added the no less valuable experience acquired during his service as chief clerk of the Department of State. It is very rarely that a man can be found for an important consular position possessing qualities so admirably fitted to secure the confidence at once of the Government to which he is accredited, of the business community whose interests are committed to his care, and of the Government to which he is responsible.

"In the whole course of our commercial relations with China there has been no time when it was quite so important for Americans doing business there to have a strong man as Consul General at Shanghai. The stirring of a new life, a new spirit of progress throughout the Chinese Empire is not without its latent menace to the legitimate exercise of foreign influence, and the legally secured rights of foreign interests. By no people in the world is the advent of a new China, more enlightened, stronger and more united, likely to be hailed with so much satisfaction as by the people of the United States. They are in hearty sympathy with every movement calculated to advance China along the path of modern civilization. But they cannot be unmindful of the fact that in taking a higher place than she has lately occupied in the family of nations China cannot afford to disregard the responsibilities she has assumed in the days of her tutelage. Mr. Denby takes with him to China a thorough understanding and a sympathetic appreciation of the new influences that are transforming the greatest and the oldest of empires. He may be trusted to combine tactful moderation with unyielding firmness in dealing with questions which are likely to come up in a time of profound national unrest. He may also be trusted to see to it that American commerce is deprived of none of the advantages which are enjoyed by that of other nations."

In reply, Mr. Denby said:

"Mr. President and Gentlemen—I have to thank you for the honor you have done me in taking notice in this way of my appointment to Shanghai, and for inviting me to

be with you. I thank you still more for the gratifying expression of your satisfaction at my nomination. It shall be the object of my official life to justify this approval.

"While increased commercial activity is not the sole nor perhaps the main object of successful government, yet increase of trade is a fair measure of a government's success. I go to China with some such spirit as this, and I know that my being sent there is a manifestation of the deep interest of my immediate superiors, the President and Secretary of State, in the promotion of American trade abroad. That is my object.

"I shall always regard myself as an employee and servant of the American people, and my efforts will always be in their behalf; my time at their disposal.

"While I think that the best motto for American trade expansion would be 'The American dollar with the American man behind it,' I have lived long enough in China to know that to be pro-American does not necessarily mean to be anti-anybody-else. While I shall encourage every disposition to have Americans represent American interests, I shall not less cordially recognize that American interests have been effectively and intelligently represented by others. I candidly believe that American representation of American trade is the best possible combination to secure such trade and to command the most sympathetic support of American officials abroad, but I am broad minded enough to recognize that the combination of a foreigner representing American interests or an American representing foreign interests is also deserving of cordial support. In fact I have lived long enough in China to know that there is a solidarity of interests common to us all, and that the interest of each is the interest of everybody."

"There are many ways in which a consul can be of service to his nation. Not dwelling on such elementary matters as that it is his duty to conduct himself with rectitude, patriotism and intelligence, and to allow no act of his to bring discredit on his countrymen, I conceive one of his foremost duties in China, at least, to be to establish such relations with the Chinese officials as to enable him to support with effect the representations of merchants of his nationality, and to induce the Chinese officials to consult him as to business questions.

"The national policies which this Government has been necessarily constrained to follow have given rise to a feeling of irritation on the part of the Chinese Government and officials, which is easily to be understood, but which intelligent handling can go far to alleviate; I refer to the exclusion policy, justified by the paramount needs of our own people, but which is so little understood by the masses of China as to make it appear as a national insult. While I shall not shirk the duty of enforcing the laws of my country without regard to who may suffer thereby, it will be my effort to so enforce them as to result in the least possible friction and, by leading to an understanding of the motives which dictated them, to relieve them of their apparent injustice.

"China is a great field open to us all, a field alike for merchant, missionary and student of political conditions. My long experience in it has only increased the enthusiasm with which I regard it as a field for intelligent effort. You gentlemen here are representatives of some of the greatest and most vital American interests in China, and I promise you that as far as it comes within my power to do so I shall protect and advance those interests in every way that intelligent and zealous attention will permit.

"For the next few years the interests of Americans in China, whether engaged in trade, in evangelization, in scientific research or in works of philanthropy, shall be my constant care."

JAPANESE IN AMERICA.

BY THE SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATION.

(From The Outlook.)

The Japanese came to America by our own procurement. At whose instance the policy of aggressive friendship toward Japan was first adopted by the Government of the United States does not clearly appear. There had been trouble over the treatment of ship-wrecked sailors of American whaling vessels, and the historic letter borne by Commodore Perry in 1853 had its first draft at the hands of Daniel Webster in May, 1851, and was recast by his successor, Edward Everett, in November, 1852. In the third annual message of President Fillmore to Congress, dated December 6, 1852, a reference is made to the extension of our settlements on the shores of the Pacific, and to the new direction which had been imparted to our commerce on that ocean. A direct and rapidly increasing intercourse had sprung up with eastern Asia. The waters of the northern Pacific, even into the Arctic Sea, had of late years been frequented by our whalers. The application of steam to the general purposes of navigation was becoming daily more common, and made it desirable to obtain fuel and other necessary supplies at convenient points on the route between Asia and our Pacific shores. Then followed this notable passage of the message: "Our unfortunate countrymen who from time to time suffer shipwreck on the coasts of the eastern seas are entitled to protection. Besides these specific objects, the general prosperity of our States on the Pacific requires that an attempt should be made to open the opposite regions of Asia to a mutually beneficial intercourse. It is obvious that this attempt could be made by no power to so great advantage as by the United States, whose constitutional system excludes every idea of distant colonial dependencies. I have accordingly been led to order an appropriate naval force to Japan, under the command of a discreet and intelligent officer of the highest rank known to our service. He is instructed to endeavor to obtain from the government of that country some relaxation of the inhospitable and anti-social system which it has pursued for about two centuries. He has been directed particularly to remonstrate in the strongest language against the cruel treatment to which our shipwrecked mariners have often been subjected, and to insist that they shall be treated with humanity."

The President's letter, for whose conveyance a fleet of six vessels was provided, was incased in a rosewood box bound with gold, and was addressed "To His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Japan." It was signed "Your good friend, Millard Fillmore."

But it happened that the Emperor of Japan had been condemned for some two hundred and fifty years to live in dignified retirement, and that the real ruler of Japan was the master of three hundred military clans, known as the Shogun. The Shogun held his court at Yedo; the Emperor passed a life of effeminate and somewhat poetic luxury at Kioto. Nevertheless, the Emperor in his sacrosanct isolation remained the visible embodiment of the

State, and by 1853 a movement was fairly under way to restore to the Imperial House the power of which it had been bereft.

He who would understand the modern Japanese must study, from such materials as are available, the course of their national life in the two hundred and fifty years of peace that followed the battle of Sikigahara, at which the lords of the feudal clans met their final defeat and were compelled to accept the rule of the victor, Tokugawa Ieyasu, the founder of the Shogunate. It is certain that the evolution from the old to the new was not *per saltum*, but, like most other historic processes, a slow and gradual one. The Shogunate was already doomed when Commodore Perry's black ships first darkened the waters of the Bay of Yedo bearing President Fillmore's letter pressing our friendship on an unwilling people and a much disgusted government. The knell of the Shogunate was sounded when its ministers were compelled to conclude a treaty with the United States, among whose twelve articles were included these fatal concessions: Two additional ports—Shimoda and Hakodate—were to be opened to international commerce; shipwrecked American sailors were to be hospitably treated; and the United States was authorized to appoint consuls or agents to reside in Shimoda.

Under the terms of this latter provision came the first American envoy, Townsend Harris, to Japan, bringing with him suggestions less masterful than those of Commodore Perry, but not less significant, for the negotiation of a treaty providing for a more comprehensive and more intimate friendship. With the signing of this treaty in 1858 began ten years of internal disorder for Japan, which witnessed the death-throes of the Shogunate, the revival of the influence of the three great clans of Satsuma, Choshu and Mito, and the restoration of the Imperial House to power. But the stirring of a new spirit in Japan had been felt years before. Interesting evidence of this may be found in the life and letters of Joseph Hardy Neesima, whose Japanese name was Neesima Shimeta, and who, while his country was in chaos, conceived the idea that the only path of permanent safety lay in its conversion to Christianity. While still in his teens, Neesima got hold of a history of the United States written in Chinese by an American missionary, Dr. Bridgman, and, after reading it many times, vented these naïve reflections: "I thought that a Governor of our country must be as President of the United States. And I murmured [*sic*] myself that, O Governor of Japan! why do you keep us down as a dog or a pig? We are people of Japan. If you govern us, you must love us as your children. . . . Why government? Why not let us be freely? Why let us be as a bird in a cage or a rat in a bag? Nay! We must cast away such a savage government, and we must pick out a president as the United States of America."

Thus, in the early sixties, the leaven of American influ-

ence was doing its work in Japan, and men like Neesima were filled with the desire to pursue their education here. The great Japanese evangelist escaped from his country by the aid of a Yankee skipper, who risked the loss of his ship in being party to an act that was then punishable by death. But though the then Government of Japan refused to permit the emigration of its subjects, there came to Washington in the last days of the Shogunate one Masaoki Shimmi to present the greetings of his Government to the President. He was accompanied by two subordinates bearing the names of Muragaki Awajino Kami and Oguri Jooshu. This was early in 1860, and was one of several missions which about that time were sent by the Shogunate to other countries. In the course of the next ten years there must have been a slow infiltration of Japanese, students and others, into this country. In one of Neesima's letters, written at Amherst in October, 1869, he speaks of the work of the American Missionary Society taking cognizance of a "few Japanese on the Pacific coast." When the great embassy of 1872 arrived on our shores on its way to Europe, it found small groups of Japanese students at various American colleges. This embassy was composed of four Cabinet Ministers and of commissioners in the several administrative departments of the recently organized empire, and was under the conduct of Iwakura Tomoni, one of the most distinguished of Japanese nobles and statesmen. In the letter of credence which it presented in Washington the objects of the embassy were declared to be a desire to reform and improve the treaties existing between Japan and the United States, so that the former could "stand upon a similar footing with the most enlightened nations." There was, further, the declared purpose of selecting from the various institutions prevailing among enlightened nations such as were best suited to the conditions of Japan, and of adopting such gradual reforms and improvements in Japanese policy and customs as would place the Empire upon an equality with the most enlightened nations of the world.

In its diplomatic purpose the embassy was a failure, the fifteen treaty powers to which it was accredited being unwilling to surrender their extraterritorial rights and to commit the sole administration of justice to a people still without a civil code and to whom trial by jury and the writ of habeas corpus were unknown. But the commission took with it vastly enlarged ideas as to the conditions of national progress, and had the benefit from that time on of the advice and assistance of Joseph Neesima, the real founder of the educational system of Japan. Neesima's work was earnest, thorough, and far-reaching; its guidance was absolutely American, and in its earlier stages it would have been impossible without American support. For nearly a generation the most effective contributions to the intellectual development of Japan have come from this side. The best evidence of this is to be found in the fact that of all the hosts of Japanese students who have flocked to the West, as well as of those who have been called from Western colleges to engage in educational work in Japan, only Yale and Harvard have mustered sufficient force to form permanent organizations among the Japanese.

The Harvard Club of Tokio numbers some forty members, equally divided between Americans and the Japanese, while in the Yale association the native element largely predominates. Some of the leading statesmen of Japan are Harvard men—Baron Komura, Baron Kaneko, Mr. Kurino, and Mr. Megata being among the number.

Before the year 1900 the total number of Japanese immigrants to the United States seldom reached 1,500 per annum, the only notable exceptions being the years 1898 and 1899, when the arrivals were 2,230 and 2,844 respectively. In 1900 the figures rose to 12,635, and up to the present time that has been about the annual average, though in 1903 the total rose as high as 19,968. Of this immigration fully seventy per cent. has Hawaii as its primary destination, only twenty-five to thirty per cent. coming directly to the Pacific coast. The subsequent infiltration of Japanese laborers from Hawaii being coastwise transit, does not figure in the immigration returns. As a general proposition, it may be stated with entire confidence that the Japanese come to America with the same hope and aspirations as the average European immigrant—to better their condition and enjoy a higher standard of living. Leaving the laborers out of the question, who in most essential respects are a class superior to those whom we get from southern Italy, Poland, or Bohemia, the other classes of immigrants that Japan sends to the United States are more energetic, more industrious, more thrifty, and more intelligent than the average Japanese at home. It is this better class of immigrants from Japan who come with the intention of being permanent residents and of identifying themselves, as far as they can, with the American people. The majority of Japanese who have achieved some measure of success in their selected lines of occupation in this country are earnestly desirous of becoming citizens. It is the existing statutory bar and not the lack of intention on the part of the Japanese that prevents them from entering the pale of citizenship. Japanese patriotism, perfervid as it is, does not deter the Japanese who succeeds in business here from desiring to throw in his lot unreservedly with this Republic. Any question as to the adaptability of the Japanese to our civic requirements can be readily answered by any one who has made the acquaintance of any considerable number of them doing business or following a professional vocation in New York, Chicago, Boston or San Francisco.

Considering the relatively small contribution made to our population by a nation of 45,000,000 of people, the number of Japanese who have attained, in one way or another, recognizable eminence in the United States is somewhat remarkable. One of the oldest of Japanese settlers here is the owner of a vineyard in California, Mr. K. Nagasawa, who sends out thousands of tons of grapes annually. Domoto is another Japanese name identified with floriculture in California, as Sekine is on Long Island. The Japanese agricultural colony in Texas is of more recent date, and is chiefly devoted to rice culture. Among the Japanese farmers in that State Mr. Y. Mayumi owns the largest area, amounting to some sixteen hundred acres. He was one of the wealthiest land owners at home, belonging

to the class who are entitled to vote for a representative to the House of Peers. He employs expert farmers from Japan as foremen, and his white neighbors as laborers. Perhaps the most successful pioneer in this rice belt is Mr. Saibara, who has succeeded in showing an average yield per acre large enough to make his farm a place of unusual interest to students of agriculture throughout the Southwest. Mr. Saibara was once a member of the Japanese House of Representatives. He is a Christian, and was formerly principal of the well known educational institution known as the Doshisha, which was founded by Neesima with the aid of funds largely contributed in the United States.

In scientific investigation Dr. J. Takamine holds the first position among the Japanese in this country. His discovery of adrenaline and taka-diastase entitles him to a high rank among those who have contributed to the relief of human suffering. Both of these preparations are the fruit of his chemical labors in the United States and he is still engaged in the work of chemical research. A junior man of science, Mr. H. Noguchi, has achieved fame in the investigation of snake-poison in the University of Pennsylvania, and is on the staff of the Rockefeller Institute. Another, Dr. N. Yatsu, holds the place of lecturer in zoology in Columbia University. A third, Mr. T. Takami, is at present one of the lecturers in the medical department of Cornell University, of which he is one of the alumni. In the literary field Mr. K. Asakawa, a graduate of Dartmouth, and now occupying a position in Yale University, is fairly well known as a student of history. Mr. T. Iyenaga is a lecturer on Japanese history in the University of Chicago.

The names of the Japanese who have succeeded in business here would make a very long list. Among them may be enumerated Mr. R. Arai, representing Morimura, Arai & Co., who came to this country some twenty years ago and has made a fortune in the raw silk business. His firm imports more than one-third of the total amount of raw silk annually imported in the United States. The great house of Mitsui, which as bankers and merchants has had a long historic continuity in Japan, and which even during the feudal period, when the pursuit of commerce bore a certain stigma of social odium, held a position of honor, is represented in New York as well as on the Pacific coast. Mr. Y. Murai is the chief partner of Morimura Brothers, importers of china, bronzes, and other artistic products of Japan. In the Japanese tea trade in New York there are a number of representative men, among whom Mr. Furuuya is the best known. In Chicago a similar place is occupied by Mr. Mizutani. There are two newspapers published weekly in New York and printed in Japanese, known as the *Japanese-American Commercial Weekly* and the *Japanese Weekly Times*.

Even in Hawaii, where the humblest class of Japanese have come, to the number of sixty thousand, in response to the demand for labor, the capacity of the race to improve any chance for advancement is being exemplified. Japanese are becoming owners and tenants of small farms; they are the plumbers, tinsmiths, carpenters, plasterers, and painters

of the Territory. A recent bulletin of the Bureau of Labor contains this testimony of a by no means friendly investigator: "The Japanese of Hawaii are alert to seize every opportunity to advance themselves in the knowledge of the skilled trades and mechanical industries. Both on and off the plantations, wherever a Japanese is given a position as assistant to a skilled worker or in a mechanical position, he becomes a marvel of industry, disregarding hours, working early and late, and displaying a peculiarly far-sighted willingness to be imposed upon and do the work which properly belongs to the workman he is assisting."

Though Hawaii is wholly dependent on the sugar industry for its economic prosperity, the raising of coffee is assuming an important place in its agriculture. But, just as cane cultivation would have to be abandoned without Japanese aid, so coffee planting succeeds only in Japanese hands. Some of the largest producers have leased all their lands, and in one instance even the coffee mill, to Japanese contracting companies. These companies take over the plantation and they plant, cultivate, harvest and prepare for market the crop, selling to the owner and former manager, who thus becomes merely a merchant, interested in the sale but not directly concerned in the production of coffee. Another planter has an arrangement by which Japanese laborers plant, cultivate, and pick coffee upon his land, delivering it to him at a fixed price, which is said to average about eighty-eight cents a hundredweight of berry. The banana industry is falling into Japanese hands, as is also the cultivation of pineapples. Even the sugar industry is being invaded by Japanese capital, a cultivation company of some fifty-five members having taken a five-year contract to raise all the cane upon one of the smaller plantations. Another company has been organized in Tokyo, with a capital of \$250,000, for the purpose of leasing lands belonging to one of the large plantations and cultivating cane to be sold to the mill. This concern proposes to furnish its own labor, build its own houses, furnish its own implements of agriculture, and, generally speaking, cover the entire field of the exclusive conduct of a sugar plantation of sixteen hundred acres. The steady drift of Japanese laborers from Hawaii to the mainland was, of course, due to the inducements offered them by railway contractors and others, but differed in no sense from the movement of the laboring class of any other nationality whose services are in request for some of the manifold activities of our ceaseless national development.

CHINESE EXCLUSION.

To the Editor of The Sun:

SIR: A memorial to Congress from the States west of the Rocky Mountains setting forth the opinions and wishes of the people regarding the presence of Asiatics would cause some surprise. It would show that throughout this region there has never existed that strong feeling against the Chinese which has been promulgated in political circles. It would show that for fifty years these people have been misrepresented by the press and politicians in subserviency, first to the gold miners of California, then to the San

Francisco sandlotters and Kearneyites, and finally to union labor.

It would show, even if true or partially true as represented, that whatever may have been public sentiment in times past the problem has worked itself out to such results that anyone may see what the interests of the country are at the present time. It would show that a large proportion of the best citizens of these States, farmers, merchants and manufacturers, orchardists, irrigationists and railroad men, the bone and sinew and brains of the land, those most interested in progressive industries and most active in general development, are not opposed to Asiatic labor, more especially Chinese labor, but are in favor of the admission into the United States of the people of China on an equality with the other yellow men of Asia, and with the white men of Europe. It would show how the several grades of labor require corresponding grades of laborers; that the skilled mechanic will not do the work of the hod carrier, nor the common city laborer become a factory operative, farm hand, or domestic drudge. Yet the comforts of civilization and the progress and prosperity of the nation depend more upon low grade than upon high grade labor.

Such a memorial would show that for this most necessary low grade work Africans and Europeans are out of the question; that in agricultural and horticultural districts particularly it is Asiatic labor or none. However valuable the negro may be to the Southern planter, he is worth nothing to Northern industry. The white working man in America, if sober and industrious, is not satisfied as a permanency with either farm hand or factory work; he aspires to the independence of a householder, and wants his daughters, instead of serving, to have servants of their own. Finally, such a memorial would show, as between Chinese and Japanese labor, that the former is greatly preferred.

The statements of these hypothetical memorialists, and other facts of like import, are all susceptible of proof, however strange it may seem, that for half a century half the world has been laboring under false impressions owing to the influence of hundreds of printed journals and thousands of public speakers, whose main purpose was to play upon the passions and prejudices of some while throwing dust in the eyes of others.

The early gold gatherers at the California placers, where the baiting of the Chinese in America began, took up the matter in a spirit of bravado and continued it as sport. Of all the strange humanity that came hither to share in the spoils of the land looted from Mexico by Polk's politicians none seemed more strange to the unsophisticated miners than those timed Celestials, with oblique eyes and shuffling gait, who confined their industry mainly to abandoned mines and rejected tailings.

There were other interlopers present who came under the ban of the legislative edict, passed soon after the organization of government, imposing a tax on all foreigners mining in California, white men from England, France and Germany, and men of dusky skin, Mexicans, Kanakas, mulattoes, and tropical islanders; but the former were able to take care of themselves, while the latter fled upon the approach of trouble. Only the patient plodding Chinaman remained to bear the brunt of the law, aimed in reality only at him—and after a long series of injustice and outrages in its execution finally declared illegal.

While the miners must have their fun. Here to-

day, there to-morrow, and back home before the end of the year, they cared for nothing, nor did any one else, for the little gold the Asiatics gleaned from their leavings; but it was rare sport on a Sunday afternoon, when filled with whiskey, and mounted on mustangs, to raid a Chinese camp and see the Celestials scatter before their cracking pistols. When it came to knife practice, if peradventure some unlucky wight got his queue cut off too near the shoulder, they were willing to apologize like gentlemen and admit that the joke was on them. To quiet their easy consciences, in the absence of any stray theft or murder to be fastened on their victims, there stood against them the law, which it was the duty of all good citizens always to uphold.

After the placers became exhausted the Chinese drifted into other humble occupations, always useful, always unoffending. A little laundry was established in every town; some raised vegetables and peddled them from huge baskets swung to a pole across the shoulder, selling even to farmers, who in California as a rule decline the trouble of a vegetable garden of their own. The Chinese made excellent house servants; the best, the most efficient, the most faithful, economical and respectful that this or any other country has ever seen. Housewives and mothers they relieved from domestic drudgery, making rural life possible to thousands of families. The Chinese would have assisted in building up manufacturing industries, large and small, had they been permitted to do so. In the country, for many years and over wide areas, they alone made the fruit industry possible.

Here the trouble would have ended but for the evil influences of newspapers and politicians, who would not let die the agitation by which they had made money and secured power and place. Union labor became the chief support of the demagogues, who sought by every means in their power, and by endless iteration, to instil into the minds of white workmen the idea that they sustained wrongs and injuries by the presence of Asiatics. To the more intelligent class, who saw the falsity of their statements and detected the cloven foot under their robes of patriotism, they presented the moral and political sides, showing the effect of an American heathen who would not assimilate upon our institutions, our lives and liberties, but they did not mention the problem involved in the presence of ten million African citizens and in the coming of many millions of aliens from the slums of European cities.

The agitators could always find a hearing among certain classes, saloon keepers and their patrons, hotel keepers and those who lived by or upon the public, pothouse politicians, loafers and all non-workers. Merchants, manufacturers and business men generally not directly interested would not go out of their way to engage in useless discussion; hence many were held to be anti-Asiatic who were not so in reality. It should be borne in mind that by this time, and long before, no newspaper could live and no politician obtain office who did not denounce the Chinese.

To learn that the Chinese are preferred to Japanese we have only to ask any one who has employed both. Japanese labor, however, is better than none. Anything is better than the continuation of this dog in the manger policy of union labor, which will neither do the work nor permit others to do it. Already a labor famine is upon us. The fruit industry in California is seriously imperilled and other industries have probably received their death-blow.

Knowing, then, the men and means and the purposes by and for which these several consummations have come to pass, it is quite plain that Asiatic exclusion as a policy protective of national or individual interests, or for any other reason or pretence, is and has been from the beginning a stupendous sham. The authors of it well know that their attitude is deceptive, their professions are insincere, their assertions hollow, and their reasoning false.

Digitized by HUBERT HOWE BANCROFT.
SAN FRANCISCO, May 9.

THE CHINA ASSOCIATION.

At the annual meeting of the China Association, held in London on March 26, the Chairman made the following remarks in regard to the work of the year:

I propose only to touch on one or two of the leading matters which occupied the time of the committee during the past year. First of all, I would like to refer to the Kowloon-Canton railway, and to say that it must be very gratifying to the members that this long drawn out business, which seemed never likely to be settled, within a very few months after the arrival of Sir John Jordan in Peking has been brought to a satisfactory conclusion. (Hear, hear.) It is a big feather in his cap. It is a great gain to this country, because there is no doubt that those interested in the trade of Hong Kong view with very great concern the delay which took place in carrying through what they recognized was going to be very vital to the prosperity of the island, especially as it was threatened with a rival line from Canton to Whampoa and Amoy with the object of tapping the trade of Hong Kong and diverting it down to Whampoa. I think there is no doubt about it that this carrying through of the Kowloon-Canton railway is going to be a distinct advantage to British trade and the trade of Hong Kong, and I should like to say how gratified the committee have been at seeing the unbounded energy that has been displayed by the Governor of Hong Kong, Sir Matthew Nathan—(Hear, hear)—in urging forward the completion of the British section of that railway, the section that runs to the Kowloon border. One of the most important questions that has occupied the attention of the branches in China and of the parent Association has been the changes in the administration of the Imperial Maritime Customs. You will, I think, all recognize that the position taken up by the Association, both in China and in London, has been a wise one, and from that we do not depart for one moment. For the time being things have quietened down; we have in a measure got a peg put in, but how long that peg will remain who can say? As far as the guarantees for the loans are concerned, you are aware that Sir Robert Hart was the subordinate of the Tsung-li Yamén and the Wai-wu-pu till a new department, the Shui Wu Chu, was created last year. While we have no reason to think that the present loans and guarantees will not be just as safe under the Shui Wu Chu as they were under the Wai-wu-pu, we are not so certain that the working of the Imperial Maritime Customs in relation to British trade may not be liable to insidious movements on the part of reactionary officials directed against the foreign inspectorate, and it behooves those entrusted with the work of the Association to maintain a constant watch on every movement of the Chinese officials. (Hear, hear.) The next matter in the report is the piracy on the Canton River, which, as you all know, has been of a very grave nature, and though for the moment it seems to have stopped, I am not so certain that there is likely to be any enduring safety in that delta. Until the Chinese authorities take some strong steps, similar to those adopted by Li Hung Chang when he was Viceroy of Canton, I think it is pretty safe

to assume that the piracy will not be completely stamped out. You will see from the report that in the case of the steamer Sainam, which was a most violent case of piracy in which there was a loss of life and large destruction of property, our Government have not seen fit to support the claim that was made by the owners, and supported by the Hong Kong branch and by ourselves, for a monetary punitive indemnity. The owners of the steamer, in their letters, made very clear that they did not want to benefit themselves by any sum that might be exacted from the Chinese authorities, but they considered—and we agree with them—that the only way to stop things of this sort, is to bring home to the mandarins through their pockets, by a large and substantial monetary punitive indemnity, the fact that they cannot do these things with impunity. However, though we have urged it very strongly to the Foreign Office, we regret that His Majesty's Government have not seen fit to support us. I think all those who have been resident in Shanghai, as many of us have, cannot but feel gratified that the long expected Whangpoo Conservancy scheme has at last been brought into being. A very satisfactory staff of engineers, headed by Mr. de Rijke, has been appointed. Mr. Hobson, the Commissioner of Customs, is a very able man to be associated with the Chinese officials, and the official information which has reached the committee, and which has also been received from private sources, shows that the work of the Conservancy is really making progress, and we have every reason to hope that before many years are passed that muddy ditch, which was in danger of closing altogether, will be so changed that instead of large steamers experiencing difficulty in approaching the wharves and getting up to Shanghai, they may as easily get to that port as they do to Liverpool. (Hear, hear.) Those are the main things that have occupied our attention. They are very important, all of them, and what I urge upon you is this, that the publications of the Association, which involve a very great amount of labor—and we are largely indebted to our president for many or most of the very able papers which have been submitted to the Foreign Office—merit very close attention. I think you should read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest every word that is written there. We have to express our sympathy with the Shanghai committee in the great loss they have sustained by the departure from Shanghai of Sir Charles Dudgeon. You are all aware that for many years past Sir Charles Dudgeon has been the head and front of the Shanghai branch. He has been most energetic. No man there has known more about Chinese matters and has taken more trouble to press forward British rights through the Association than Sir Charles Dudgeon, and we deeply regret his vacating of the chair in Shanghai. We are hopeful, however, that on his return home we may have the benefit of welcoming him at the committee table, where his help will be most valuable. (Hear, hear.) It is also very gratifying to the committee here to know of the great energy which has been displayed by the Hong Kong branch under its present chairman, Mr. Stewart. Mr. Stewart has been most energetic in keeping

us posted, almost by every mail, in regard to everything that touched British interests and those of the China Association, and I should like to note that we are grateful to him and to his committee for all they have done. Before turning to the accounts, I should like to express the extreme sorrow of the committee and of the Association at the losses sustained during the year. Our President at the annual dinner feelingly and gracefully alluded to some of the members who had passed from us, and since then two or three very old and highly respected members have been removed. Mr. Pollard was a Hong Kong identity in very early days, very prominent and very highly respected; and I need only mention the name of the late Sir Thomas Hanbury to feel that you are with me in deploring the loss

of a man who was highly respected in Shanghai, and who was a member of our committee. Turning to the accounts, we wound up the year with a debit balance of £52, the reason for this being the very large amount of printing done, costing £254. But I think every penny was well spent in bringing before our members a full record of what has passed during the year. Last year we had the great gratification of entertaining the Chinese Commissioners at dinner, and there was a debit balance on that which more than weighs against the debit balance of the year; but I am sure you will agree with me that on occasions of that sort it behooves us to do everything in the social way to suitably entertain these strangers who come among us from the far country. (Cheers.)

JAPANESE TRADE IN MANCHURIA.

(FROM A CORRESPONDENT OF THE LONDON TIMES.)

SOUTHERN MANCHURIA, March 8.

It is now very many months since the southern half of Manchuria was occupied by the Japanese, and I came to the country fully expecting to find the major portion of its trade in Japanese hands. In Shanghai nearly every one, and especially nearly every American, was talking of the impossibility of competing with the Japanese, and of how long established European business firms would inevitably have to see their profits dwindling, and how, in a few years' time, the slow and carefully built up trade relations would be undermined by the competition of the "hated Japs." Shanghai is unfortunately just now passing through rather bad days. It has suffered from an American invasion, and this host of American business men, shopkeepers, and barkeepers, not to mention the very large number of those pursuing trade one does not write about, has had a bad influence on Shanghai. The newly established American Court has had its hands full, and, judging by the number of convictions during the past weeks, it will not be long before Shanghai is rid of many of these undesirables. It was from Shanghai, it will be remembered, that General Des-sino and M. Pavloff, the Russian ex-Minister to Korea, issued their wonderful telegrams, and a legacy from these gentlemen still remains in the shape of a reptile press of the worst description, in which every incident possible is seized upon and distorted to the calumny and disadvantage of the Japanese. The Japanese, in their turn, are accused of writing articles in the Chinese press against Europeans and Americans, but this accusation has not been proved. However, the result of all this is that the feeling against the Japanese in Shanghai is extremely strong, so much so that a strenuous movement was got up to prevent the Japanese from wearing their kimonos, on the grounds of indecency, in the public park, where the Portuguese and the

lesser élite of the European assemble on summer nights to listen to a Filipino band, and inhale the breezes from the muddy river. This, of course, is a most trivial incident in itself, but is an illuminating one. As I had lived for some years in Siberia and China and had paid very frequent visits to Japan, I discounted all the charges I heard against the gallant islanders; but on my arriving in Niu-chwang I was prepared for eventualities, as I concluded that under a cloud of smoke of jealousy and malice I should probably find a flame, burning brightly and dangerously enough.

In Niu-chwang most of the merchants had made very large sums by tendering for contracts for the Russians. Beef, flour, and rice seem to have been the chief articles, and, as the prices were fixed as high as possible, their recollections of the Russians are of the most roseate—or, perhaps, gilt would be a better word—description. Land values rose very much, too, under the Russian régime, and this is gratefully remembered. Feeling in Niu-chwang was even more inflamed against the Japanese than in Shanghai, people at the same time extolling the Chinese. I think that the reason of this is that the Japanese by his civilization and progress claims equality, and justly enough, with the European and American in China. When one sees that some of these are people of no education or position, and that their manners and morals leave much to be desired, one cannot be surprised at the Japanese claim. When the Chinese, in the course of a few years, backed by education and arms, will no longer submit to their present treatment by nations and individuals, I think that the present much-professed love for their race will vanish. But what was of more importance was that trade had not apparently suffered at all. When I said I was going into the interior to do business in some of the inland towns, every one said,

"How we pity you; you will have no end of troubles with the Japanese * * * they will spy on you, damage your business, and you will have a dreadful time." All this was six months ago. Since that time Niu-chwang has been handed back to China, and I have traveled by railway and cart over a large part of Southern Manchuria. I state unhesitatingly that British and American trade is better now in this part of Manchuria than it ever has been, and that the Japanese in no way interfere with or hinder European or American merchants.

FAILURE OF JAPAN TO SEIZE THE TRADE.

There has been a lot of talk about preferential tariff on the railway. Residents in Niu-chwang declared that a Japanese could secure a freight car at a much lower rate than a Chinese or European, but only a week ago I was talking to the Chinese manager of the largest transportation company in these parts and to the manager of one of the oldest established British shipping firms, and they both said that, after careful investigation, as such a state of things would seriously affect their businesses, they were quite certain that there was absolutely no foundation for the accusation. What struck me most has been the utter failure of Japan to take advantage of her position and get into her hands the great trade of Manchuria. This she has not done, and in towns where there are as many as 2,000 Japanese civilians you will not find any large or important Japanese firms, with the exception of Japan's premier firm, the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha. Seeing the vast wealth there is yearly exported from Manchuria, much of it actually being carried by their ceded half of what used to be the Chinese-Eastern railway, it is incomprehensible that the Japanese should not by now have a firmer commercial footing than they have. The Japanese in Manchuria is a contractor to the Japanese army, a restaurant keeper, a barber, a general storekeeper (whose customers are nearly all Japanese), or he may keep a porcelain store or wine depot, where again he supplies only Japanese needs. With the above mentioned exception of the Mitsui and perhaps one other firm, you cannot find among all the thousands of Japanese any equivalent to the large export and import firms that Europeans and Americans have started in other parts of China. On speaking to Japanese about it you are always met with the same phrase, "want of capital;" and, although this is partly true, it is my opinion that want of enterprise and business instinct should be added. If a European power or American had commanded the commercial position that Japan did and still does command, we should find prosperous business firms in the large Chinese towns, and a large part of the exports finding their way to the public auction rooms of London or New York. The Japanese in Manchuria belong mostly to the lower rougher classes, and their demeanor towards Europeans, especially if these behave in an arrogant way, is often exceedingly impolite and unpleasant—in fact, any one who has seen the Japanese in their own delightful country could hardly credit that these men are of the same race, and it is this rude behavior of the lower classes in Manchuria that has no doubt to a large extent, produced the intense dislike with

which the Japanese are regarded. The much more serious and more talked about trade competition does not, however, exist and at present, notwithstanding their strategic position, they have signally failed, while the few enterprising European and American firms trading in this part of the world have seen with gratification their business and profits steadily increasing. But this is no reason why the merchant, as he is only too prone to do, should congratulate himself and do nothing. The days when the "Taipan" could sit in his counting house in Shanghai or Hong Kong, engage a "compradore," and order goods after having exhibited a few samples are past and gone. With the progress in China itself the competition among Europeans, Americans, and also Japanese, and the opening up of the country by railway and treaty, these methods will no longer do. Chinese speaking salesmen, a closer knowledge of Chinese wants, and a more close adaptation of foreign goods to Chinese requirements are imperative for imports, while for exports, by means of Chinese speaking employees, the merchant would get into much closer touch with the market, buy his goods at a cheaper rate, and could relegate the compradore—useful enough in some ways—to a subordinate position.

Nobody grudges Japan her fair share of commercial success, especially from the country in which she has sacrificed so much of her life's blood, with such splendid political results to herself. But the Japanese do not in any way hinder foreigners, and there is no reason why they should not share largely in this newly opened and very rich market.

JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES.

At the banquet given by citizens of New York to General Baron Tamemoto Kuroki, Vice-Admiral Iguin and the visiting officers of the Japanese army and navy, the following address was made by Secretary Straus of the Department of Commerce and Labor:

"All mankind loves a lover," and the whole world honors a hero, especially if his laurels were won in a just cause. France had her Napoleon, England her Wellington, Germany her Moltke, America had her Grant and has her Dewey, and Japan has her Kuroki. Self-preservation is the first law of nations as well as of nature, and even those of us who took part in the great Peace Congress that only a few weeks ago echoed its messages of hope from so many platforms must recognize the potency and necessity of that law of nations.

More important than the limitations of armaments is to limit the causes of war, and this can best be done by infusing into international relations the hypodermic solution of international morality. The so-called code of honor between individuals has, within the memory of the living, practically disappeared, and the code of law has replaced it, to the credit of our civilization. A like transformation is taking place in the field of international ethics, so that the so-called doctrine of expediency based on might is

fast giving way to the principles of international relations based upon right.

No country and no people in the history of ancient or modern civilization has ever gone through a more rapid renaissance than the island kingdom of Japan, and that is because "this child of the world's old age" had been brought up by parents who had lived through centuries of development and civilization, which served her as a spring-board to leap within a generation from out of her Oriental slumbers to the front rank among nations. It is but half a century ago when America, through her Commodore Perry, took Japan by the hand and led her out of her Oriental seclusion and showed her the triumphs of our Western civilization and introduced her with proverbial American hospitality to the council board of Western nations. From that time to this the closest relations of amity and friendship have continued between America and Japan. Some thirty years later our country followed Great Britain in recognizing the wonderful progress in all that constitutes a civilized nation in conceding to Japan the full rights of an independent nation and in consenting to the abolition of extra-territorial privileges and endowing her with full and complete judicial autonomy. The government and people of Japan, not unmindful of the good will and sponsorship of our country, are too wise to permit the San Francisco school incident, which was fostered by ignorance and propagated by injustice, to cloud their just appreciation of the enlightened spirit of American institutions.

Japan, alone among nations, has given the world an example of how a people can throw off the shackles of an oppressive autocracy and endow itself with all the safeguards of liberty and justice under a constitutional form of government without going through the terrible struggles and devastation of bloody revolutions, by following along the paths of peaceful evolution. Japan is the land of liberty, civil and religious. Her religious liberty is even far in advance of nations who pride themselves upon this most precious of national virtues. Her people have no prejudices based upon religious or ecclesiastical grounds, and all men of every church and creed are free and equal to worship their God in accordance with the dictates of their own conscience, in the fullest and widest acceptance of the meaning of religious liberty.

We heartily welcome her conquering hero, who has fought battles which will rank among the greatest in history and whose army has never once met with defeat. What is the message that this great and modest hero brings to us? Permit me to quote his own words: "The Japanese people love peace and want peace. They fought for peace, which without fighting could not have been. My nation wants peace—peace in which to develop. We have no other desire. The profession it is my fate to follow is noble only in that it is sometimes useful in establishing conditions in which peace may be maintained and the arts of peace may flourish." Nobler sentiments never fell from the lips of a conquering hero. They will stand beside those that were uttered by the hero of Appomattox, who said, "Let us have peace."

Viscount Aoki, the Japanese Ambassador, spoke as follows:

I am proud to feel that I have been asked to be one of your guests this evening, and words fail to give adequate expression to the feelings of profound satisfaction with which I see this spontaneous act on the part of the distinguished citizens of this great metropolis in according such a brilliant and cordial reception to the sons of Japan. But I must say that I feel a still greater satisfaction when I stop to analyze the underlying meaning of the fraternization that we see to-night of the two great peoples who are separated by that vast expanse of water which is known as the Pacific Ocean. The military and the naval branches of the fighting forces of the two countries are brilliantly represented this evening, but the most impressive feature of this assemblage is that the resplendent martial uniforms of the two countries are intermingling with each other in a mission of peace and that the brave men who are worthy of the handsomest women in the world are singing in one chorus the glory of peace.

The glory of a successful war is brilliant, but the glory of peace is greater. Viewed in this light, I feel particular gratification in seeing the fighting strength of the United States so worthily represented here this evening, and while I express my sincere thanks to the prominent citizens of New York for organizing a most hospitable and brilliant reception to my countrymen, my sincere thanks is also due to the officers of the United States Army and Navy who have honored us with their presence and more especially to Admiral Dewey, who has been good enough to preside at this banquet."

THE EXPORT OF RAW SILK FROM JAPAN IN 1906.

The export of raw silk in 1906 reached a phenomenal figure, exceeding one hundred million yen in value. The following table indicates the approximate value of the export as compared with the figures recorded for 1903—the year preceding the Russo-Japanese War:

| Destination. | 1903. Yen. | 1906. Yen. |
|---------------------|---------------|---------------|
| United States | 47,018,558 | 74,534,000 |
| France | 16,691,055 | 20,826,000 |
| Italy | 9,676,009 | 8,592,000 |
| Great Britain | 3,449,100 | 8,592,000 |
| Germany | | 52,480 |
| Canada | 41,662 | 118,000 |
| Russia | 954,394 | 451,000 |

Besides the above, a quantity was exported to Hawaii, Egypt, China, Spain, etc. The noteworthy feature is that, whereas there was no export to Germany before the war, the new market was opened last year, when 52,000 yen's worth of silk were exported. The decrease of export to Russia was probable due to the effect of the late war.

GENERAL KUROKI ON PEACE.

A representative of the *New York Times* interviewed General Kuroki in Washington, and opened the conversation as follows:

"General Kuroki, I wonder if it would interest you to know of an incident which occurred in this city on the morning of October 16, 1904?" (General Kuroki sat up as he heard the date.)

"It was in the State and War Building, which you visited this morning. Mr. Root was on the other side of the building; John Hay was Secretary of State.

"That morning, or at the midnight before, there had come terrible news from the East. The bloodiest battle of history had been fought on the Sha River. The cable story said that there lay dead and wounded on the banks of that reddened stream no less than 50,000. General Kuroki, most of the work was yours.

"On the morning of the receipt of this news," said the interviewer, "I saw and talked with Mr. Hay in his office in the building you see there over the White House trees. The Secretary was deeply grieved over the slaughter; it is not too much to say that he was overwhelmed and undone. He said to me:

"Never in my life have I felt the awfulness of war as I do now. Never have I been so oppressed and despondent as I am this morning—not even in the darkest hours of the war for the Union and when I was admitted to the grief of the great war President over some sanguinary and perhaps disastrous battle. Manchuria is a long way off, I know. Perhaps I am growing old. But, after all, humanity is humanity, whether far away or near, whether of my own race or another, and it is simply anguish to think of the battered corpses of men which strew the ground there as we sit here helpless, talking. By the code of nations we have no responsibility in this hideous business. By the obligations of humanity, God knows whether we have none. It burdens my soul as nothing—nothing ever burdened it before."

Secretary Hay had been haggard and white and bowed as he said these words two years and six months before. General Kuroki, as he heard them repeated exactly as they were spoken, for Captain Tanaka translated here with care, sat sobered and silent, and so remained, with downcast eyes for, it seemed, many minutes.

When he spoke, it was with deepest feeling.

"I believe I appreciate what your great Secretary felt. Indeed, may it not be supposed that one who had before his own eyes what Mr. Hay saw only in sympathetic imagination—that one who was looking upon that sight, as Mr. Hay that morning talked of it—may have felt even more keenly all that moved his generous soul?

"It is the business of soldiers to fight, and fighting means to kill. I have been a soldier for forty years. My first experience of bloodshed was in the war of the Restoration, thirty-nine years ago. Since that time I have been called, in the service of my Emperor, to many scenes of carnage. I had my hand in the events which the Secretary declared moved him more than the slaughters of your own great

war. Yet I feel as he felt, and I agree from the depths of my soul that it was pitiable, pitiable business. I agree that human slaughter is a sight for tears and deepest regrets.

"The Japanese people love peace, and want peace. They fought for peace, which, without fighting, could not have been. My nation wants peace—peace in which to develop. We have no other desire. The profession it is my fate to follow is noble only in that it is sometimes useful in establishing conditions in which peace may be maintained and the arts of peace may flourish."

Yet General Kuroki is only skeptical as to the possibility of establishing international peace by formal agreements; indeed, he shakes his head dubiously over the prospect of anything very substantial being accomplished by conferences and congresses which cherish impracticable ideals. He was much interested in the acts of the Peace Conference over which Mr. Carnegie presided in New York a fortnight ago, but found an occasion for merriment in the circumstances that the advocates of peace themselves quarreled over the means by which their ideals would be best attained.

"The instructions given by the Japanese Parliament to our delegates to The Hague," said the General in answer to a question, "look in the direction of disarmament. This, even in my opinion, would be a thing to be highly desired."

The General's phrase was a sonorous Japanese equivalent for "a consummation devoutly to be wished."

"If it were possible—if only it were possible—what could be more highly desirable than that all nations should solemnly agree to lay down arms and solemnly abide by their agreement, and give us poor soldiers a rest? Do you believe it likely?"

Regarding the condition of affairs in China and the relations between that country and Japan, General Kuroki said:

"The most important fact about China at this moment is, it is internally in a strife of civil chaos. Manchuria and Korea are overrun by brigands, and it is the case generally throughout China. Everywhere are marauders, bandits, sometimes scouring the country in mounted troops, sometimes disturbing villages and cities, overturning government everywhere.

"Now, it is of first importance that the Chinese Government should be able to maintain order in the territory over which it holds authority. For that purpose it is organizing an army. Japanese officers are taking a prominent part in that organization. We hope an efficient Chinese army may be created, but the purpose of it is wholly pacific. It is for internal police service. Japan believes that the internal police of China will make for the peace of the world. In this interest in the training of Chinese soldiers Japan has only the welfare of the world at heart. She wants to see order established, and then to see China enter into a high plane in the sisterhood of nations. When she masters the evil and disorderly forces

within her, you will see China learn the lessons of modern civilization. Japan learned them first. Is it not now her duty to help China learn them, too?"

General Kuroki again spoke most seriously and with eloquence. The General was asked about the newly negotiated Franco-Japanese treaty, which is said to guarantee France and England in their interests in China, while it secures Japan in the possession of Formosa, Korea and the Liao-Tung peninsula.

"As to that, it does not become me to undertake to speak, especially while the negotiations are still in camera. But you may be sure that Japan could enter into no engagements that would operate to the prejudice of their American friends."

General Kuroki expressed the greatest impatience over the magnifying into an international concern of the episode of the exclusion of Japanese from the San Francisco public schools.

"To tell you the truth, I take no interest in that matter. It is too small to interest the Japanese. I was asked about it in Seattle as if it were a matter of importance, and here you ask again in the nation's capital. I am surprised. Why should a small, entirely local affair like that be deemed of any importance whatever, especially as being an element of the least weight in the relations of two great and wholly friendly nations? I say to you simply that in Japan we have paid no attention to it. It is altogether too trivial. It counts for nothing. It is nothing."

General Kuroki was interested in the news that friends of Secretary Taft hoped with much confidence to make him the next President, and that this was in accordance with Mr. Roosevelt's desire. He spoke in complimentary terms of the Secretary of War, who has visited Japan, and is well known and trusted there, his administration of the Philippines making him a figure of special note for Japan.

General Kuroki was understood to express himself in a general way as hopeful that if President Roosevelt could not continue in office "his generous and intelligent policies" might at least still prevail.

"President Roosevelt is known and esteemed in Japan to a degree which you would hardly deem credible. Every schoolboy knows not only his name, but his writings and his deeds. His books are as well known to the school children as are the writings of our own authors."

In concluding the interview, General Kuroki said: "Will the *New York Times* not say for me to the whole American people how touched and gratified I and my party are at the cordiality with which we are everywhere greeted, and how grateful we are for the kindnesses accorded us on every hand?"

"The President courteously designated a distinguished General to be my companion across the continent, and I appreciate much both the real kindness which suggested this act and the genial companionship of General MacArthur which it secured me.

"Everywhere, by night and by day, at the great cities where we stopped a few hours, and at stations along the way, we have been greeted, to my surprise, by enthusiastic crowds. At Seattle, to begin with, the reception was distinguished; at Bismarck, North Dakota, I remember there was a great crowd; at Chicago an immense one; at Pittsburg they gave us a royal time. We had a look through the new Carnegie Institute and a visit to the delightful Country Club. Unfortunately the air was not clear. New York and all the great East of your country is yet to come. I shall enjoy to the full every minute of my stay. Again, will not the *New York Times* accept my thanks for its interest in my visit, and say to all how much gratitude I feel for the good-will of Americans, so generously everywhere expressed?"

EXTRA TERRITORIALITY AND THE UNITED STATES COURT FOR CHINA.

(From the American Journal of International Law.)

It has long been recognized that the Federal legislation regulating the exercise of extraterritorial powers was wholly insufficient, whether judged by comparison with the regulations adopted by other nations or with the needs of American citizens in extraterritorial countries as developed in actual practice, and it has been freely admitted by those best acquainted with conditions in the Orient that if our administration of extraterritorial authority in general, and especially in China, has operated with reasonable satisfaction it has been due entirely to the good sense of those charged with its administration and not at all to the wisdom or completeness of statutory regulations provided by Congress.

Several efforts have been made to remedy these conditions. In 1881 the American residents in Japan memorialized Congress, praying for legislation modifying the antiquated rules of the common law imposed by the pro-

visions of the statute upon Americans in extraterritorial jurisdiction. The memorialists said in part:

"For us there is no statute of frauds; there is no insolvency legislation * * * imprisonment for debt has not been abolished; the disabilities of women at the common law have remained unaltered; we have no statute of limitations and none providing for conditional bills of sale or chattel mortgages. In many other respects investigation will show how unfavorable is the legal status of a citizen of the United States residing here. (Senate Miscellaneous Documents, 70, vol. i., 47th Congress, 1st Session."

In 1882 an effort was made to secure legislation and an elaborate bill was presented to Congress, providing for the establishment of a regular judicial system in China. The bill, however, failed to become a law and the old conditions were suffered to continue.

It was to relieve this situation that the recent act of

Congress of June 30, 1906, was enacted. (An act creating a United States court for China and prescribing the jurisdiction thereof. U. S. Statutes at Large, 1905-1906, p. 814.)

The first section of the act provides for the establishment of a United States court for China, having jurisdiction in all cases in which jurisdiction may now be exercised

by United States consuls and ministers, by law and by virtue of treaties between the United States and China,

except in so far as the jurisdiction of the consular courts is preserved in the second section of the act.

Section 2 retains

the jurisdiction of the consular courts in civil cases where the value of the property involved * * * does not exceed \$500 * * * and in criminal cases where the punishment for the offense charged cannot exceed by law \$100 fine or sixty days' imprisonment or both.

An appeal is granted from all final judgments of the consular courts to the United States court for China. Supervisory control is conferred upon the United States court

over the discharge by consuls and vice-consuls of the duties prescribed by the law of the United States relating to the estates of decedents in China.

Section 3 provides for appeals from all final judgments of the United States court for China to the United States circuit court of appeals of the ninth judicial circuit, and thence in proper cases to the Supreme Court of the United States.

Section 4 once more provides that the jurisdiction of the court shall be exercised in conformity with treaties and laws of the United States,

but in all such cases when such laws are deficient in the provisions necessary to give jurisdiction or to furnish suitable remedies the common law and the law as established by the decisions of the courts of the United States shall be applied by said court in its decisions and shall govern the same, subject to the terms of any treaties between the United States and China.

Section 5 prescribes the procedure of the court in accordance with existing procedure in the consular courts in China

in accordance with the Revised Statutes of the United States; provided, however, that the judge of the said United States court for China shall have authority from time to time to modify and supplement such rules of procedure.

The remaining sections of the act provide for the officers of the court, a judge, district attorney, marshal and clerk, and regulate the practical details of installation. It is understood that the act was drawn in brief and general terms in order that the court might be left free to adapt itself to the needs of a situation little understood in the United States, with the idea that further legislation may be enacted by way of amendment and supplement as

needs shall develop in the course of the practical operation of the act.

The Hon. Lebbeus R. Wilfley, of Missouri, was appointed the first judge of the United States court. Judge Wilfley leaves behind him in the Philippines, where he served as attorney general, a record of accomplishment. Frank E. Hinckley, author of a convenient and valuable monograph on American consular jurisdiction in the Orient, has been appointed clerk of the court, while Arthur Bassett of Missouri, who had served with credit as assistant to Judge Wilfley in the Philippines, was selected as district attorney, and Hubert O'Brien, a lawyer of Detroit, Mich., highly recommended by members of his profession, has been appointed marshal of the court. Concerning the personnel of the court, it is, without in any wise intending to reflect upon many capable and conscientious men who have served this Government in consular and diplomatic positions in the East, perhaps not improper to quote from a private letter recently received by a leading newspaper editor from a prominent American business man at Shanghai, in which it was said that the members of the court

represented a new type of American officials in China.

Judge Wilfley opened court on December 17, 1906. His first order provided that all American attorneys who wished to be placed on the roll of attorneys for the court should first qualify by an examination and the presentation of satisfactory proofs of a good moral character. Eight applicants presented themselves for an examination and only two qualified. As a result of this purging, the American bar of the United States court for Shanghai consists of the United States district attorney, who presumably was not called upon to pass an examination, and Messrs. Fessenden and Jernygan of the firm of Jernygan & Fessenden. A monopoly in restraint of trade in violation of the fundamental principles of the common law has, however, been avoided by the admission of duly certified members of the bar of consular courts of the various other nationalities on the principle of comity.

This action of the court aroused much criticism, which has been to some extent reflected in the United States. As to the inherent power of the court to determine the qualifications necessary in a member of the bar by means of an examination there would seem to be no question. (Ex parte Garland 4, Wall 333 at 378; ex parte Secunbe 19 How 9 at 13.) As to the expediency of the somewhat drastic exercise of the power in the particular instance, opinions of men equally qualified to judge might well differ, and any opinion expressed at this distance would be necessarily uninformed. It can only be said that the learned judge has certainly failed to realize the hope humorously expressed by an English common-law judge suddenly called upon to sit in the admiralty division, who opened court by remarking:

"And may there be no moaning of the bar when I put out to sea."

If the action of the court in regard to the qualifications of attorneys aroused the opposition of an important and

vociferous profession and its friends, another policy initiated by the court and district attorney rallied to the support of the court all the best elements of the American community. In the past the houses of prostitution conducted under American auspices have disgraced our country in the eyes of both European and Chinese and made the words "American girl" a by-word and reproach in all China. So bold and shameless had the proprietors of these establishments become that they actually had the effrontery to issue on special occasions invitations decorated with American flags. Informations were presented by the district attorney against all of the keepers of houses of ill-fame in Shanghai who claimed American nationality. The informations proceeded on the theory that the common law regards the prosecution of such a calling as a misdemeanor. Eight were arrested and brought into court. They were held under bond of \$2,000, and were only permitted to leave court in the company of the marshal to secure bail. On the hearing, four immediately pleaded guilty. The other four entered pleas in bar on the ground of citizenship. Two of them claimed to be Spaniards, and presented certificates from the Spanish consul; one claimed to be a German, and the other asserted English nationality. The court held that in the matter of proving citizenship the certificate of a consul was not conclusive but would be considered along with other evidence. As a result the Spanish certificates were immediately withdrawn and the holders admitted the jurisdiction of the court and pleaded guilty. The court later overruled the plea of the defendant who claimed British citizenship, and she pleaded guilty. In view of a promise on the part of all the defendants to adjust their affairs and leave China, the court let them off with a fine of \$1,000, Mexican, apiece. The one remaining case appears to be still under advisement, but if the defendant is released the Shanghai public will understand that she is not an "American girl."

Another case interesting in its facts as throwing light upon the new and strange conditions to which the principles of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence are being applied was a case in which a Chinese firm brought an action for deceit against an American who had leased to the plaintiffs certain grandstand privileges, including the right to conduct Chinese gambling games during the autumn race meets, this upon the distinct understanding that Chinese gambling was to be permitted by the authorities. On the face of this understanding, as the plaintiffs alleged, the defendants took their money, which they now refused to return, although, at the time of taking the same, said defendants well knew that Chinese gambling would not be permitted upon the premises. Here arises an interesting situation. We can well imagine a court in this country struggling with the doctrine of *pari delicto* and perhaps permitting the defendant to escape. Not so the United States court for China. The principle of the square deal was vindicated by a decision which mulcted the defendant in damages while the district attorney was directed to institute criminal proceedings.

But the court has not been entirely engaged in qualifying its bar (purifying society). A number of civil and criminal cases of a general nature have been discussed by the court during its first term, involving questions of law both interesting and important. One defendant was prosecuted for obtaining money under false pretenses. The charge was brought under the statute of 30 George II., and a motion to quash was made on the ground that the information did not charge a crime under the common law. This raised the difficult question of the construction of the term "common law" as used in the statute creating the court. The court appears to have taken the position that the term "common law" was to be construed to include those laws which would have been in force in the colonies after the change of sovereignty without further legislation, or in other words, all the laws of England, written or unwritten, which were applicable to the colonies at the time of the Declaration of Independence. The opportunity to test this construction through an appeal to the United States court of appeals for the ninth judicial district was lost by the escape from Shanghai of the accused before he was sentenced.

In the next case which came before the court the judge took precaution against the escape of the defendant. After the conviction and sentence of the accused, the court exercised the authority conferred by Section 5 of the act creating the court and modified rule 66 in force in the consular court as regards bail after conviction, providing that after conviction and appeal bail should be allowed or denied in the discretion of the judge. The court then denied bail to the defendant on the ground that it appeared to him that the appeal was frivolous. *Habeas corpus* proceedings were begun on behalf of the defendant, and it is reported in the press that he has been released on appeal to the United States court of appeals for the ninth judicial district. The grounds on which the court acted are not known.

These two cases have served to develop two questions which will doubtless provide ample opportunity for argument before the new court, namely the scope of the words "common law," and the nature of the power originally vested in the United States Minister to make rules and regulations to supply the defects of the common law and the power now vested in the court to modify such rules so far as they relate to procedure.

At a banquet of the American Association at Shanghai, Judge Wilfley, as reported in the *Celestial Empire* of December 22, 1906, in responding to the toast, "The Judicial Department," defined the requisition of a typical American court as

First, honesty; second, courage; third, good sense; and fourth, a knowledge of the law.

All in all the new court seems to have grappled with energy the perplexing situation before it, and we may look forward to some new developments of the common law in this new field for American jurisprudence which will not only make for the betterment of conditions in China but throw some interesting light upon old legal problems in a new environment.

THE WONDERFUL CITY OF HARBIN.

BY B. L. PUTNAM WEALE.

(From the North-China Daily News.)

It is best to arrive at night at Harbin; for then dark shadows hide what is crude and jarring in the place, and the choking clouds of dust which never cease to rise when the great wheeled traffic of the daytime unendingly thunders by, lie peacefully sleeping on the ground. In the sudden blaze of the sputtering arc-lamps, rising up with the glare of modernity after your lonely journey in darkness, with the myriads of lights twinkling distantly around over the great Sungari plain, only the elementary wonderfulness of the place is apparent. This, after all, is the one interesting feature—the immensity, the huge scale of everything, the tropical growth in a northerly latitude. The endless lights signaling to one another across many square miles of conquered plain, signal yet more insistently to you, would have you indeed quickly understand that theirs is a message which is worth some understanding. A great sleeping city lies before you, a city only nine years old, and now built with the fashionableness of Europe; laughing and misunderstanding the real East, although it is geographically the slave of this Orient, a veritable enigma among cities. Three short years ago even the Harbin station was a mere makeshift affair, built of brick it is true, but even then only a rough structure marking one single step in advance of the first railway buildings which had been hastily hammered together in the centre of this prairie land as soon as it had been decided that this should be the concentration point, the great inland distributing centre in the general scheme which was slowly being evolved by the gods in the machine.

The full-grown station has quickly come during the war. That is the monse surpimrise; fifty times more has been done during the war, when all normal development would seem impossible, than had ever been done before. It is the war which has converted Harbin into the most populous European city in Asia, a city at the latest computation with 80,000 Russians. The war in undoing Russia in some places has strengthened her in others. The station as you survey it, may seem a trifle bizarre; that is probably because the ordinary man does not expect to find an immense government building in the new art style at a place which has merely become a household name because it served as the principal commissariat base during many months of fighting and thereby saved the Russian Manchurian armies from starvation. Everything about this station of the Chinese Northwest is *Art Nouveau*, exterior and interior; and the very luggage depository into which your great bearded Russian porter packs your traps has graceful, long-waisted green woodwork and sudden curves of Viennese aspect. But the magnitude and modernity are still more striking when you force yourself to remember once more that you are in almost exactly the central point of a country which was utterly unknown ten years ago—wherein rapid development, which can be rushed forward by a money boom has been twice arrested—when for two long years everything was strained to death along all the lines of communications to swell more and more and to strengthen more and more the Czar's field armies. Under such circumstances how much has been done must always remain an enigma. In the immense and lofty railway restaurant furnished with great mirrors and costly marble work hundreds of people of all classes sat quietly eating and drinking, oblivious to the surprise they furnished, officers of twenty different corps rubbing shoulders with twenty types of civilian men and women. In one corner of the unending platforms which follow the sidings a battalion of infantry, muffled in their long great-coats and loaded with kit, stood silently awaiting some train; and at the ticket offices long unending lines of stolid Russian

soldiery and Chinese workmen, mixed impartially together, clamored for their tickets. Amid the slow clanking of shunting locomotives which never cease moving in and out on the countless tracks you could realize something of the immensity of the work which could here be so easily undertaken, and was actually undertaken during the war; while outside the station—on the great open square where a division of troops might manœuvre at ease—masses of hack carriages drawn up in solid phalanxes yet filling an insignificant space advertised the rush of traffic which must have been the order of the day so few months ago. It is true, perhaps, that Harbin as a giant junction and point of concentration is inferior to such European monsters as the Cologne station or Clapham; but in sidings, in immense lengths of rails stretching conveniently away into all sorts of corners, so that the handling of troops and supplies may be facilitated on an unlimited scale, it can have but few compeers even in Europe; a German officer has told me that. Very little investigation soon proves that everything has been done in this respect to provide for armies yet more formidable than were even those immense forces which had been massed at the front when peace came. There are dozens and dozens of miles of sidings; and it is said that during one stage of the war a whole army corps was entrained at Harbin and left on the rails pending the receipt of marching orders, without making any difference to the through traffic. Like Gargantua, Harbin can eat at one sitting what others could not consume in weeks.

The town of New Harbin, lying in front of and around the great railway station, has grown much in the same extraordinary manner as the railway and the special railway accommodation. Immense buildings standing in their own grounds are becoming the order of the day; while broad streets of noble dimensions and numbers of great squares add to the commanding aspect of this town. It seems impossible to believe, as you contemplate these masses of brick and masonry in the indistinct night, that it was in 1897 that the two pioneer Russians rode into the place and camped on the bare veldt. And as you remember that many difficulties have had to be overcome, which do not exist elsewhere, you are lost in astonishment at the character of Russian resources. Despite all corruption, all carelessness and all ineptitude—things on which the neutral world is never tired of expatiating—the great country lumbers continually forward, gathering greater and greater strength merely from its own onward movement. Soon I was to discover that every part of Harbin has grown, even distant old Harbin nine versts away which everyone thought abandoned in 1903. Even this part has been resuscitated by the bustle of the war and is now stretching out across the dusty plain to meet the other growing cities. Driving away in the silent night and contemplating this extraordinary expansion makes one curiously anxious to understand the future. If so much was done in days of defeat what could not be done in days of victory. By early morning consequently I had made my connections. An efficient guide had been found and the situation had been explained in one word. I wished to see everything. "Everything?" had queried the efficient guide in that deep Russian tone straight from the chest which denotes serious surprise. "Everything," I had answered; and with his imagination perhaps tickled by that all-embracing word he had resolutely buttoned his coat and without another word led the way into the street. We passed along silently—we were in Pristan or Riverine Harbin—my guide perhaps reflecting on the arduous task which awaited him. Soon *istvoschicks* began trotting up and looking at us inquiringly

because we walked. No true Russian could thus walk, and the drivers hoisting their animals to a sudden halt called that their prices were now low. But my guide, desirous of earning merit, had suddenly acquired definite ideas; for that word—everything—had made him serious and realize the nature of our task. Some time, therefore, passed before he saw horseflesh which he adjudged good and fit, since the Harbin hack carriage has no traditions and is not graced by uniformed or respectable drivers. The Harbin whip may indeed be described as a hard case who has taken to carriage work because a good many other things have failed him; and under such circumstances the horses bear certain points of resemblance to their masters. At the very last moment we met what the fates had obviously driven our way—a pair of powerful Russian grays attached to a rubber-tired vehicle of some excellence which the decline of the proprietor had thrown on the public streets. But it was first necessary to explain; and no sooner had the driver heard that word of ominous comprehensiveness than he too paused and scratched his head. We had, however, met a person of some enterprise and decision; for finally a price was named at which he declared himself willing to explore the whole world until he dropped. Only ten minutes' grace was asked to give the animals on whom this burden was to fall a few more mouthfuls of grain; then we would really drive. As we strolled down to the Sungari bank in the interim my guide assured me with a grimness of intent which I did not then appreciate that I would have a first and last opportunity of witnessing that in one department Slavism has nothing to learn, not even after the war—horseflesh and its management. It would be a test.

The Sungari River has benefited by the war to the extent of having a high pontoon bridge added for the convenience of carriages and travelers who constantly cross the river. During the war, owing to the danger of the great steel railway bridge succumbing to the destroying energy of dynamite if innocent looking civilians were allowed indiscriminately to walk across it, an absolute prohibition was placed on approaching the bridge; and anyone daring to break the order after the famous affair with the Japanese spies who were executed was mercilessly shot down. Therefore something had to be provided in its stead and hence these pontoons. Now the traffic continually crossing it, men and horses and riders, clearly shows that the left of Heilungkiang bank of the Sungari—Harbin is on the Kirin province side—has independently acquired a certain importance. A glance at the river and the river shipping, however, amply proves that as the railway now provides direct and uninterrupted communication much more cheaply than was ever before the case, the former importance of the great Manchurian waterway has been much diminished. The little stern-wheel Russian steamers, which ply between here and the Amur and which can even venture up stream as high as Kirin City when the river is very full, have diminished rather than increased in numbers and their owners are reported to be in a parlous way. The immediate prospect of railway communication being added all along the Amur banks completes this discomfiture; and although it is certain that the industry will ultimately revive, riverine shipping in Manchuria for the time being has small prospects. Yet Chinese junks have grown in numbers for the simple reason that they are still the main carriers of grain and other foodstuffs which flow toward the towns in enormous quantities from all over mid-Manchuria. No, however, with the pause which has come in the great Harbin flour-milling industry, which will presently be alluded to in full detail, they too have entered on a period of depression. The resources of the country still overpower the demand.

At length with everything ready for a drive of exhaustion we came back, sprang into our carriage, and with a chirrup and a suppressed shout, our driver, as if he too had caught the extensiveness of the idea, was off like the wind. Clinging tightly to a carriage in Harbin is an oc-

cupation in itself; for some of the billows which are encountered—they are not ruts running parallel to the curb, but regular billows scooped out and piled up by the terrible rainy season—show you in a convincing and laudable spirit that Russian carriage springs are made of a steel which one day should be famous. On the very most important streets up and down you slam in this extraordinary manner until all sensations are exhausted and you come back to rudimentary feelings of exhaustion. Along Mill street, which runs parallel to the river, flour mill after flour mill constructed of red brick is passed. All these big establishments now lie almost entirely idle after the great effort of the war; for American flour which was rushed in such enormous quantities into Vladivostok immediately after the war has made Manchurian steam milling for the time being unprofitable. All along the streets of Pristan, or the Sungari town, good-looking and substantial red-brick buildings are rapidly replacing the primitive wooden structures which date back to the founding of the settlement; and enterprising owners, convinced that the town will never do much for them, are seeking to improve their properties by laying broad pavements of stone or concrete and abolishing the rotten wooden boarding which serves as a sidewalk in every Siberian town. There is thus a spirit of personal enterprise in the air. You pass out of the long Sungari streets to enter the heart of the riverine town, and, moving away from the river neighborhood at breakneck speed with utmost unconcern, you add your little clouds of dust to the bigger clouds that have already been gathered by the growing traffic. Harbin dust is something which must be seen at its best to be believed—that is when the air is nut-dry. Some have complained of the Peking dust in olden days; and others, more recently, who went during the war to the great Liao plain in search for news have thought when dust storms blew that they knew mother earth at her worst. Yet none of these really knew. For dust to be seen at its best must be kept moving slowly and more and more thickly; and once you have moved it in Harbin it effects the conquest of the air unaided. An American drummer has duly recorded that here real estate is always high in the air and that nothing can force it higher. So inordinately thick are these dust clouds that looking back from a piece of rising ground the riverine settlement is enveloped in a thick gray mantle of seeming battle-smoke, through which the faint outlines of tall buildings and taller smokestacks can just be traced. It is well under such circumstances to follow the practice of the natives; dust is a subject rigidly excluded from general conversation.

Formerly that part of Harbin known as Pristan Harbour was the real business quarter of the town which grew up quite naturally and unconcernedly, because it was in the immediate proximity of the river and, therefore, astride of the best line of communications before the railway was ready to take all kinds of best traffic. But the proper organization of the railway and the upbuilding of New Harbin nearer the great station has changed the old conditions of thirty months ago. Now the banks, the newspaper offices, the important new shops and firms have been established in the New Town and, therefore, the commercial centre is slowly being shifted to where there is more room and wider streets. Still most of the flour mills and a number of small factories and miscellaneous establishments remain in Pristan; while the enormous quantity of provision shops—there are whole streets of Chinese "stores" in Pristan where everything imaginable may be purchased—point to the fact that the miscellaneous community remains where it has always been, near the river. These endless blocks of shops and stores, varying from the small wooden shanty constructed before the Boxer year to the new double-storied red-brick building of yesterday, are indeed a wonderful feature. Enough is said when it is mentioned that during the war the population of the town swelled to such an enormous size that there were reputed to be three hundred thousand civilians in the town fattening on the armies by catering to their every

need. Those happy days of such buying and selling and such insensate rouble-making that must have gone on have now gone never to return; and hundreds of the shops which only yesterday were doing a thriving business are half-closed, while from the looks of the top-booted and fur-capped proprietors who stand at the doors of many others, business, if not dead, is sadly languishing. By no one in the world was the Czar's decision to make peace at any price so cursed as by these thousands of provision shops, drinking saloons and dubious looking restaurants; they were counting on the war going on forever, and by immense ingenuity with the military monopolizing the railway had succeeded in stocking themselves with every manner of thing. The rivers and the post-roads brought what could not be conveyed by bribery on the railway; and thus—at a price—everything could be bought.

Rapidly treading such streets you finally debouch on a great desolate looking tract of Sungari plain, through which the railway open-cut runs. This immense barren space and the railway open-cut divide the two towns of Pristan and New Town. And yet so quickly is this strange city still expanding that in a very few years—or even months—the invading lines of red-brick buildings will have joined hands and the twin city be made one. And just here, in the neutral zone, was a little thing which one might have passed a hundred times without notice. It was simply a wooden shanty standing near a pump and adorned with a big sign in Russian of—Water. The lucky owner, who had the inspiration to sink that pump a few years ago and pump up water, had in the course of forty months amassed a big fortune. No public water is to be had for miles around, and the enormous stream of wheeled traffic passing between the two towns has had to pay toll to that one man whenever animals need watering. It was one of those small things which are at once the explanation and illustration of many other things among the Russians. Competition is not instinctive with the race, and vested interests even of such an illusory nature may be worth their weight in gold in a very few years.

We galloped on, our driver urging forward his animals unsparingly as they warmed to their work; and with a clatter and a dust cloud which advertised that our mission of investigation was one which was now being enthusiastically prosecuted we passed across the long wooden railway bridge, leading over the open-cut. It is through this open-cut that more than a million of the Czar's soldiery and a quarter of a million of horses streamed in from distant Europe during the war at a rate of an immense number of trains a day.

New Harbin, laid out on that lordly scale which is only possible when an enormous block of prairie land has been acquired at a nominal price from the sovereign owners, was now before us; and the remarkable development which has been brought about by the indirect effect of the war was even more plainly apparent by daylight than it had been the night before. Not only have entire streets and districts of well built houses arisen—necessarily well built owing to the unparalleled severity of the six months winter—but immense piles of exceptional proportions are now rising on all sides. The spending of all these millions of money for building in Harbin is very dear, is ample proof that Russian treasury figures, counted like the figures of other national treasuries, cannot be said to represent today the true monetary condition among Russians. Otherwise it would be absurd for a country on the verge of bankruptcy and the suspension of specie payments—about which belated newspapers arriving in Harbin were just then speaking—to spend money in the lavish way money is being officially spent in a place so unimportant to the real well being of the Russian Empire as Harbin. Again it might also be argued that if Russian speculators were convinced of this approaching insolvency which affords such delight to the critics, they would not be inclined to sink vast sums in buildings which cannot be looked on as productive for some years to come. As we swung round

the great mass of solid red-brick buildings being erected by a powerful group of Moscow merchants, a permanent market which is to be called the Moscow bazaar, these questions are of necessity suddenly presented to the mind of the intelligent inquirer and they become more and more tantalizing as the chorus singing of hundreds upon hundreds of Shantung coolies, engaged in sinking foundations on more rows of new houses in many new districts smite one's ears. In the neighborhood of the palatial Russo-Chinese Bank vast buildings become the order of the day, until the impressions created in Vladivostok, in Nicol'sk and elsewhere become stronger and stronger. Russia, in spite of all her faults, understands some things a good deal better than most people suppose, and the domination of the magnificent and the large is one of these. Past such streets, bustling with gay life which is infectious, you endlessly go, until you at last swing out of New Harbin. Now costly examples of the singularly picturesque Russian architecture are to be seen on the outer roads belonging to some of the generals commanding the railway troops; and then leaving once more behind you the settled area you emerge on the open veldt. Straight in front, in the far distance, is old Harbin—the town which, although forming an integral part of the railway octopus, has a railway station nine versts away from the central station in the New Town. That shows you how distances are measured here.

This open veldt, which is nothing but the untouched Sungari alluvial plain, is cut through by an immensely broad series of cart ruts, leading to old Harbin, which for want of a better name is called the highway, and is so broad from the continuous traffic that a dozen vehicles might travel abreast without inconvenience. On either side stretches the virgin prairie land of Kirin province—rich flat land that has never been touched by the Chinese mattock or the plough. Far in the distance a blur of townlets formign an integral part of Harbin can be seen rising like oases in a conquered desert land, and along this highway, looking like the merest atoms lost in seas of desolation, come all sorts of vehicles and drivers—Russian peasant women seated in broken-down Russian country carts with their heads tied in picturesque handkerchiefs; Chinese carters urging with their heavy whip-cracks mixed teams of mules, donkeys and ponies; smart looking Russian cavalry officers driving typical American buggies; fat burgesses in plain hack carriages; all the various types which go to make up one of the most original populations in the world congregated in this strange city, which is in reality first and last but a military and railway camp for the purposes of gain. Over these heavy roads old Harbin lies a good way off; and our driver, desirous of easing the tedium of this travel, turned himself completely round on his box and performed the strange feat of driving backward at a hard gallop, so that he might regale us with stories of the night perils in this amiable neighborhood. Once night had fallen, he said, armed robbers were the order of the day—the Irishism is deliberate. The admixture in Harbin of *Saghalian brodyagi*, or escaped convicts, long-coated adventurers from the Caucasus and Siberian ne'er-do-wells who have been attracted to Harbin by the scent of the war—has been highly unfortunate. All wayfarers were now systematically robbed of all they possessed. The Harbin *isvostchick* drivers, who dwelt in great numbers in the small outer suburbs, had at length been forced to resort to the method of coming home at night time in bands of dozens of carriages for mutual protection; but even this was proving of no avail, as in the last case of armed robbery the bandits had stampeded the main body by a heavy revolver fire, and had then coldly cut off the stragglers and taken everything from them, including their horses.

Regaled by such tales of occurrences which are perhaps only natural incidents in the growth of this unprecedented place, we finally entered old Harbin, where in the winter of 1897 there was but one solitary Chinese distillery and no

other building for many dozens of miles around. Before the war old Harbin was decaying fast, since it had served its first purpose; to-day it has again a population of several thousands, and contains all the important land offices which deal with the sale or lease of the railway lands lying all around the towns. The buildings, it is true, are not imposing, and are mainly of wood or the rough brick which was procurable in the early days of seven or eight years ago. Still so great is the pressure in the other towns that even this one-horse outskirts has a future before it; and land values have begun to appreciate in a way which shows that speculators foresee the day when Harbin will be a town of a hundred square versts. To the north of old Harbin there is another considerable village called Alexieffskaya, which is the typical Russian village, filled to overflowing with people of the lower orders. Old fashioned windmills raise their sails over the townlet and in the disordered yards of this peasant settlement many farm animals roam at ease. This curious suburb has simply grown up owing to the fact that during the great boom many classes of peasant people came into Manchuria by rail and finding that they could squat on land just outside the limits of the railway concession without any questions being asked, a small town has now grown up.

Having seen what little there was to see in this corner of the plain, once more we bent back, and driving now due south along a broad track on which large parties of Cossacks in fatigue dress were riding with mobs of horses driven in front of them, we at length crossed the railway line on its way east to Vladivostok. And here we entered the outskirts of the separate hospital towns, Gospital-gorodok, which is a complete and self-contained settlement in itself, well planted in the midst of the breezy plain. Here hundreds if not thousands of acres of ground are covered by enormous blocks of bungalow hospitals, sometimes consisting of permanent structures of red brick, and sometimes of many scores of German army huts made of patent asbestos. At the doors of some of these buildings still lounged a few last victims of the war clothed in the loose Red Cross clothing of the Russian army; while army nurses and army doctors still hurried to and fro. The railway passing so close permitted trains during war time to be shunted onto sidings within a stone's throw of all these wards; and nurses and doctors being on the spot in great numbers it was but the work of a moment to transfer crippled men from the hospital trains to the base hospital and to treat them. It is thus amply evident that if Russia did bring on the war and neglect in the first instance the care of the wounded, as soon as her ponderous system got into working order no expense or trouble was spared to provide for the innocent victims on a scale commensurate with the requirements of such death dealing battles as Liaoyang, the Shaho and Mukden, when from twenty to sixty thousand wounded and sick were sent back to Harbin in an endless stream for treatment. A rapid inspection was sufficient to prove that in this hospital town all modern requirements have been met. Kitchens and disinfecting plants, operating rooms and storehouses are regularly distributed in every division of this giant hospital, while immense avenues have been left between the various buildings to insure that each group of hospitals is isolated from its neighbors. Passing endless buildings of this nature only a couple of versts' hard driving brings you to the end of the central avenue. Beyond this settlement is the seventh division of Harbin. Corpusnoi-Gorodok, or "army-corps village," is much the same in outward appearances as the hospital town. It is a military town isolated from the rest of the city and its stiff lines of brick buildings lose themselves in the distance. Division after division of troops could be housed here, and since the whole of the Sungari plain lay at the disposal of the Russian Headquarters Staff barrack after barrack was added to those already existing as fast as Chinese laborers could build.

We drove fast through this separate military town in

which are now billeted six regiments of infantry, some battalions of railway guards, some artillery and some cavalry—a big force in other countries, but one hardly even noticed here—and having understood something of the capacity of the place, once more we headed back for the new commercial town. It seemed that all must be over. Yet unfortunately I had overlooked the fact that there is a Chinese town, a commissariat town, and the germ of a Trans-Sungari town * * * so night had already fallen before we had completed this immense survey. From Corpusnoi-Gorodok, or the army corps suburb, we had driven to the Intendanz Gorodok, or the commissariat suburb, and surveyed a mass of buildings from which had been directed the marvelous work of feeding over a million Russian soldiers without straining the war-machine to breaking point. From thence we had gone on and glanced at Futatien, the purely Chinese town which, although three or four years ago only the miserable mud village of the Chinese squatter type, is now fast developing, thanks to the acquisition of millions of the all-conquering rouble, into a respectable Manchurian town with gaudy Chinese signposts and much gold and paint work. Finally with our horses fairly foundered we had driven over the Sungari pontoon bridge and glanced at the possibilities of the far side of the river, where land may be still acquired for a few shillings an acre. In an expiring canter we fetched up home. Then only did the yellow-bearded driver step slowly from his seat, stretch himself with an immense sigh and grin of satisfaction. It had been money well earned, and his grays, as they stood with drooping heads and quivering legs, proclaimed that we had traveled at least fifty versts with but one long halt.

And yet with this immense trip behind us my guide still argued that we must not lose too many minutes in idling or eating, but just see Harbin at night to drive home certain final points of view. Then I might claim to have seen everything of the outward aspect in a day. With the gloom of the overtired, for twelve hours on these roads is something which must be experienced to be believed, we ate, and with unbuttoned coats sallied out once more. The air, almost warm a couple of hours before, had suddenly become biting cold and the endless strings of restaurants, drinking saloons and other night haunts were now brightly lighted. Waiters and drawers stood after their wont idly at the doors of these many establishments—for habit speedily becomes a second nature—waiting for those thick swarms of guests that now never come. *Femmes galantes* speaking all the languages of Europe crowded these caravanserais, yet the custom which had once made this brick camp a Golconda had now disappeared forever. The thin scraping of violins and the deeper notes of wind instruments added a suggestive background to this nocturnal vista; for with the Russian the Great Three, *wein, weib und gesang*, must be gathered together and allied, for else life has only half its joyousness.

Yet for all this assumed gaiety which still remains these endless caravanserais are mere remnants of the war—ghosts which will soon no longer haunt the town because all the hundreds of thousands of soldiers have gone, swallowed up in the immensity of Russia and Siberia. All the king's horses and all the king's men have disappeared, vanished—excepting a sober handful who do not count. The shell remains in Harbin, the tawdry and evil smelling saloons and the famished women. Bitterly did my guide express the wish to me that these allies of the Russian army which had contributed so great a part to their temporary undoing in the early days of the war should be understood, photographed in cold print, so that the alleged non-efficiency of the men might be understood. Yet why? Such repining is surely foolish. In Harbin it is amply clear that there is a law of compensation as elsewhere. There is thus far more strength than weakness; and with the Russians it will always be a thousand times true, as Gautier sung, that *jamais les arbres verts n'ont essayés d'être bleus!*

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Journal of The American Asiatic Association

VOL. VII.

August, 1907
PUBLISHED MONTHLY.

NUMBER 7

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It is reported from Washington that efforts to have Japan give more definite and unreserved countenance to the exclusion policy of this country have been wholly fruitless for the time being. It may be assumed that they will continue to be fruitless. The idea that Japan would accept the privilege of naturalization for Japanese already in this country in return for her consent to the exclusion from the United States of any of her subjects who could possibly be classed as laborers, if it were ever seriously entertained by our Department of State, obviously proceeded on a mistaken idea of the necessities of Japanese policy. That must be guided by a not less jealous regard for national dignity than for national security, and the dictates of either require that Japan shall waive none of the claims which she may properly advance to be dealt with on a footing of absolute equality with the other great powers of the world. It is needless to repeat that the makeshift settlement of the San Francisco school difficulty had in it the seeds of future trouble, because the fact is already painfully evident. But nothing can be gained in trying to make the existing understanding about the restriction of Japanese immigration a permanent one. The arrangement is plainly unworkable, and it is safe to assume that no new treaty can be concluded with Japan giving her formal assent to the application of any such principle. The treaty of 1894 went into operation on the 17th day of July, 1899, with the proviso that it should remain in force for the period of twelve years from that date. Each of the high contracting parties has the right, at any time thereafter, to give notice to the other of its intention to terminate the treaty, and at the expiration of twelve months after such notice is given it is agreed that the treaty shall wholly cease and determine. As we are still some way off from 1911, it might perhaps be well to allow the discussion of the terms of a new treaty to drop for a year or two.

THERE are some questions, however, relating to the commercial relations between the United States and Japan which call for immediate attention. These were referred to in this column last month, and they have not become less acute in the interval. They centre around the fact that Japanese trade in China consists largely of Japanese imitations, both undisguised and colorable, of foreign goods. According to testimony on the spot, this trade is assuming the dimensions of a great national industry; China is being swamped with Japanese imitations, and there is no redress. The more strenuously Japan insists on her right to be

treated as one of the great powers of the world, the more obviously is it incumbent on her to revise her commercial legislation. The attitude of the Japanese courts toward property in trademarks is as unworthy of an enlightened nation as the practice of Japanese merchants and manufacturers in putting on the market deliberate counterfeits of foreign merchandise. The trick was practiced in the China market by other nationalities before Japan came into the field of industrial competition. But European governments have shown their readiness to make agreements for the reciprocal protection of trademarks in China, and Japan's reported unwillingness to participate in this movement places her in a decidedly unenviable position at the bar of the civilized world. It is not a sufficient answer to say that Japan is waiting for China to make some satisfactory regulations for the registration of trademarks. The fact that it is Japanese, and not Chinese, infringements and counterfeits that are feared, renders this a mere evasion of the question. The situation becomes rather worse when it is remembered that Japan, claiming priority of application, may proceed to register foreign trademarks as her own.

WE surrender a considerable amount of space in this number of THE JOURNAL to Judge Blount's discussion of the question of Philippine independence; not because his proposed readjustment of our relations with the people of these islands is at all a practicable or feasible one, but because too much attention cannot be directed to the position in which our Government has been placed by the failure of Congress to give the Philippines a simple measure of economic justice. Everything has been tried to bring prosperity and contentment to the archipelago, except the one essential concession without which both are impossible. Our fellow member, Dr. Louis L. Seaman, in an article contributed, like those of Judge Blount, to the *North American Review*, thinks that if the American people are foolish enough to continue their extravagant experiment in the Philippines, or if they are not relieved of the responsibility of the islands by neutralizing them, all obstacles to the course of natural selection should be removed by opening the door to the importation of the Chinaman. On the other hand, an anonymous writer in the July number of the *Fortnightly Review* boldly advocates the transfer of the islands to England in exchange for the British West Indies. He is sufficiently in harmony with Dr. Seaman's opinion to declare that Great Britain would realize, as we cannot or will not, that if the Filipino is to be enabled to lead the life for which nature has fitted him, and for which he longs, he must be suffered to be a drone in the hive, and that the bankruptcy which his indolence would bring about can be easily averted "by the free immigration of Chinese, the most thrifty and industrious of working bees." The fact may readily be admitted that Great Britain would not be tempted, as the American Congress has been, "to adopt a selfish and, to the Philippines, a murderous commercial policy." But one is tempted before making final confession of American failure in our Pacific possessions to have a fair trial made, under Ameri-

can auspices, of the very intelligent commercial policy which Great Britain adopts toward her Crown colonies.

RECENT events have plainly demonstrated the necessity of having a new scheme of government for Korea, and it may be hoped that the stipulations contained in the agreement of July 25 may justify the declaration of their object, namely, "the early attainment of prosperity and strength in Korea and the speedy promotion of the welfare of the Korean people." Unfortunately, the grievances of the Koreans are largely sentimental, and most governments which have had to deal with a similar persistence of the flame of national independence, after all real foundation for patriotism had disappeared, have found it difficult to get even-handed justice to take the place of recognition of shattered ideals. It is encouraging, however, to have the assurance that the assertion of Japanese control over Korean affairs will be made very gradually, not only out of regard for popular susceptibilities, but because of the comparative dearth of competent Japanese administrators. The conclusion of the treaty between Russia and Japan in regard to matters of trade, navigation and fisheries is another link in the long chain of international conventions that have recently made for peace. Closely followed, as it seems likely to be, by an agreement between Great Britain and Russia in regard to their respective spheres of influence and the integrity of their respective territories in Asia, the triumphs of peace achieved in the year 1907 promise to be no less notable than those of its immediate predecessors. If the contributions to international law made by The Hague tribunal should fall somewhat short of expectation, the readiness with which diplomacy has lent itself to the consolidation of King Edward's League of Peace affords very solid ground for satisfaction.

THE following resolution of sympathy is being suitably engrossed, and, bearing the signatures of the members of the Executive Committee, will be presented to Mrs. Thurber:

The members of the Executive Committee of the American Asiatic Association desire to place on record their high appreciation of the value of the services rendered to the organization which they represent by their late associate, Mr. Francis Beattie Thurber, and to give expression to their profound sense of the loss which they have sustained by his death.

Mr. Thurber's fellow workers in the conduct of the business of the American Asiatic Association can bear emphatic testimony to that single minded devotion to the claims of public duty which was his lifelong characteristic, and to the generous and unselfish enthusiasm which he was always ready to bring to the service of any cause that claimed his advocacy. No effort that concerned the welfare of mankind or the advancement of the noblest aims and most enduring interests of his country was ever grudged by the man to whose memory the undersigned offer this tribute of their affectionate regard and esteem.

Exports of Domestic Cotton Cloths, Mineral Oils, and Wheat Flour from the United States to China and Hongkong, during the twelve months ending June 30, 1906 and 1907.

EXPORTS TO CHINA.

| Months. | Cotton Cloths. | | Mineral Oils. | | Wheat Flour. | |
|-----------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1905. | Yards. | | Gallons. | | Barrels. | |
| July | 46,166,783 | \$2,724,181 | 4,577,172 | \$246,800 | 1,110 | \$4,892 |
| August | 63,411,726 | 3,519,840 | 5,102,675 | 372,815 | 1,028 | 4,046 |
| September | 49,969,790 | 2,881,780 | 6,812,489 | 534,576 | 2,770 | 9,963 |
| October | 29,828,023 | 1,839,189 | 3,835,150 | 396,589 | 32,871 | 109,773 |
| November | 52,705,432 | 3,212,585 | 5,780,919 | 351,928 | 9,694 | 34,859 |
| December | 48,525,998 | 2,896,758 | 5,500,971 | 545,659 | 20,747 | 77,192 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| January | 45,178,409 | 2,532,515 | 3,307,162 | 247,699 | 28,774 | 96,746 |
| February | 40,068,662 | 2,299,574 | 795,586 | 84,404 | 2,504 | 9,535 |
| March | 30,065,930 | 1,730,955 | 3,928,492 | 231,514 | 7,757 | 27,526 |
| April | 38,398,916 | 2,460,385 | 2,756,782 | 155,325 | 3,818 | 12,784 |
| May | 30,702,112 | 1,993,654 | 3,494,600 | 359,493 | 32,633 | 108,426 |
| June | 23,499,621 | 1,549,772 | 8,984,714 | 718,286 | 10,515 | 38,272 |
| Total | 498,521,402 | \$29,641,188 | 54,376,377 | \$4,181,475 | 154,221 | \$534,014 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| July | 16,895,213 | \$1,070,858 | 6,554,814 | \$514,067 | 40,024 | \$155,473 |
| August | 11,542,141 | 762,060 | 2,966,586 | 121,993 | 14,582 | 50,534 |
| September | 15,389,513 | 1,016,379 | 3,892,695 | 189,198 | 49,824 | 158,516 |
| October | 8,796,507 | 555,740 | 2,920,800 | 128,200 | 218,590 | 750,955 |
| November | 7,767,251 | 531,273 | 4,026,954 | 407,633 | 45,975 | 165,757 |
| December | 2,895,000 | 201,658 | 6,781,682 | 536,188 | 86,603 | 271,864 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January | 1,613,462 | 112,456 | 7,259,261 | 500,088 | 80,567 | 265,564 |
| February | 3,556,507 | 250,293 | 5,761,237 | 488,363 | 115,062 | 382,467 |
| March | 4,447,000 | 295,627 | 11,670,174 | 939,393 | 306,946 | 1,042,870 |
| April | 6,346,106 | 446,784 | 10,097,174 | 741,179 | 253,943 | 849,248 |
| May | 4,118,488 | 291,791 | 7,751,932 | 587,927 | 261,449 | 880,847 |
| June | 3,086,840 | 179,272 | 8,841,082 | 763,993 | 310,987 | 1,131,203 |
| Total | 86,454,028 | \$5,714,191 | 77,913,487 | \$5,842,620 | 1,784,552 | \$6,105,298 |

EXPORTS TO HONGKONG.

| Months. | Cotton Cloths. | | Mineral Oils. | | Wheat Flour. | |
|-----------------|----------------|----------|---------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1905. | Yards. | | Gallons. | | Barrels. | |
| July | 30,064 | \$3,177 | 712,246 | \$73,254 | 108,132 | \$384,254 |
| August | 83,435 | 11,328 | 71,338 | 10,352 | 59,660 | 231,092 |
| September | 15,608 | 2,375 | 2,093,430 | 168,400 | 56,935 | 206,244 |
| October | 49,941 | 6,210 | 8,524 | 1,095 | 81,934 | 294,056 |
| November | 4,761 | 904 | 229,861 | 24,622 | 154,321 | 531,685 |
| December | 2,646 | 590 | 979,013 | 104,860 | 83,375 | 301,473 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| January | 21,428 | 2,815 | 55,704 | 8,470 | 81,395 | 313,296 |
| February | 24,514 | 5,630 | 2,810 | 759 | 105,367 | 388,473 |
| March | | | 80 | 25 | 48,941 | 178,973 |
| April | 68,404 | 10,155 | 88,173 | 13,149 | 46,532 | 181,163 |
| May | 37,357 | 5,980 | 1,649,900 | 169,819 | 67,965 | 258,538 |
| June | 36,805 | 4,702 | | | 31,423 | 122,440 |
| Total | 374,963 | \$53,866 | 5,561,590 | \$526,126 | 926,180 | \$3,391,687 |
| 1906. | | | | | | |
| July | 50,027 | \$6,228 | 15,063 | \$2,346 | 65,248 | \$229,073 |
| August | 100,392 | 9,345 | 423,404 | 44,580 | 94,848 | 352,466 |
| September | 73,674 | 10,041 | 2,291,031 | 200,285 | 93,980 | 359,384 |
| October | 63,879 | 8,109 | 1,681,916 | 168,713 | 98,187 | 364,904 |
| November | 22,621 | 2,927 | 21,599 | 2,591 | 92,545 | 349,077 |
| December | 69,227 | 9,089 | 1,479,169 | 149,565 | 103,487 | 362,374 |
| 1907. | | | | | | |
| January | 26,890 | 4,052 | 250 | 100 | 56,708 | 193,828 |
| February | 46,467 | 7,610 | 1,996,250 | 205,345 | 101,949 | 387,496 |
| March | 66,397 | 7,630 | 115,967 | 13,243 | 40,509 | 147,965 |
| April | 83,997 | 11,462 | 985,871 | 107,746 | 67,685 | 248,296 |
| May | 28,328 | 3,217 | | | 121,187 | 443,033 |
| June | 5,000 | 1,305 | 3,319,545 | 312,423 | 146,593 | 526,930 |
| Total | 636,899 | \$81,015 | 12,048,815 | \$1,169,020 | 1,082,626 | \$3,964,826 |

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR.

Bureau of Statistics.

WASHINGTON, D. C., Aug. 1, 1907.

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Imports of Tea and Silk into the United States for the twelve months ending June 30, 1905, 1906 and 1907.

TEA.

| Imported from | 1905. | | 1906. | | 1907. | |
|---------------------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. |
| United Kingdom..... | 7,132,290 | 1,487,652 | 8,186,500 | 1,780,513 | 8,063,762 | 1,874,740 |
| British North America.... | 2,067,824 | 482,265 | 2,170,388 | 526,248 | 2,324,319 | 558,745 |
| Chinese Empire..... | 43,122,798 | 5,903,077 | 37,466,719 | 4,925,289 | 31,233,259 | 4,181,980 |
| East Indies..... | 7,813,564 | 1,078,655 | 7,340,106 | 1,058,610 | 6,269,890 | 978,218 |
| Japan..... | 41,970,050 | 7,179,880 | 37,812,684 | 6,166,246 | 37,411,653 | 6,115,386 |
| Other Asia and Oceania .. | 348,287 | 45,036 | 450,431 | 74,941 | 657,034 | 113,516 |
| Other countries | 251,786 | 54,293 | 194,922 | 49,031 | 402,573 | 92,959 |
| Total..... | 102,706,599 | 16,230,858 | 93,621,750 | 14,580,878 | 86,362,490 | 13,915,544 |

RAW, OR AS REELED FROM THE COCOON.

SILK.

| Imported from | 1905. | | 1906. | | 1907. | |
|----------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. | Pounds. | Dollars. |
| France..... | 795,999 | 2,533,218 | 552,493 | 2,080,974 | 511,316 | 2,066,996 |
| Italy..... | 4,571,817 | 16,630,016 | 3,490,570 | 13,972,603 | 3,729,326 | 17,199,598 |
| Chinese Empire..... | 3,143,146 | 8,849,068 | 2,905,739 | 8,463,339 | 2,990,039 | 10,371,644 |
| Japan..... | 8,304,023 | 28,851,809 | 7,446,007 | 27,934,363 | 9,346,975 | 40,027,463 |
| Other countries | 997,148 | 2,858,781 | 110,515 | 404,332 | 144,651 | 563,817 |
| Total..... | 17,812,133 | 59,542,892 | 14,505,324 | 52,855,611 | 16,722,207 | 70,229,518 |
| Wastelbs...free.. | 4,516,628 | 1,489,286 | 2,813,105 | 1,213,441 | 1,950,474 | 1,158,574 |
| Total unmanufactured | | 61,040,053 | | 54,080,504 | | 71,411,899 |

THE REPORT ON THE CHINA FAMINE.

(From the North China Daily News.)

As soon as there could no longer be any reasonable doubt regarding the impending scarcity of foodstuffs in Kiangpeh, it was decided to form a representative committee of Chinese and foreigners in Shanghai, to supplement the appeal which had already been sent to America from the Missionary Committee at Chinkiang. To this latter body, situated as it was on the threshold of the threatened district, belongs the credit of being the first to realize the gravity of the situation and to have taken steps to meet it. Today this committee would be the first to acknowledge the wisdom and foresight of their fellow laborers in the cause of charity in Shanghai, who decided that the appeal for funds to relieve the famine sufferers must be made as worldwide as possible. Thanks to the hearty co-operation of all sections of the community and to the consequent unanimity with which that appeal could go forth to the world, the response to it has been remarkable and gratifying. No less a sum than \$1,313,000 has been collected by the two committees, and all but a small balance has been expended in the saving of life, combined in some cases with preventive measures against future famines.

The impoverished districts have not ceased to feel the effects of the visitation, nor can all the inhabitants be said to be without any anxiety for the immediate future. But in many parts good crops are already being reaped, and in other districts it seems a wiser course to place the people on their own resources before too long a spell of outside help causes them to lose their capacity for helping themselves. In the meantime the possible call for further relief from without toward the autumn will not

be lost sight of, and all unexpended funds will be kept in readiness to meet cases of urgent need. The two committees are to be congratulated not only on the success of their efforts to raise the necessary funds, but also on the smooth and satisfactory manner in which the arduous work of providing relief over such a wide area and to so many thousands has been carried through. In this connection it is impossible to withhold a tribute from the devoted bands of missionaries who have borne the whole burden of carrying relief to the famine sufferers. Old and young, men and women, all those in the districts affected and many from other parts have given a splendid exhibition of the faith that is in them and of the work they have set themselves to do. In three instances we know of lives sacrificed to the task of relief; in many others there will have been healths impaired, of which no record is kept.

If we may accept without question the fact that the immediate aims of the work of famine relief have been successfully accomplished—and this is the point that will appeal most to the many thousands of subscribers throughout the world—there remains the consideration whether any indirect benefits have accrued from China's misfortune. It is impossible to read the letters that we have published during the last few days from the famine area, without arriving at the conclusion that, here and there at least, the part played by the foreigner in the work of famine relief has appealed to the Chinese intelligence in a manner that ultimately may bear fruit. Another aspect of the situation is the cordial co-operation between Chinese

and foreigners, most marked in the activity of the Central Committee, less conspicuous but still existing in various parts of the famine area, that alone has enabled the relief to be carried out successfully. No more notable example of this co-operation was afforded than by the International Fancy Fair and Fête, which added no less than \$67,000 to the Famine Fund. Such co-operation is a valuable plant that will repay careful tending in the future, and if brought to maturity should exercise a healthy influence on the affairs of the settlement. More important still from China's point of view is the undoubted impetus given by foreign assistance in famine relief to Chinese officialdom's latent sense of responsibility. Due credit must be given to the Chinese authorities, both central and provincial, for the enormous sums of money poured into the famine-stricken area, but the system of relief was crude and left to itself must have proved largely ineffective. It was reserved for the foreigner to point out the necessity of relief works, both for their intrinsic worth and to enable

the authorities to distinguish between the really destitute and the mere loafer. Many districts in the famine area can point to the benefits derived from relief works inaugurated and supervised by foreigners, but there are also some where the Chinese officials have followed to good purpose the example set them. To quote but one example, many miles of the Grand Canal north of Chinkiang, we learn, are now in good repair. It is to be hoped that this work will not be discontinued because the foreign relief fund has been closed. Much of the severity of this famine could have been prevented by public works, of which the neglect can only be regarded as criminal. If order could be introduced into Chinese finances, we might trust to the business instincts of the nation to discover that it is cheaper to undertake these works in time, rather than wait until the misery their neglect causes has to be relieved. But even the small measure in which the official conscience has been pricked we may reckon among the indirect benefits accruing from the famine.

BALANCE OF CHINESE TRADE.

The report of Mr. H. B. Morse, Statistical Secretary of the Imperial Maritime Customs of China, contains the following interesting study of the international balance of the indebtedness of China on the basis of the actual trade of 1906:

The net foreign import trade (c. i. f. value) exceeded the foreign export trade (f. o. b. value) in 1906 by 74 per cent., a percentage of excess nearly two and a half times that of the last normal year, 1903, but less than the excess, 97 per cent., of 1905. An attempt was made in my last report to throw some light on the financial conditions affecting the China trade, which enabled this large excess of imports to be carried without an entire dislocation of trade; these conditions, however, only affected operations as far as the original importer, on whose shoulders the burden has lain for two years. The consuming market, as is shown elsewhere in this report, has not lightened this burden, and the future must be looked to for relief. The political conditions affecting trade have been so confusing that it would be hopeless to attempt to draw any exact inference from them; and the effect of the climatic conditions will be as much manifested in the trade of the coming year as in that of the year now past. All that can be done now is to give an estimate of the international balance of indebtedness of China on the basis of the actual trade of 1906:

| Liabilities. | | |
|--|----------|-------------|
| Value of merchandise imported in 1906..... | Hk. Tls. | 410,270,082 |
| Loans and indemnities..... | " " | 38,500,000 |
| Invisible liabilities, estimate of 1903..... | " " | 82,000,000 |
| | | 480,770,082 |

| Assets. | | |
|--|----------|-------------|
| Value of merchandise exported in 1906..... | Hk. Tls. | 236,456,739 |
| Net export of treasure from commercial area..... | " " | 1,325,059 |
| Invisible assets, estimate of 1903, less certain known deductions..... | " " | 147,000,000 |
| | | 384,781,798 |
| Difference to be accounted for..... | Hk. Tls. | 95,988,284 |

This unprovided balance, increased by the net value inward of the unrecorded trade through Talien and other channels, and diminished by the net value outward of the unrecorded trade by the land frontier, is our only measure of the amount, in other forms than irredeemable paper money, of the "cost of evacuation," which has replaced the "war remittances" of the years immediately preceding, and which have enabled the import trade to be financed without disorganizing exchange.

An inspection of the exchange diagram accompanying this report will show that, from a minimum of 28 pence for the Shanghai tael (Hk. Tls. 100 = Sh. Tls. 111.40) in 1904, exchange rose, with many fluctuations, to a maximum of 37.75 pence in 1906, an increase of 35 per cent. within less than three years. Merchants in western countries may imagine what would be the effect if, within three years, exchange between London and New York ranged, with many sharp and unforeseen fluctuations, between the extremes of 4.86 and 3.60, or if in the same time the Paris cheque fell from 25.25 to 18.70. While the fluctuations within the same month were less marked in 1906 than in the previous years, and the year was characterized by a general upward trend in the price of silver and the rate of exchange, the effect on trade was none the less injurious. Even if, as is the case with imports, a higher exchange is beneficial, enabling goods to be laid down at a lower silver cost, the benefit is neutralized for holders of stocks, who must

sell in competition with later importers whose stocks represent a lower laying down cost; and it must be remembered that importers had generally large stocks on their hands during the year. Exporters find a rising exchange a disadvantage; their earlier shipments may have shown an unearned increment of profit from exchange, but for their later shipments they find it difficult to adjust the silver prices, already fixed, to meet the altered conditions of exchange. It may fairly be said that if 30 years (1872-1902) of steadily falling exchange have demonstrated the insistent need of the stabilization of exchange, four years (1903-06) of rising exchange have furnished an equally strong argument on the same side. A falling or a rising exchange which can be foreseen and measured presents no terrors to the merchant whose life is spent in anxious study of the subject; it is the inability to see a month ahead which converts all business into gambling.

In the matter of exchange—or the value of that silver monometallic currency now used by China alone among the commercial nations—the merchants and people of China are powerless to exert any influence; the price of silver is affected by causes lying outside China, and some words on a few of those causes may not be out of place in a report on the trade of the empire. Apart from any artificial and local value created by a mint imprint, protected by the law, gold and silver are as much commodities, and their relative value is affected by the same causes, as other products. The number of piculs of rice, pieces of woven cotton, or taels of silver received in exchange for a tael of gold will depend on the relative supply and demand for rice, cotton, silver and gold; an increase in the relative supply of any one will lower its barter value, and an increase in the demand will raise the value. An increase in the supply of gold without a corresponding increase in the supply of silver will accordingly lower the relative exchange value of gold, whether for rice or cotton or silver, and will raise that of silver; and this has been the actual condition. From the report for 1906 of the Director of the Administration des Monnaies at Paris I have summarized the following information:

Average Annual World Production of Gold and Silver.

| Years | Gold | | Silver | | |
|---------------------------|---------|------------|-----------|---------------|---------------------------|
| | Weight | Value | Weight | Coinage Value | Approximate Bullion Value |
| Ten years, 1885-94..... | 193,928 | 26,718,400 | 8,908,642 | 84,738,400 | 24,100,000 |
| Five years, 1895-99..... | 370,353 | 51,025,000 | 5,116,585 | 46,320,000 | 21,540,000 |
| Three years, 1900-02..... | 407,415 | 56,129,800 | 5,282,118 | 46,940,000 | 20,480,000 |
| Two years, 1903-04..... | 508,208 | 69,744,000 | 5,231,573 | 46,562,000 | 21,000,000 |
| One year, 1905..... | 566,420 | 78,040,000 | 5,337,275 | 47,444,000 | 23,400,000 |

From this table it may be seen that the known world's output of gold has trebled in twenty years, and that the production of silver in the same twenty years increased in absolute quantity by only 36 per cent., while the exchange value was actually less. This disproportion in the supply should of itself have sufficed to cause a reaction, had there been no change in the demand; but, in fact, there has been increased demand for silver. Several governments have established a gold basis for their silver currency—Mexico,

the Philippines, Singapore; but against this may be set the demonetization of their previous unsupported silver currency.

India, however, has largely increased its absorption of silver, as may be seen from the following figures:

Average Annual Net Import of Silver into British India (years ending 31st of March.

| Years | Average Exchange Per Haikwan Tael | Net Import | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|------------|
| | Pence | Rupees | Hk. Tls. |
| Ten years, 1885-95..... | 55.5 | 104,285,808 | 30,064,900 |
| Five years, 1895-1900..... | 57.2 | 56,938,426 | 24,489,000 |
| Three years, 1900-03..... | 54.9 | 78,855,729 | 36,151,600 |
| Two years, 1903-05..... | 33.25 | 134,571,194 | 64,758,000 |
| One year, 1905-06..... | 36.1 | 157,230,198 | 69,688,500 |
| Ten months, April, 1906-Jan., 1907.. | 39.5 | 195,588,107 | 79,225,000 |

From an annual average for the eighteen years 1885-1903 not exceeding 30,000,000 taels in weight, the Indian net import increased to an average of nearly 67,000,000 taels for the three years 1903-1906, and for the year ending 31st March, 1907, has been at the rate of 95,000,000 taels.

The needs of Japan for the war and the reorganization following have also had their effect on the silver market. The net export of gold to the amount of over 100,000,000 yen (Hk. Tls. 71,500,000) in 1904, by increasing the world's free stocks to that extent, intensified the result of the increased demand for silver; and in addition, the Japanese net demand for silver was increased from small amounts to the amounts shown as follows:

| | | | |
|-----------|----------------|---|---------------------|
| 1904..... | Yen 26,721,026 | — | Hk. Tls. 19,087,000 |
| 1905..... | " 9,687,634 | — | " 6,576,000 |
| 1906..... | " 7,388,565 | — | " 4,617,500 |

These amounts do not include the funds carried to the scene of military operations in government vessels.

Russia, from being an importer of treasure in the years 1902-03, became an exporter in 1904-05, the actual movement of silver across the Asiatic frontier (presumably almost entirely from and to Manchuria) having been reported as follows:

| | | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|---|--------------------|
| 1903 net import..... | Roubles 2,090,000 | — | Hk. Tls. 1,698,700 |
| 1904 net export..... | " 6,840,000 | — | " 5,010,700 |
| 1905 net export..... | " 18,208,000 | — | " 12,740,000 |

In 1905 I had to record that North China had received a net sum of 40,000,000 taels in silver from Shanghai, an internal movement which, however, locked up that quantity from the world's market; and in 1906 the north returned to Shanghai, on the balance, less than 3,000,000 taels.

We have thus a series of facts, an increased supply of gold, a stationary production of silver, and an exceptionally increased demand for silver, all of which go to explain the rise which has been observed in the relative value of silver and in the exchange equivalent of the Chinese currency tael. The prophet, however, must take due note of all the possibilities—the chances of a continuance of the demand for India, a possible increase in the output of silver, the possible outflow of silver locked up in Manchuria, and the prospect of a drain of silver from China to maintain the equilibrium of international exchange, for which the inexpansive export of Chinese produce does not suffice.

THE UNITED STATES AND CHINA. TRADE RELATIONS.

BY T. R. JERNIGAN.

(From the North China Daily News.)

In the following article I propose to deal with the causes, as they appear to me, which have affected the trade relations between China and the United States.

When Mr. W. A. G. Clark was in China several months ago he made searching inquiries on this subject, and in his accurate report he has reasoned on substantial business lines, but in my opinion the real causes of our changed trade relations with China are not solely due to the oversupply of her markets. In and out of China we have more than once so acted as unfavorably to impress the Chinese toward us.

If too many bales of cotton goods have been shipped to China by American merchants the mistake can be corrected by not shipping so many, but the impression that Americans come to China to secure business concessions merely to sell out at a profit to any one who will buy is hurtful to our prestige; it is a mistake that cannot be easily corrected or removed. I have not only stated a sound principle but now I will state a fact.

Immediately after Admiral Dewey stopped shooting at Manila the influence of American merchants rapidly became dominant in China, there was a steady and increasing demand for American products in the markets of China, and specially was this true with reference to our cotton goods. The Admiral not only won success for his flag on the sea but he gave his countrymen the start in the race for commercial development in the oldest and largest empire of the world. Our business men had the decided advantage of other nationals as well as the full confidence of the Chinese. Their advantage was in great part due to the superior products of our factories, and the Government of China well knew that our Government had no intention to appropriate Chinese territory. There could not have been two more favorable influences at work in the interest of American merchants.

Soon China awakened to the necessity of developing her internal resources. She saw that a railway running through the interior of the Empire and connecting two of her most important trading centres would prove both a commercial and military advantage, but not having the means to build such a railway she awarded the concession to an American company. The concession was awarded because of the nationality of that company, the evidence of Chinese confidence and trust.

The proposed railway was about seven hundred miles long and connected the great trading ports of Hankow and Canton. Its course was through the interior of China; the fertile lands of the Empire bordered its line, and it was a position of unsurpassed commercial strategy. Any military commander holding a similar position in war and abandoning it would have deserved immediate death. Had

the American company completed its contract our commercial interest would have been impregnably entrenched in China and we could have commanded the coming and going of her trade for half a century. The company did not complete its contract, although China never faltered in fulfilling her part of it. There was hesitation and faltering on the part of the company until the situation seriously reflected upon the honor and straightforward business methods of the American merchant. The end came by the company selling the concession to China at a profit, pocketing the profit and leaving the impression on the Chinese mind that American companies were nothing more nor less than scalpers in the markets of China. When Professor Jenks was in China to reform the currency of the Empire he said to me that the action of the American company in connection with the Hankow-Canton railway transaction had been placed before him with an emphatic reminder of its turpitude by every Chinese official he had talked with and had clouded his mission with the ominous signs of failure. And I do not hesitate to write that this very transaction changed to suspicion and distrust the current of Chinese thought which had been so strong in our favor. The Chinese have a keen insight into character, and they are quick to see the motives of men both in private and business intercourse. In this Hankow-Canton railway transaction they believed that the American company had come to China to build for her a great trunk line of railway, but now they believe that the American company came to China to get a concession and then sell it to the highest bidder. There was a loss of confidence and, in consequence, America's trade relations have suffered great moral hurt and pecuniary damage.

I am not blind to the fact that companies are composed of human beings and that under like circumstances men generally are influenced by like causes, but in this particular case, when China had turned with confidence to America as her truly disinterested friend, it was a shame if not a business crime to have absolutely betrayed every trust. Every foreign resident in China, of whatever nationality, knows that what I have written above is literally true, and that my own conviction is generally shared by all China.

It may be said that the Hankow-Canton Railway is no longer a live subject, but an "incident closed." The truth is that ever since the railway was repurchased by China it has been the source of the bitterest feelings and criminations. There are frequent meetings at Canton to devise plans to build the railway, but as yet no plan has been agreed upon. Every discussion seems to confuse the situation and all the trouble is charged against the American company for not carrying out its contract. In my opinion some British syndicate will build the railway

and command for British merchants the entire trade of Central China.

The boycott against American trade by Chinese merchants would not have been as widespread and intense had it not been that the confidence of China's business men was so rudely shaken in the American merchant on account of the Hankow-Canton deal. Doubtless the alleged bad treatment of Chinese at San Francisco suggested retaliation in some form, but the prompt action of the President in removing all probable occasion for a repetition of the treatment would have allayed the excited feelings of the Chinese but for the suspicions of bad faith against our countrymen which already prevailed in China. I have never thought that the boycott would have been resorted to as a resentment of the harshness of the custom officials at San Francisco, had there not been some ulterior preceding cause for a foundation; the San Francisco incident being more of a pretext than a real cause.

And China knew why her subjects had been refused admittance at the port of San Francisco. Chinese officials were as deeply implicated in furnishing to their subjects false certificates of identification as was charged against an American consular officer. It is almost impossible for an American consul to guard at all times from being deceived as to the identity of Chinese who apply for his approval to go to the United States. The Chinese so applying first applies to a high civil official of his own country and who resides at the port, generally, of the residence of the applicant. This Chinese official gives the applicant a certificate to the effect that he is what he represents himself, and that the accuracy of the representations and his identity are well known to the official as set forth in the certificate. With such a certificate the applicant goes to the consular officer and presents it for his approval. It appears on the face of the certificate that it has passed under the eye of the proper Chinese official and been stamped by him as genuine and accurate. If the consular officer undertakes to investigate the good faith of the Chinese official he will find it an almost impossible proceeding, for no native who may know the applicant would testify against the act of his own official. It is, therefore, evident that the consular officer is often embarrassed. He does not wish to say to the highest Chinese official at the port where he is stationed, that I do not believe you have told the truth and I am going to investigate what you have certified to; that would be still more embarrassing, discourteous and undiplomatic. In the face of such an accusation either the consular officer or the Chinese official would have to be recalled from that port. One can easily understand how the official can mislead the consular officer and how both can co-operate and for a while mislead the custom officials at San Francisco or any other port of entry. There is no doubt that the custom officials at San Francisco were misled, and after the false certificates had been detected it was proper to be vigilant and scrutinizing. Possibly some harshness may have been used, but the imposition practised upon them excused a more searching scrutiny and the employment of the means necessary to make it effective. From the information I have, certain Chinese officials were deeply implicated in the conspiracy

to deceive our custom officials, but not a single one has been removed from office in consequence, while our consular officer who was suspected of being a member of the conspiracy was promptly removed. The boycott would have had no foundation had it been based on the San Francisco episode alone, and otherwise it would never have grown with the intensity that characterized it.

But that there has been a boycott and by reason of it a feeling of unfriendliness excited against the United States is beyond all doubt; and it is amusing to read in the reports of some of our consuls the purpose to belittle this most serious movement against a heretofore prosperous and increasing business between China and our country. There was no reason to wish to belittle the movement, but there was every reason why its open and hidden enmity should have been exposed in unmistakable language. At Shanghai there were meetings held, two or three times each week, attended by thousands of Chinese, and at which the orators indulged in abuse and vituperation of everything American or connected with that country; and these hostile sentiments were loudly applauded. Such meetings were repeatedly held within sight and almost within presence of the Stars and Stripes, and yet in the reports of our consular representative they are regarded as nil. The American merchants who have been long established in business at Shanghai tell me that the influence of the boycott meeting did create a sentiment hostile to their business and materially hurtful to it, and that the meeting should and could have been suppressed by the strong hand of government, either native or foreign. China violates her treaty obligations when she permits her subjects to destroy the trade which these obligations were incurred to secure and to guarantee. It is true that the American Minister to China demanded that one of the principal agitators at Shanghai should be arrested, but no effective attention was given to the demand, and it would have been advisable not to have made any such a demand in the absence of the intention to have it enforced. It is a blunder, injurious in consequence, to make a mere paper demand of China. Some of our consuls were prompt in nipping in its incipency boycott at their ports. I have in mind the energetic action of Consul General Fowler at Chefoo, who so plainly intimated to the highest Chinese official at that port that he would be held accountable for every loss to American trade by reason of the boycott, and there were no boycott meetings at Chefoo.

When the guilds of China combine in opposition their influence cannot be successfully overcome. Even the Central Government of China will not oppose the known opposition of the guilds and there is no trade, native or foreign, that can live against it. And it is a fatal mistake to believe that the Chinese mind is incapable of appreciating the morality of business engagements or contracts. I repeat that the Chinese merchant is quick to understand the right and wrong of a business transaction and to see the motives which govern the acts of the parties to it. A "square deal" in China commands confidence as it does elsewhere, and a promoter or scalper in the markets of the empire is a stumbling block and hindrance to the trade of the country he hails from. I am not depreciating the merchants of my country; I know there are some in China who understand the morals of business and whose dealings measure up to its highest standards, and it is these who have suffered by the reckless scalper and promoter who hail from America.

From another cause our trade with China has been

jeopardized. During the McKinley administration some of our consular representatives were not representatives of American citizenship or of the morals of American business. With some exceptions there never had been sent abroad men less fitted to represent any country. Here at Shanghai, the commercial capital of China, the conduct of one of our consuls general was so obnoxious that nearly all the better class of the American residents petitioned President Roosevelt for his removal, and he was asked to resign by his Government. In Southern China the records show that our flag was represented by a consul who was frequently called to account for the way in which his office was administered, until he, too, was removed. At another consulate our consul took time by the forelock and resigned. It is needless to urge that representatives of such character and class are specially damaging to the best interests of the country they represent. To the country to which they are accredited they are useless as agencies in the promotion of trade relations. It is pleasant to write that under the administration of President Roosevelt much has been done to improve the standard of our consular representatives. Wherever Mr. Roosevelt has made a change it has been to the advantage of our country. But the insufferable stench that went out from some of our consulates during McKinley's administration sickened American citizenship and sullied the hitherto brightness of our flag in this old empire.

That I am writing temperately on this subject of consular representation, the reader has only to remember that up to a very recent date our consuls in China were invested with the judicial function of a United States court, and for men to preside in our courts as judges whose capacity and honor were directly questioned could not help proving materially damaging to our best interest in this part of the world. Fortunately Congress has enacted a law providing for the establishment of a regularly constituted court of China composed of a judge, prosecuting attorney, marshal and clerk. The court has been organized with the Hon. L. R. Wilfley as judge, and the influences of this tribunal are already acknowledged throughout the whole of China. It says to the Chinese that whatever claims you may have against American citizens will be heard and adjusted by a properly constituted court presided over by an official educated in the law; and this is helpful to American interest in every sense. It also says to the American merchant that his trade relations with Chinese are under the jurisdiction of a tribunal over which presides a judge, appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate to do justice to all, and thus command the confidence of all. The provision for a court and its organization and proper administration will prove of far reaching advantage to every interest of our country.

And lately there has come to the East another company, hailing from America, to engage in the business of banking. It has established banking houses at nearly all the principal trading ports of the East. From Singapore to Peking and across the sea to Japan banks are being operated by this company. The American flag flies over the bank, but the managers owe their allegiance to another flag, and the money which is issued under that flag bears the signature of the subjects of a king. I am frequently asked by leading Chinese merchants why Americans have to engage men of other nationalities to manage their banks, and if Americans cannot be trusted to sign money bills issued by American banks. The policy I am condemning would be unwise in any other country, but in China it is a specially unwise policy, and it is not one that will subserve our best interest. When I go into the great English banks in China I find the managers Englishmen, and I see young men of the same nationality performing the various banking duties assigned. These young men are being trained as the future officers of the banks; but according to the policy of the American bank in China our young men will continue deficient in the knowledge

of the system of Eastern bankers, as they are said to be at the present time, for our banks are a mere training school for other nationalities than our own. It is not a right policy and anyone who has at heart the real interest of America knows it.

As the subjects of other nations are the managers of American banks in China so a large percentage of the products of our country brought to China come in vessels flying the flags of other nations. Occasionally I see in this port of Shanghai a vessel flying the American flag, but such are usually loaded with kerosene oil or Oregon pine lumber. When that enterprising American citizen, Mr. Hill, inaugurated the Great Northwestern Steamship Line between Seattle and Japan and China and sent the magnificent steamship Minnesota as the advance courier of the line and flying the American flag, there was surprise expressed that the captain at that time was a British subject, the chief traffic and passenger agent also a British subject, and the agent at Shanghai a subject of the Emperor of Japan. There was nothing about the ship, as she then appeared in these waters, except her flag, that indicated her nationality. The impression was unfavorable to Mr. Hill's enterprise. It is also true that there was nothing in the tone of the official life on board the steamship Dakota, recently stranded on the coast of Japan, that evidenced she was an American vessel, except her flag. What is needed on the steamships that fly our flag is such commanders as the late Captain Seabury, of the Pacific Mail, where more American officials will be found than on another line coming from our country to the ports of China.

Congress should give material assistance to the Pacific Mail Company, in the face of the subsidized opposition of the steamship lines of other nations, so energetically competing for the carrying trade of the Pacific Ocean. England, France, Germany and Japan have magnificent steamers touching at Asiatic ports and then returning to their home ports, supported by the money and influence of their respective governments. The lines of the Pacific Mail and the Great Northern receive no material assistance from their Government, and are thrown upon themselves for support. The end is easily seen. What control we now have of the carrying trade of the Pacific will soon pass under the commercial flags of other nations. Whether the door in China be opened or closed will soon be immaterial, unless Congress in some way comes to the protection of our steamship lines and merchant marine of the Pacific Ocean.

And a word about the open door. Before the Russo-Japanese war the Russians were in Manchuria and dominated that part of China, and Secretary Hay continued eloquent on the open door doctrine to which Russia was assenting, but all the time was going ahead and gradually closing the door. Without the war Russia would have been the sentinel at the door, but after the war Japan has been the sentinel. It should have been expected that after driving Russia out of Manchuria Japan would utilize the commercial opportunities there in her favor, and this she has done, but the door of Manchuria is still guarded by Japan, and the open door doctrine has already been more of a beautiful theory than effective as a practical business proposition.

China is helpless to resist attacks from within or from without. Her situation is admirable and humiliating. The empire is immensely rich, and if properly developed and organized could stand four square, but even the small resources, comparatively, now collected, are shamefully misapplied to enrich a corrupt mandarin, and there does not appear to be any real economic reform intended. Much is being written with reference to the reformation or awakening of China, and political and social questions are the order of discussion, but the weak spot in the Chinese system of government is finance, and there will be no trustworthy reform in China without honest finance and honest currency.

COMMERCE OF HONGKONG.

Consul General Amos P. Wilder reviews the traffic and commercial operations for the past year at Hongkong as follows:

Hongkong is distinctive in being a transit port, with but little qualification, and as such its growing importance can scarcely be exaggerated. The city of Victoria, itself a part of Hongkong, has some 300,000 people, all but 10,000 are Asiatics, and the consuming power is inconsiderable. Cargoes come from many parts of the world, to pass through Hongkong as the key port to other countries or for distribution in South China, with its many supports of entry supplying teeming millions. So, too, the exports from Hongkong are gathered in from Canton, with its 2,000,000 workers, and other interior points, and from Chinese cities in the southern part of the empire, to be distributed over the world. There are from forty to seventy-five steamers in the harbor all the time, but the cargoes they bring and take out are in many instances undisturbed in the holds. When bulk is broken the freight may be transferred by lighters to be laden on other steamers without being brought ashore. But there is an extensive system of go-downs in Hongkong for the temporary deposit of freight, though the amount actually landed at this port for local consumption is, of course, very small.

The year 1906 was marked by quietude in trade, and, like 1905, was disappointing in commercial circles. Floods in the country districts, partial failure of the first rice crop and uncertainty owing to attacks of pirates in the Canton delta were factors. The evils of exchange fluctuations were at their maximum, the Hongkong dollar varying from 47 to 55 cents gold, and introducing a large speculative element into every transaction. The debasement of the coinage through the flooding of the colony by the Chinese provincial governments with short weight silver further confused matters. The discount on these rose to 7 per cent. at times, and thus a merchant in the interior buying from Hongkong had to send \$107 in his currency to buy \$100 worth of goods here.

The typhoon of September 18, apart from the destruction of property running into millions, paralyzed business for a week and hampered it for months through an absence of lighters to effect transfer of goods and of wharves to receive them. A large quantity of damaged goods was thrown on the market under the hammer, thus invading the regular market. The cotton yarn trade was completely demoralized during the year through overstock of India yarn, being attended with failures of well known houses and great loss by leading firms. Toward the end of the year the yarn trade conditions improved somewhat. The rise in exchange through the year militated against piece goods business, dealers hesitating to buy in the expectation that by delay they could buy cheaper.

The metal trade was light. The typhoon made work for the dock companies and engineering firms. The one cotton mill of Hongkong felt the perturbation of the yarn market. High exchange put the cement industry at a disadvantage with competing plants in other countries. The

rope industry had a fair year. Cement, rope and sugar are the three dominant industries of this port.

The deplorable loss of life and damage done, due to the typhoon, will be indelibly marked in the annals of the colony. It is believed that 5,000 is a low estimate of the loss of life, including about twenty Europeans (non-Asiatics).

The total tonnage entering and clearing at Hongkong during the year 1906 amounted to 32,747,268 tons, being a decrease, compared with 1905, of 1,437,823 tons; but in combining ocean and steam river trade, a tonnage amounting to 19,793,384 is shown, an increase of 86,656 tons over 1905, and the highest yet recorded. Of British ocean going vessels, 3,595,879 tons entered and 3,593,592 cleared. Of foreign ocean going vessels, 3,565,449 tons entered, and 3,528,046 cleared. Of British river steamers, 2,424,961 tons entered, and 2,417,540 tons cleared. Of foreign river steamers, 334,831 tons entered and 333,086 tons cleared. The decrease in arrivals and departures of British ocean going and river steamers (Canton and West River trade) excites some colonial remark. Thus, while British ocean going ships decreased from 3,995 in 1905 to 3,697 in 1906, a shrinkage of 298 ships of 482,853 tonnage, foreign ocean going steamers increased from 3,845 in 1905 to 4,287 in 1906, a gain of 442 ships of 1,272,710 tonnage. River traffic shows like gains by foreign steamers (non-British). Thus, British river steamers (arrivals) decreased from 7,488 in 1905 to 6,464 in 1906, a decrease of 1,024 ships, of 711,521 tonnage. On the other hand, foreign river steamers increased from 975 ships to 1,071 ships, an increase of 96 ships of 8,320 tonnage.

Following the activities of the Russo-Japanese war, traffic could only abate. The markets were more or less checked with coal and supplies at the restoration of peace. The earthquake of San Francisco, especially the typhoon of September 18, with its annihilation of thousands of small craft and total destruction and incapacitation of dozens of large steamers, and mishaps to a number of the larger ships during the year, readily explain the shrinkage. It is needless to say that Great Britain still rules the sea in these parts. Although there are more foreign ocean going steamers coming to the port in number, the tonnage of the British ocean-going vessels is still greater than that of the vessels of all other nationalities. There has been a decided increase in the number of British river steamers, but there are still six times as many sailing under the red ensign as fly the commercial flags of all other nations.

Of the total tonnage for 1906, British ocean-going vessels constituted 21 1-10 per cent., as against 22½ per cent. in 1905. In 1906 American tonnage constituted 4.29 per cent. of the total tonnage, exclusive of river steamers, launches and junks, while in 1905 4.77 per cent. was under the American flag.

The share of American ships in the immense traffic of this port is humiliating to those who know the proud place they held in the early days of this colony and earlier in the Canton trade. The present day "liners" from

San Francisco and Seattle are the largest ships that come to Hongkong. In these leviathans every American takes pride, and for passenger travel they are in high favor; but while in tonnage capacity the rank of the United States is not small, the huge ships of the Great Northern, Pacific Mail and other lines bringing up the total, the fact remains that a great body of the imports and exports of our Pacific and Atlantic ports are carried in ships flying a foreign flag. The total number of ocean ships arriving and clearing at Hongkong in 1906 was 7,984, of which 3,697 were British; and of the 4,287 "foreign" (non-British) the Germans listed 1,682, the Japanese 594, the Norwegians 552, the French 435, the Chinese 405, the Portuguese 148 and the Dutch 125, while there were 119 arrivals and departures credited to the United States. While the immense individual tonnage of the few American ships that come to this port made a total of 613,115, yet the German ships aggregated over four times as much, the Japanese over twice as much and the French somewhat more than the American.

The enjoyment of American foreign trade by non-American ships may be illustrated thus: The 119 ships of the United States arriving in 1906 brought to Hongkong a total of 41,430 tons from the United States, yet the flour receipts alone for the year, nearly all from America, were 79,635 tons, and of kerosene oil, mainly an American product, a total of 72,869 tons, to make no mention of cotton piece goods and general merchandise. So of exports, American ships took from Hongkong but 56,149 tons, not all of which went to the United States. All the rest of the huge exports went in foreign ships. Of the 3,744,287 tons of imports into Hongkong for 1906, American ships brought 41,430 tons; of the 1,940,274 tons of exports, only 56,149 tons went in American bottoms. Of the 2,878,360 tons "in transit," only 25,329 tons are credited to American ships. These figures have to do with ocean traffic.

As for "river traffic" from Hongkong as a centre to Canton and the Delta, while six other nations figure in the statistics, not one item is credited to the United States.

Hongkong being a free port, with no custom house, only approximations of cargo are given in the harbor master's report, sugar and opium being exceptions. These commodities are manifested and the returns may be accepted as reliable. The imports show an increase of 159,426 tons, or 4.1 per cent. over 1905, principally due to sugar (general), rice and flour, respectively. In sugar 170,391 tons, or 546 per cent. is shown. In rice 58,198 tons, or 10.3 per cent., is recorded. This increase would have been considerably enhanced were it not for the scarcity of cargo boats following the typhoon in September. Many of the vessels departed with full cargoes as transit which otherwise would have been reported as imports. In flour there was 25,127 tons increase, which points somewhat to a cessation of the boycott of this American commodity, although some small shipments were reported from Australia during the early part of the year. Among the decreases coal is prominent, amounting to 112,622 tons, which may be explained to some extent in the same manner as reported in 1905, a cessation of maritime warfare and an overstocked market. Case oil follows with a further falling off of 45,569 tons. This reduction may be ascribed to the large stock accumulated in the colony on account of the boycott and to shipments that passed through the harbor as transit for other ports, which hitherto in some instances were landed and reshipped at this port.

The importations last year of flour, of 40 sacks to the ton of 2,000 pounds, were: California, 600,000 sacks, and Oregon, Washington, etc., 2,650,000 sacks, a total of 3,250,000 sacks. The erection of a flour mill in Hongkong of 2,000 barrels per day capacity, with most modern equipment, was one of the industrial achievements of the

year. Australian flour came to Hongkong to some extent when the boycott was on, and, having learned the way, is ready for shipment whenever the price advances to a point enabling that country to compete.

During 1906 483,119 tons of sugar were imported into Hongkong, of which 75,936 tons came from the Philippine Islands and 314,673 tons from Java. This sugar was in the main refined in the three refining plants at this port. The refined sugar was sold in the North, though in competition with Java and Japan, with the effect of making the year a rather disappointing one.

The imports of opium during 1906, as officially declared, were 47,556½ chests and the exports 47,575½ chests; through cargo reported in manifests, but not landed, 9,712½ chests. Each chest contains from 1 to 1½ piculs, a picul being 133½ pounds.

The imports of ginseng, as unofficially declared, were 651 piculs, equal to 86,800 pounds.

Among new constructions are extensive steel-frame warehouses erected by a British shipping firm; a dry dock, capable of receiving the largest war ship on this station, by the admiralty, and a most modern dry dock, for commercial uses, by a British firm. This will be equal to docking the largest steamers on the Pacific. The revised estimated cost of the admiralty dock is some \$7,750,000 gold, and the date of completion 1908-9. The equipment includes four cranes, three of 20 tons and one of 50 tons, of the type known as the Fairbairn crane, which is distinguished by the swan-neck jib. They have each a foundation of 29½ feet in depth, while they rise to a height with the swan-neck curve of 65 feet above the ground level, and possess a revolving radius of 60 feet. There is boat building in a number of establishments. Forty-two steam launches and other considerable craft were built during the year. Bricks and tiles, bamboo and rattan ware, furniture, gold and silver ware, a knitting factory, a paper factory, glass making, preserved ginger, firecrackers, and matting to a limited extent, suggest other enterprises.

The colonial authorities are active in pushing their 30-mile section of the 130-mile Kowloon-Canton railway. It involves an extensive tunnel through the hills at the beginning of the route from Kowloon (on the mainland opposite the island of Hongkong), and this work is going forward. It is believed that by 1910 the British section will be completed. The Chinese have not as yet done much with their section beyond surveys and financial arrangements, and it is predicted by some that it will be necessary for the British to complete this work under some arrangement with the Chinese provincial (Kwangtung) authorities and the stockholders. As the sentiment of the Chinese is strongly in the direction of managing their own railway development, tact will be requisite on both sides in any such co-operation.

A very considerable product of Hongkong is granite. It is taken out in large quantities, and apart from its liberal use in building up the city on the mountain sides is shipped long distances.

The total revenue of the colonial government for 1906 was \$7,035,012, of which the opium monopoly yielded \$2,040,000; stamp duties, \$610,234; assessed taxes, \$1,400,642; spirit licenses, \$257,365; land sales, \$315,733. The total expenditures for the year, including public works extraordinary, aggregated \$6,832,611, public works extraordinary amounting to \$1,503,790.

There was a total of 76,725 Chinese men, women, and children who emigrated from Hongkong, of whom 60,320 went to the Straits Settlements; 3,371 to Callao, Peru; 2,972 to Mexico; 2,674 to San Francisco; 4,088 to Vancouver; 1,034 to Victoria, British Columbia; 29 to Tacoma, and 169 to Honolulu.

A total of 134,912 Chinese immigrated via this port, of whom 5,375 came from San Francisco, 77 from Honolulu, 473 from Seattle, 145 from Tacoma, 2,492 from Vancouver, and 65 from Victoria.

AMERICAN PRODUCTS IN CHINA.

Vice-Consul A. W. Pontius, of Newchwang, reports that the figures of 1906 show the firm hold American flour had on the import commerce of that Chinese port. He says:

An increase of nearly \$200,000 was shown in comparison with the figures of the preceding year. The greater portion of this commodity was imported direct from the Pacific coast, being equally shared by an American and a Japanese firm of this port. The imports of American flour during the year were as follows (value in American gold):

| | Pounds | Value |
|---------------------------------|------------|-----------|
| Direct from United States. | 22,788,000 | \$445,492 |
| Via Japan..... | 3,115,000 | 61,081 |
| Via Hongkong..... | 10,510,400 | 205,477 |
| Total..... | 36,414,000 | \$712,050 |

In addition to the foregoing figures, American flour to the amount of \$1,336 was imported from Shanghai. The customs value for such flour imported into this port during 1906 was \$2.60 per picul of 133 1-3 pounds. American steamers brought in 15,986,700 pounds, valued at \$312,523. A great decrease over 1905 figures was shown in the import of American flour from Shanghai, which dropped from \$53,886 to \$1,336. This can be attributed to the large direct importations, which insure less handling of cargo and are more satisfactory to both consignor and consignee. The customs figures show that no other flour of foreign manufacture was imported during the year. Importations of native flour from native ports still run into large figures, and the yearly increase in this particular industry shows that this flour is an important competitor with that of American manufacture. The native flour importation figures for 1906 were \$530,836.

Practically all of the flour imported at this port comes in 50-pound sacks. The large importations of flour are partly attributed to the increase of the cost of native food-stuffs, the natives preferring flour to cereals of native growth. Formerly wheat was imported into Newchwang from Shantung Province, but at present American and southern manufactured native flour can be bought at a figure that does not warrant the native in continuing his former customs. The increased demand can also be attributed to the increase in the population of Manchuria, thousands of emigrants from both Chi-li and Shantung provinces having settled throughout the north.

During 1907 the direct imports of American flour will most likely be larger than those of the preceding year. This is due to the increased demand for native flour at Shanghai, the principal port of manufacture. This increased demand is attributed to the high prices at present prevailing for rice and to the famine prevailing in the neighboring district.

The imports of lumber from foreign countries during 1906 were as follows: From the United States, \$38,736 worth; Hongkong, \$1,368; Japan, \$259,111, and Chinese

ports, \$5,000; total, \$304,215. Japan furnished more than 80 per cent. of the lumber. Only \$5,000 worth of foreign lumber was imported from Shanghai, against \$42,000 of the year before. As this lumber is unclassified by the customs, it is impossible to state with any degree of accuracy how much American lumber was imported from Shanghai; but as the figure in 1906 was very small, it is not worthy of consideration.

Lumber importers state that practically 50 per cent. of the lumber shipped from Shanghai to this port consists of American pine. American pine is used in all buildings for the heavier and more important work. The Korean pine cannot be compared with the American product; the former is very soft, has not much strength, and is very easy to work. All timbers are sawed by hand, and a Chinese contractor when sawing American pine will charge more than double the amount figured in sawing Korean pine. Of the total of American pine imported during 1906, about 15 per cent. consisted of flooring, 15 per cent. timbers, and the remainder in boards and plank.

American exporters of this article should not place too much significance on the customs import figures of ginseng during 1906, as these figures are undoubtedly due to the importation of an imitation of the American article. The figures show that American clarified ginseng to the amount of \$14,673 was imported at this port during the year, nearly all of which came from Hongkong. This is an increase of more than 300 per cent. over the previous year. The average value placed on American ginseng was \$5.88 per catty of 11-3 pounds. The total demand for ginseng for the year 1906 was only a little larger than that of the preceding year. I have seen several samples of the so-called American clarified ginseng which was wholesaled at the rate of \$2.40 per catty of 11-3 pounds. The Chinese dealers who sell the imitation are sure of this fact; but as they realize a good profit, and if the native is willing to purchase the same for the real article, they have no complaint to make. Some American ginseng has undoubtedly been imported into Newchwang, but the greater part of the root imported during 1906 consisted of an imitation. Heretofore it has been a custom to ship a cheaper root to Hongkong, and after being clarified at that place reship to northern points as the American clarified article. Fifty-three pounds of American clarified ginseng was imported from Shanghai during the year, at a valuation of \$11.50 per catty of 11-3 pounds. This was undoubtedly some of the genuine article, as duty was paid at a high valuation.

The best ginseng comes from Manchuria. This variety is known as wild ginseng and brings a much higher price than the ginseng of American growth, a single root costing as high as \$11. This variety is used by the Chinese for a tonic, while the American clarified is chiefly used as a blood purifier.

From the customs figures it is apparent that the imitation was imported as American clarified and a duty paid at an average valuation of \$5.88 per catty of 11-3 pounds. Consequently when this article is wholesaled at the rate of \$2.40 per catty it arouses suspicion, to say the least. In paying duty at the valuation placed on the American root the importer undoubtedly strengthened his claim and finds a ready market among the Chinese dealers for the imitation article. I would advise all prospective exporters of American ginseng to correspond with Hongkong, as no ginseng is imported direct from the United States; besides, the root goes through a clarifying process at Hongkong before shipment to this port.

OUR PHILIPPINE PROBLEM.

(From the North American Review.)

THE HOPE OF THE PHILIPPINES.

BY MAJOR LOUIS LIVINGSTON SEAMAN, LATE SURGEON UNITED STATES VOLUNTEERS.

As colonizers, in the practical acceptance of the word, Americans are not and never can be successful, because of the excessive idealism of their aspirations. Despite the general belief that the acquisition of the Almighty Dollar is the height of our ambition as a people, the aims of all American military expeditions, throughout our entire history, have been absolutely altruistic—always for the elevation of the downtrodden or the relief of the victims of tyranny. We have constantly endeavored to create self-respecting, self-supporting citizens, capable of appreciating liberty and of intelligently exercising that greatest of all blessings—self-government.

Can history furnish a parallel to America's disinterested emancipation of Cuba from Spain? It involved a war with a European Power, the loss of the lives of thousands of her free-born citizens, and the expenditure, with unexampled prodigality, of a round billion from her treasury. Then, after stamping out tyranny, she completed the conquest by putting the island in sanitary condition and transferring it to a liberated people, giving them their lands, their cities and their homes, together with a promise of protection from other Powers through the Monroe Doctrine, without saddling the country with a financial claim of indemnity for a single cent. Would this have been the policy of the other great colonizing countries of the world? The recent action of the so-called "Powers" in Africa does not tend to indicate that it would. Since the wonderful discoveries of Livingstone, which so greatly stimulated the world's appreciation of the possibilities of that continent, there has been going on in that vast domain a carnival of territorial lust unprecedented in history. It culminated some twenty years ago in the so-called partitioning of the continent by the Powers, who, in their division of the spoils, followed, like the robber barons of feudal times,

"The good old rule, the simple plan,
That they should take who have the power,
And they should keep who can."

And what has been done there in the name of civilization to justify this robbery of a continent? Very little, beyond the systematized collection of taxes so onerous as to practically reduce the natives to abject servitude.

A similar spoliation, on a somewhat smaller scale, would have occurred in the Celestial Empire after the Boxer war had not the diplomacy of Europe been defeated there. The allied armies of eight nations were there waiting, watching each other like hungry buzzards, for the final dissolution of the sick man of the Far East, when they thought another opportunity would offer for an extension of their territorial spheres. But the humane and enlightened policy of Mr. Hay, demanding the preservation of the integrity of China and the maintenance of the open

door, was successful, and the people of that unhappy land were rescued from the fate of the helpless, and almost hopeless, Africans of to-day. And let it never be forgotten they were rescued by America.

On the occasion of a second and recent outbreak in Cuba, when internal dissensions disturbed the peace and order of that country and necessitated its occupation by an army of intervention, America did not take advantage of the opportunity to seize that gem of the Antilles to make it a tributary of her treasury.

Nor did we seek the Philippines for territorial aggrandizement. They fell to us as the unexpected, but legitimate, result of war, and when they were definitely ceded to us by treaty we paid for them with clean American gold. Twice I have visited these islands, once as an active participant in the wretched war that began in 1898, and which is likely to continue intermittently for centuries—if the testimony of almost every army officer who has served there can be accepted—if we remain there so long. But since our occupation of the archipelago the real motive of America in administering its affairs has been absolutely unselfish. Of the hundreds of millions sunk in that region of treachery and savagery it is doubtful whether America will ever reap the benefit of so much as the price of the homeward passage for its army.

Was it as a stepping-stone for the trade of the Orient that we retained possession of the Philippines? The oldest and most respected American merchant in China, one who has spent forty years in the Orient and has represented his Government in various important capacities, said to me while discussing this point:

"As well might America regard the Bermudas or the Canary Isles as stepping-stones for the English, French or German trade of Europe, as require the Philippines for the advancement of trade in the East. Instead of a help they are a direct menace, requiring protection and provoking international jealousies; and, in case of war, they would be a constant source of the gravest danger because of their great distance from our base."

Is it for the financial advantage of the United States that our thousand school teachers are now drawing salaries in the attempt to educate these semi-savage, deceitful Malays, tainted with Spanish cross, who for centuries will be unable to eradicate the treacherous and cowardly instincts of their race? "By the same path must ye walk" is as true to-day as it was two thousand years ago. The continuity of history cannot be broken; a people cannot break with its past; immemorial heredity must be remembered. To suppose that from the low-bred Filipino there could be evolved in a single generation one worthy or competent to exercise self-government is to ignore every law of anthropology and natural selection, and to

indulge in the wildest optimism. Is it possible to believe that such a creature, the natural product of his tropical environment—whose evolution has taken ages in the development of the instincts of cunning and treachery, the characteristics and qualities that have enabled him to preserve his existence in the land of the tiger and the viper—could be suddenly translated into a self-governing citizen? The Anglo-Saxon of temperate clime has required many centuries of natural selection to evolve from his savagery. As the cave-man, he, too, was full of ferocity, guarding his home and his family with his life. Evolving from the dark ages through feudal days, assisted by the teaching and traditions of the Church, the example of Greece and Rome and the Free Cities of Europe, profiting by the lessons of the Reformation, the influence of the thought of great leaders, by long wars for the vindication of right, by Magna Charta, the printing-press, the drama, the French Revolution, and our own Revolution; through all these things he gradually developed from ignorance and superstition into a thinking, self-governing man. But in this development it required a thousand years to free him from his ignorance and moral serfdom, and to prepare him to rule himself. Is the African or Malay savage so infinitely the intellectual and moral superior of the Caucasian that he can emerge from his savagery into this sphere of civilization and attain this rich inheritance in a single decade? Is this self-governing ability (which is not yet overdeveloped among ourselves, as the resident of any great American city must confess) to be hypodermically injected in concentrated essence into the ignorant, treacherous, low-bred Filipino, by bullets, or prayer-books, or school-houses, in a generation, so as to qualify him for beneficent assimilation? The suggestion is preposterous.

I believe the most practical solution of the Philippine problem—if the American people are foolish enough to continue their extravagant experiment there, or if we are not relieved of the responsibility of the islands by neutralizing them, or through some foreign complication—is to allow them to follow the course of natural selection through the importation of the Chinaman. His exclusion from these islands was a diplomatic blunder, comparable only with the treatment of the Oriental on our Pacific coast at the instigation of the sand-lot orators, the charlatan politicians, and the yellow journalism of California. When I was last in the Philippines there were about one hundred thousand Chinese there, who formed by far the most industrious class of the inhabitants. The Chinese *mestizo* (half Chinese and half Filipino) is acknowledged to be superior to the Eurasian, or *mestizo* of Occidental

cross—as well as to the Japanese, Hindu, or Bornean. Many of them were wealthy bankers or merchants. Others were engaged as compradors or clerks, banking-houses employing them almost to the exclusion of other nationalities on account of their quick wit, sterling honesty, industry, and individual merit. As in the Hawaiian Islands, they formed the most valuable element of the population. The Chinese-Hawaiian half-caste is the keenest business man and the most industrious citizen to be found in those islands. The exclusion of the Chinese laborer from the Philippines will do inestimable damage by retarding industrial and commercial development. Despite his fanaticism when directed by ignorant rulers, he has shown his superiority over other Orientals in his untiring industry, his domesticity and his honesty. In the large foreign hongs, or business houses, of China and Japan he is the trusted employee in places requiring responsibility. When put in competition with the Bornean, the Filipino, the Cingalese, the Hawaiian, the Japanese, or the Hindu, he invariably wins, as may be seen by his rise from poverty to wealth and influence in the cities of Singapore, Calcutta, Sandakan, Manila, Honolulu or Yokohama. It is time America recognized that, in the great race of civilization, and the greater race for the survival of the fittest, the nation that has preserved the integrity of its government for over six thousand years, that has witnessed the rise and fall of the civilizations of Chaldea, Egypt, Greece and Rome, that can claim the discovery of the compass, of gunpowder, the game of chess, and the printing-press, and that gave birth to that great philosopher who, five hundred years before the coming of Christ, propounded and exemplified the doctrine, Do not do unto others what you would not have others do unto you, is more to be feared for its virtues than for its vices. The presence of the Chinaman in the Philippines—with the substitution of his characteristics of honesty, domesticity and industry, for the dishonesty, laziness and treachery of the Filipino—will do more to promote the industrial development and the civilization of these islands than any other factor, and the sooner America appreciates this fact and acts upon it, the more prompt will be her relief from her present embarrassing position.

Uncle Sam has paid, and is paying dearly, for his experiment and the privilege of protecting the trade of his distant possessions for the benefit of England, Germany and Japan. Some day he will tire of the constant drain on his treasury and his army, and remove these islands from the arena of politics, and the natural law of evolution will prevail—and many there are who will welcome the coming of that day.

PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE—WHEN?

(From the North American Review, January 18.)

By JAMES H. BLOUNT, LATE JUSTICE OF THE COURT OF FIRST INSTANCE OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

After seven years spent at the "storm-centre" of "Expansion," the first of the seven as a volunteer officer in Cuba, the next two in a like capacity in the Philippines, and the remainder in the last-named country as United

States judge, the writer was finally invalided home last spring, sustained in spirit at parting by cordial farewells, oral and written, personal and official. Having now been invited by the editor of the *Review* to prepare an article

embodying his views as to our Philippine problem, he naturally enters upon a discussion of the subject with some degree of diffidence, because it involves calling in question the wisdom and righteousness of a policy inaugurated and carried out by a small group of distinguished men, under whom he shared in this nation's work beyond seas for a very considerable fraction of the average duration of life.

* * * * *

In Charles Dickens's novel, "Bleak House," there is a chapter entitled "Telescopic Philanthropy," wherein is introduced the famous Mrs. Jellyby, the mother of a large and interesting family, "a lady of very remarkable strength of character, who devotes herself entirely to the public," who "has devoted herself to an extensive variety of public subjects, at various times, and is at present devoted to the subject of Africa, with a general view to the cultivation of the coffee berry—and the natives"; to the great prejudice of her domestic concerns, and the neglect of her own children, the latter continually getting into all kinds of mischief while her attention is diverted from home. Seeing that the present Administration proposes to continue its policy of "benevolent assimilation" in the remote Philippines indefinitely, at whatever cost, the analogy between its attitude and Mrs. Jellyby's misplaced philanthropy toward "the people of Borrioboola-Gha, on the left bank of the Niger," is by no means remote.

Mr. Bryan maintains, substantially:

- (1) That the Filipinos want independence.
- (2) That, if protected from the great land-acquiring Powers, "so far as their own internal affairs are concerned, they do not need to be subject to any alien government."
- (3) That we should at once disclaim any intention of exercising permanent sovereignty over the archipelago, and declare it to be our purpose to remain only long enough to see a stable government started, and then leave them to work out their own destiny.

Mr. Taft would probably have taken issue with Mr. Bryan on the first proposition up to the time he visited the islands in the summer of 1905, accompanied by a party of Senators and Congressmen. He will hardly do so now.

Senator Dubois, of Idaho, who was a member of the Congressional party referred to, has since said in the *New York Independent*:

"All the Filipinos, with the exception of those who were holding positions under and drawing salaries from our Government, favor a government of their own. There is scarcely an exception among them. * * * There is nobody in the islands, no organization of any kind or description, which favors the policy of our Government toward them."

Senator Newlands, of Nevada, also a member of the Congressional party aforesaid, has declared, in the number of this *Review* for December, 1905, that practically the whole people desire independence. Congressman Parsons, also a member of the same party, has since said: "There is no question that all the Filipino parties are now in favor of independence."

Captain J. A. Moss, of the Twenty-fourth Infantry, a

member of General Corbin's staff, is quoted by Mr. Bryan, in the *Commoner* of April 27th, 1906, as saying, in an article published in a Manila paper while Mr. Bryan was in the islands, with reference to the wishes of "the great majority" of the Filipinos, that "to please them we cannot get out of the islands too soon."

Mr. Bryan's second proposition, with which Mr. Taft takes issue, is that "so far as their own internal affairs are concerned they do not need to be subject to any alien government," provided, of course, they are protected from the danger of annexation by some one of the great nations. If this proposition be sound, subject to the proviso, the proviso can easily be met. The foremost citizen of the world to-day, the man who brought the Japanese-Russian war to a conclusion and thereby won the high regard of all mankind, can, and if so requested by the Congress probably will, within a comparatively short period, negotiate a treaty with the great nations, securing the neutralization of the islands, and the recognition of their independence whenever the same shall be granted to them by the United States. If the Powers should thus agree to consider the Philippines neutral territory forever. Mr. Roosevelt would have done for them exactly what has already been done for Belgium and Switzerland by treaty between the great Powers of Europe. When the resolution of Congressman McCall, of Massachusetts, proposing this, was under consideration before the House Committee on Philippine Affairs on April 7th, 1906, it met with a very considerable degree of sympathy, as is manifest from the official report of the hearing, the main objection apparently being that, because there are a number of different dialects, the Filipinos are a heterogeneous lot, and there is no spirit of Philippine nationality. Governor Taft said to the Senate Committee in February, 1902:

"While it is true that there are a number of Christian tribes, so called, that speak different languages, there is a homogeneity in the people in appearance, in habits, and in many avenues of thought. To begin with, *they are all Catholics.*"

The Philippine Census, published by the War Department in March, 1905, says (Vol. I, p. 447):

"A town in the Cagayan Valley presents the same style of architecture, the same surrounding barrios, has the same kind of stores and similarly dressed people as a Christian municipality of the island of Mindanao."

And says the same Government publication (Vol. II, p. 9), in drawing a comparison between itself and the schedules of the twelfth census of the United States:

"Those of the Philippine Census are somewhat simpler, the differences being due mainly to the *more homogeneous character of the population of the Philippine Islands.*"

The existence of a general and conscious aspiration for a national life of their own, the *Real Presence* of a universal longing to be allowed to pursue happiness in their own way and not in somebody else's way, is, to the best of such knowledge and belief as the writer obtained after two years' service in the army that subjugated them, and four years in the Insular Judiciary, one of the most obvious and pathetic facts in the whole situation. During the organized fighting, no American ever discovered that the

enemy was crippled, or his effectiveness diminished, by the lack of a common language. And as for the National Spirit, those people have been welded into absolute unity by the events of the last eight years. Rizal was shot for writing a political novel in which the Spaniards thought there was too much recognition of the "Nationalist" idea. And if we should get into a war with a first-class Power, and Aguinaldo, or Juan Cailles, the man who crumpled the gallant Fifteenth Infantry in 1901, should raise the standard of revolt, let the impartial reader ask any American now in the Philippines, or any American who has spent much time there, how many natives between Aparri and Cagayan de Misamis would fail to understand and rally to the cry "*Viva La Republica Filipina!*" Let us hope that if the McCall resolution ever comes up again, the Committee will have become satisfied, beyond the peradventure of a doubt, that there does, in fact, exist among all the people of the Philippine Islands a *consciousness of racial unity*, which draws them together as against all outsiders, and is not marred by any race problem such as exists in Cuba.

The independence of the Philippines should come about within a few years—that is, as soon as practicable—because it is best for both countries. We are governing them against their consent and at an enormous cost to both people. If the untold millions we have spent on "benevolent assimilation" since February 4, 1899, had been spent on rivers and harbors and canals, and the improvement of our interior water transportation generally, the railroad-rate question would have solved itself without the need of a rate bill. And this is not the only one of Mrs. Jellyby's neglected children, not the only domestic problem which presents a subject for strenuous altruism sufficient to occupy all the patriotism and statesmanship of this great country with its 80,000,000 of people. If all the splendid ability and grim fortitude that have been concentrated during the last few years upon "telescopic philanthropy" in the Philippines had been steadily focused upon the economic and social problems which are clamoring ever more loudly and ominously for solution at home, Hearst and Hearstism would never have arisen to voice a profound and widespread discontent having in it an element of righteousness.

But, returning to the core of Mr. Bryan's second proposition, namely, that "so far as their own internal affairs are concerned they do not need to be subject to any alien government," he further says:

"There is a wide difference, it is true, between the general intelligence of the educated Filipino and the laborer on the street and in the field, but this is not a barrier to self-government. Intelligence controls in every government, except where it is suppressed by military force. * * * 'Nine-tenths of the Japanese have no part in the lawmaking.' In Mexico, the gap between the educated classes and the peons is fully as great as, if not greater than, the gap between the extremes of Filipino society. Those who question the capacity of the Filipinos for self-government * * * forget that * * * patriotism raises up persons fitted for the work that needs to be done."

And here is the testimony of one of the most distinguished Congressmen who have visited the islands:

"I have little or no doubt that there are a sufficient number of wise and intelligent Filipinos to establish and maintain a government in the Philippines, that will compare in liberality and effectiveness with a very great many of the governments that have been in successful operation for a century or more."

Edmund Burke once said, in a speech for which Americans have long delighted to honor his memory: "The general character and situation of a people must determine what sort of government is fitted for them. That, nothing else can or ought to determine."

The Congressman last above quoted talks of twenty years as a safe period of tutelage, Senators Newlands and Dubois of thirty years, Mr. Bryan, of five, or ten, or fifteen. But the gentleman last named insisted at the Convention of 1904, and still insists, that we should make them a definite promise of independence *now*, the same to be executed as soon as practicable.

To this, the proposition of the Democracy, Mr. Taft's answer is:

"The gentlemen that are looking for office under an independent government have very little concern about independence that is to come after they are dead; and if you permit their independence, and make it a definite promise, you will have a continued agitation there as to *when* they ought to have independence."

The imputation of selfishness put by this statement upon all Filipinos who desire independence is uncalled for. "The gentlemen that are looking for office under an independent government" could undoubtedly get office under the present government *if they would only stop wanting independence*. And "if you permit their independence, and make it a definite promise," you will have no agitation to hasten the day, *provided the promise itself fix the day*. During nearly four years of service on the bench in the Philippines the writer heard as much genuine, impassioned and effective eloquence from Filipino lawyers, saw exhibited in the trial of causes as much industrious preparation, and zealous, loyal advocacy of the rights of clients, as any ordinary *nisi prius* judge at home is likely to meet with in the same length of time. Some of these lawyers are ex-officers of the insurgent army. Each of them has his clients, and is the centre of a circle of influence. All of them, without exception, want independence. Of course the law of self-preservation precludes them from proclaiming this from the house-tops, especially if they are holding office under the Government. But in their heart of hearts the dearest hope that each of them cherishes is that he may live to see the Star of the Philippine Republic risen in the Far East. Let a date be fixed by the United States Congress for turning over the government of the archipelago to its people, a date which will afford to the great majority of the present generation a reasonable expectation of living to see the independence of their country, and all political unrest, including most of the brigandage in the islands, will at once cease. The news will spread "like wildfire," to borrow a famous phrase of our sunshiny Secretary of War. We shall have exchanged a

balking horse for a willing one. The sullen submission of a conquered people will give place to genuine and universal gratitude toward America. The unborn National Life will leap for joy in the Womb of Time. *Te Deums* will be celebrated in every church of every town in the archipelago from Aparri to Zamboanga. Aglipay himself may even say: "Now, Lord, let my schism depart in peace, for mine eyes have seen Thy salvation."

The great ocean steamship companies of the world publish the sailing dates of their vessels a year ahead. Everything else hinges upon this point of departure. All preparations, whether by crew, shippers or prospective passengers, are shaped to that end. Why cannot the same be done in the matter of the launching of a ship of state? If three strong and able men, familiar with insular conditions, and still young enough to undertake the task—say, for instance, General Leonard Wood, of the Army; Judge Adam C. Carson, of the Philippine Supreme Court; and W. Morgan Shuster, Collector of Customs of the Archipelago; or three other men of like calibre—were told by a President of the United States, by authority of the Congress: "Go out there and set up a respectable native government in ten years, and then come away," they could and would do it, and that government would be a success; and one of the greatest moral victories in the annals of free government would have been written by the gentlemen concerned upon the pages of their country's history.

To understand the causes of the present discontent, and how incurable it is except by a promise of independence at a fixed date, let me review this tragedy of errors which we have written in blood and selfish legislation in that unhappy land, as rapidly as may be consistent with clearness and commensurate with the ability of an inconsiderable person—an individual whose only claim to be heard upon a great question like this must rest upon the circumstance that he was an eye-witness to the tragedy.

When trouble began to brew in the Philippines after the signing of the Treaty of Paris, the Schurman Commission, it will be remembered, was sent out, bringing the olive branch. It accomplished nothing. It was too late. War ensued. When the writer reached Manila early in November, 1899, he was detailed to the command of a company of Maccabebe scouts, to develop fire for General Lawton's Division, their commanding officer, Lieutenant Boutelle, of the Artillery, having been killed the day before. On the way to join them, he met General Lawton's Adjutant-General at a place called San Isidro. The colonel said: "We took this town last spring, after a pretty stiff fight. Then, as a result of the negotiations of the Schurman Commission, General Otis had us evacuate this place and fall back. We have just had to take it again." The Schurman Commission hoped that the Filipinos could be persuaded to give up their idea of independence. The army knew better.

In the first half of 1899 General Otis inexcusably postponed recommending to President McKinley the call for Federal Volunteers. He did not really understand the seriousness of the situation. He conducted the campaign

all the time he was there from a desk in Manila, and never once took the field.

The Volunteer Army of 1899 was to last, under the act of Congress, for two years only—that is, until the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901. The insurrection had to be over at that time, whether or no. To use an expression of the theatrical managers, that date was to be "positively its last appearance." The Volunteers began their work in the fall of 1899, twenty-five regiments of them, and, shoulder to shoulder with the Regulars, pegged away cheerfully at the war, doing their country's work; and they had been vigorously convincing the Filipinos of the benevolence of our intentions for about nine months when the idea of a second Philippine Commission, a second olive branch, was conceived at Washington. The Presidential election was to occur in the following November, and men high in the councils of the Republican party at home believed that the success of the party would be seriously imperiled if the situation did not soon clear up, or at least improve, in the Philippines. The public press of that period contains interviews with such men of the tenor indicated. In this state of the case the Taft Commission was sent out. Things looked dismal. Philippine stock was going down. Optimism was devoutly to be wished. Judge Taft did not disappoint his friends at home. He was not then a judge. He was a partisan of the Republican party, an advocate. And, like many another able advocate, he persuaded himself that the witnesses whose testimony militated against his client's interest were, if not mendacious, at least blinded with prejudice. He accepted the views of natives not in arms, as against that of the army.

In June, 1900, when the Taft Commission arrived, the military authorities had not forgotten the Schurman Commission, and the folly of its efforts to mix peace with war; and they did not look forward with enthusiasm to the coming of the new outfit. These latter brought with them, like the Schurman Commission, the theory that kindness would win the people over; and they at once proceeded to act conformably to that amiable delusion. Of course it was not long before they found abundant evidence to support their preconceived theory. Accordingly, on November 30, 1900, they made their first report to the Secretary of War, in which, among other things, they announced this tragically optimistic conclusion:

"A great majority of the people long for peace, and are entirely willing to accept the establishment of a government under the supremacy of the United States."

The army entertained a diametrically opposite opinion. The military view of the situation about the same time was thus satirically expressed in General MacArthur's Annual Report to the Secretary of War:

"* * * The people seem to be actuated by the idea that in all doubtful matters of politics or war, men are never nearer right than when going with their own kith and kin. * * *

Allusion is then made to the "almost complete unity of action of the entire native population. That such unity is a fact is too obvious to admit of discussion." Then follows this humorous thrust: "* * * The adhesive principle comes from *ethnological homogeneity*, which induces men to respond for a time to the appeals of *consanguineous leadership*."

If the Volunteers whose term of enlistment was scheduled to expire with the fiscal year, June 30, 1901, should have to be replaced by anything like an equal number of other troops, a call for further appropriations to conduct a long-drawn-out and unpopular war would surely try the patience of the American people, and endanger the ultimate fortunes of the Republican party. Everything had to be shaped to avoid such a catastrophe. Whether the country should be ready for civil government on that date or not, it *had to be*. When Joel Chandler Harris's creation, "Uncle Remus," tells his little friend the story of Brer Rabbit's climbing the tree to elude the dogs, and the lad interrupts: "But, Uncle Remus, a rabbit can't climb a tree," the resourceful narrator very promptly replies: "Oh, but, honey, *dis* rabbit des *'bleeged* ter climb *dis* tree." The Administration was *'bleeged* to climb the tree of Civil Government. Civil Government was therefore duly inaugurated on July 4, 1901.

Within less than six months thereafter the flames of insurrection broke out anew in Batangas and the adjacent provinces, and it became necessary to give the military a free hand. General J. Franklin Bell accordingly invaded Batangas and the region round about with an ample force, a brigade, and proceeded to wage *war*—the sort of war General Sherman described, only more so; for General Sherman did not practice reconcentration. General Bell went there to make those people "long for peace." And he did make them "long for peace," or, to use his own language, "want peace and want it badly." General Bell is not to be blamed for this. He is a brave and skillful soldier, one of the best in our own or any other army. He was simply doing his duty, obedient to orders. This Batangas insurrection of 1901-2 would never have occurred had not Governor Taft persisted in believing that the Filipinos could be genuinely satisfied with something less than independence. This error led him to reduce, most imprudently, the army of occupation and the number of army posts, against military advice, thereby giving the insurrection a chance to get its second wind. If the army of occupation had not been so reduced reconcentration would never have been necessary, in Batangas or elsewhere. Reconcentration tactics are born of numerical weakness. If you have troops enough thoroughly to police a given territory, no need for reconcentration will arise there. Reconcentration is an admission that you are not able constantly to provide protection for all the people. As a corollary of the fundamental mistake indicated, a constabulary force was organized, which, it was believed, could control the situation. That it has never been able to do so is a matter of record in the official publications both of the Manila and of the Washington Government. The fact is solemnly admitted in the recitals of a law now on the statute books of the Philippine Islands. Section 6 of Act numbered 781 of the Philippine Commission, approved June 1, 1903, providing for reconcentration, begins thus:

"In provinces which are infested to such an extent with *ladrones* or *outlaws* that the lives and property of residents in the outlying *barrios* are rendered wholly insecure by continued predatory raids, and such outlying *barrios* thus furnish to the *ladrones* or *outlaws* their sources of food supply, and it is not possible, with the available police forces constantly to provide protection," etc.

Such are the conditions which today warrant reconcentration in the Philippines—whenever "it is not possible with the available police forces" to protect the peaceably inclined people. It will thus be seen that we are now doing in the Philippines the very thing for which we drove Weyler and his Spaniards from the Western Hemisphere. Reconcentration under the military authorities is bad enough, even with the superb equipment of the commissary and quartermaster departments of the army. But reconcentration conducted by inexperienced civilians and unfriendly constabulary is simply unsportsmanlike.

Caring for the peaceably inclined people, or *pacificos*, as they were called in Cuba—those who upon being told to do so voluntarily come within the zone or radius prescribed in the order for reconcentration—is not the only problem which can be competently handled by the military alone. There are the prisoners brought in by the policing force from time to time, because found outside the prescribed radius, and put in the provincial jail. An ordinary jail, with 400 to 800 people crowded into it within a short period of time, cannot be properly handled by inexperienced hands. The sanitary conditions are sure to become bad and foul, and more or less disease and death is certain to ensue.

In the latter part of 1903, about the middle of November, the writer was sent to hold court in the province of Albay, where quite a formidable insurrection had been in progress for about a year, *without suspension of civil government*. There had been as many as 1,500 men in the field on each side at times. Reconcentration under the law quoted had been resorted to. There had been as many as 700 or 800 prisoners in the provincial jail at one time, so he was told. Toward the close of the term, just after Christmas, when most of the docket had been disposed of, and there was time for matters more or less perfunctory in their nature, the prosecuting attorney brought in rough drafts of two proposed orders for the court to sign. One was headed with a list of fifty-seven names, the other with a list of sixty-three names. Both orders recited that the foregoing persons had died in the jail—all but one between May 20 and December 3, 1903 (roughly six and one-half months), as will appear from an examination of the dates of death—and concluded by directing that the indictments against them be quashed. The writer was only holding an extraordinary term of court there, and was about to leave the province. The regular judge of the district was scheduled soon to arrive. He did not sign the proposed order, therefore, but kept them as legal curios.

If the military authorities had had charge of those prisoners it is safe to say that the mortality among them would have been far less, that possibly half, or even three-fourths, of those who died would have lived. Political necessity, inherent in our form of government, kept the army from acting then, and keeps it from talking now.

When the civil government was set up in July, 1901, the army took a back seat, and looked on with more or less impatience, ready to say "I told you so"—eager, of course, to get a chance to fight again. Gentlemen of the military profession have a predilection that way. The writer was, of course, entirely in sympathy with the civil authorities, having been promoted from the army to the judiciary, and rather enjoyed seeing the army behave with becoming subordination, according to orders, even if it did not like to do so. It is human nature to enjoy the possession of power. Nor did he ever give much thought one way or the other to the question of the original wisdom of setting up the civil government against military advice until he became aware of the death of these 120 prisoners in the Albay jail. This gave him pause. It was impossible to escape the reflection that just about that number had died in the Black Hole of Calcutta. After that, however, he labored all the harder to uphold the civil government by speedy trials of persons incarcerated, with a view to minimizing the necessity for the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*; and, finally, early in November, 1904, in the province of Samar, broke completely down in health from trying to dispose properly of overcrowded jails before the people awaiting trial died. The province of Samar was at that time being overrun by several thousand brigands, and in less than one hundred days more than 50,000 people had been made homeless by their depredations, according to the sworn testimony of a constabulary officer of the province, who appeared as a witness before the court presided over by the author of this paper. Why was

not the situation turned over to the military authorities? It was, later. But is an ambitious chief of constabulary of a civil government going to admit, on the eve of a Presidential election in the United States, that the public disorder in the Philippines is too great for him and his corps—the right arm of the civil government—to handle?

When the constabulary cannot protect the peaceably inclined coast people, these latter are compelled, even if they are not already in active sympathy with their hardier brethren of the highlands, to get up a *modus vivendi*, whereby they become, *ipso facto*, accessories to the crime of "brigandage"—technically, at least. The writer did not meet this ugly proposition in concrete form in the case of any specific defendant. But it would have come, sooner or later, had he remained in Samar. He left that ill-fated island November 8, 1904, determined, if he could get well, to ask to be stationed in Manila. For, as Edmund Burke said in his speech on "Conciliation with America," "I do not know the method of drawing an indictment against a whole people."

Looked at from the Oriental end of the line, the governing of the Philippines by their supposed friends from the antipodes has been not unlike a game of battledore and shuttlecock between rival political creeds at home, in which the unfortunate inhabitants have been the shuttlecock.

Space does not remain sufficient to do more than briefly suggest how true this is, also, of the Washington end of the line.

For the benefit of American cotton manufacturers, cheap

English textiles, previously worn by and satisfactory to millions of poor natives, have been shut out of the Philippines by a practically prohibitive import duty, a surtax of 100 per cent, imposed by the United States Congress (Act of February 25, 1906).

For the benefit of American shipping interests, the Philippines have been treated by our maritime legislation as part of the United States, by extension of the coastwise shipping laws to the archipelago.

For the benefit of American sugar and tobacco interests, the Philippines have been treated by our tariff legislation as foreign territory. Those interests defeated the effort to give to the islands the benefit of a reduction of the duty on Philippine products to 25 per cent. of the Dingley Tariff, their representative insisting before the Committee on Ways and Means, almost in the language of Mrs. Jellyby's critics, "I believe our own children have more claim upon us." The leading Filipinos perceive, as clearly as we Americans do, that in the nature of things this sort of argument will always be an obstacle in the path of their progress, so long as human nature retains a modicum of selfishness.

The instinct of self-preservation of our own sugar and tobacco producers would surely be satisfied with and lend their support to a free trade—or at least a lower tariff—measure between this country and the Philippines, if the same were coupled with a promise of independence within a decade. This seems to be the only solution that is at once righteous and practicable. It is the only lever that will lift the Philippine Ship of State upon the ways, and launch her successfully upon the voyage of national life.

PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE—WHY?

(From *The North American Review*, June 21.)

The author of this paper contributed, to the number of this *Review* for January 18th last an article concerning our Philippine problem entitled "Philippine Independence—When?"

* * * * *

It is a significant fact that, despite the general and apparently chronic torpor into which public interest concerning Philippine affairs was supposed to have lapsed, the article cited attracted considerable attention from the American press. Here was an article, upon a subject of which the public were tired, written by an unknown person in whom the public were not interested. Yet it challenged the attention of the country, because the American people consider the Philippines a costly burden, a nuisance and a danger, and are determined to get rid of them so soon as may be honorably possible. It challenged attention, also, because the writer, after nearly six years' stay in the islands (1899-1905)—the first two as an officer of the army that subjugated them, and the remainder as a United States judge—had finally returned home with the conviction that we ought not to continue to hold the islands indefinitely, and gave some reason, not academical, but derived from his personal observations, for the opinion he expressed.

* * * * *

The great dead President, Mr. McKinley, in his letter of instructions to the Taft Commission, after quoting the concluding words of the articles of capitulation of the city of Manila, viz., "This city, its inhabitants * * * and its private property of all descriptions * * * are placed under the special safeguard of the faith and honor of the American army," added:

"As high and sacred an obligation rests upon the Government of the United States to give protection for property and life * * * to all the people of the Philippine

Islands * * * I charge this Commission to labor for the full performance of this obligation which concerns the honor and conscience of their country."

No purpose is here entertained to detract from the high character and ability of the small group of distinguished men who, it is believed, were guided, in dealing with the Samar insurrection of 1904, by the belief that they were acting for the greatest good of the greatest number. But that maxim is too ruthless, too Napoleonic, in many of its possible applications, for a Republic safely to follow. After observing what he conceived to be a governmental application of it to the affairs of a very considerable portion of the Philippines, for some time prior to and up to November 8, 1904, the writer left the vicinity of the Samar massacres on or about that date, bound for Manila, prostrated from overwork in trying to dispose properly of the cases of prisoners likely to die in overcrowded jails. He came to Manila believing that we ought to get out of the Philippines just as soon as any sort of fairly respectable native Government could be set up, whether modelled strictly after our own or not.

"He who comes into a Court of Equity should do so with clean hands." Are not we, as a nation, estopped from denying, before the great tribunal of history, that the Filipinos can conduct a Government which will afford adequate protection for human life, since our own hands are spattered with the blood of innocent people whose lives we could have saved, but did not? Is it not pharisaical for us to claim that a native Government would entail more unnecessary sacrifice of life *per annum* than the total of what we have committed and permitted? Should we not cast out the beam from our own eye before attempting to pluck the mote from the eye of "our little brown brother"? Is it not the real question, "Can we, in all good conscience, continue to hold the Philippines?" rather than, "Can we honorably turn them loose?"

The reproach of what has happened belongs more or less to all the people of the United States. It demonstrated to the writer beyond a reasonable doubt that a Republic like ours should not colonize, that, as stated in the previous article: "The governing of the Philippines by their supposed friends from the antipodes has been not unlike a game of battledore and shuttlecock between rival political creeds at home, in which the unfortunate inhabitants have been the shuttlecock."

This paper is written in the earnest hope of aiding in convincing a sufficient number of the leading men of both the great political parties that we ought to retire from the Philippines as soon as a decent native Government can be gotten under way.

Everybody in the army who was in the Philippines at the time knows that the regular troops ought to have been ordered to suppress the Samar insurrection of 1904 long before November 8th, instead of some time afterwards, and that meantime the insurrection spread like a prairie fire and did irreparable and incalculable damage. But concerning such matters a true soldier, of course, is silent, both from duty and from interest—from duty, because he must abide the course taken by his superior officers, the Secretary of War and the President; and from interest, because, if criticisms by him of the War Department reach that Department, his chances of advancement will necessarily be less than those of other ambitious men who have the good sense to hold their peace.

The difficulty which inevitably presents itself to a Republic, like ours, in endeavoring to give a "square deal" to colonial subjects living in a remote part of the world, thus becomes apparent. In a Government by the people, the people should be able to get at all the facts concerning all the issues submitted to them in a political campaign. When a Government by the people starts out to colonize in distant lands, the main body of the evidence they will get, calculated to throw light upon the question of the wisdom and justice of continuing the experiment, will of necessity come through official sources—that is, from officials of the party which, being in power, seeks to continue itself in power—and will therefore be one-sided, *ex parte* testimony. No matter how high the character of the responsible heads of such colonial government, they will "let nothing go that will hurt the Administration."

Such are some of the aspects of the problem, when it is studied from the point of view one gets in the Philippines. "Lest we forget" the condition to which Congress has brought the Filipinos by refusing to substantially reduce the tariff on Philippine products brought to the United States, let us now consider that condition and its significance.

The question of the welfare of the Filipinos is, and always will be, a "side issue" with the American people. The most famous character of contemporary American fiction, "Misther Dooley," once said to his friend Mr. Hennessy upon this subject: "Befure the Spanish Warr, Hennessy—and it isn't very different since—the American payple didn't know, and didn't care, whether the Philippines wuz islands or a brand of canned gudes." But a greater than Dooley—President Lincoln—gave utterance, in a different connection, to the eternal truth: "A people who are indifferent to the rights of others cannot, under a just God, long retain their own."

Said the Manila Chamber of Commerce to the Taft party in August, 1905: "The country is in a state of financial collapse."

Said former Governor-General Ide, in November, 1906: "By annexation we killed the Spanish market for Philippine sugar and tobacco, and our tariff shuts these products from the United States market, and to-day both these, the most important in the islands, are practically prostrated."

Yet men whose views ought to be helpful will, in the face of such evidence, blandly and blindly say:

"Our occupation has increased the prosperity of the islands as never before."

The intense and universal desire of the Filipinos for independence was dealt with at length in this *Review* for January 18th last. Very positive opinions on that subject by Congressman Parsons, of New York, by Senator Dubois and Newlands, all of the Taft party, and by Captain Moss, of General Corbin's staff, were there set forth. But let us bear always in mind, especially when Japanese or other war clouds lower, what the Senator last above named refers to significantly as:

"The strategic mistake of having possessions occupied by unwilling subjects so far removed from our base—impossible of defence should the time come in the Orient when we may be beset by foes outside the islands and by *insurrectos* within;" and his reminder that:

"The outbreak of Cuba against Spain was largely due to economic distress caused by the low price of sugar."

As Brigadier-General W. H. Carter suggests, in a fine spirit of judicial fairness, in the number of the *Review* for February 15th:

"Loyalty to the Government should not be expected of any population which, however erroneously, believes itself deprived of equal rights with others living under the same flag."

Says Senator Newlands:

"There can be no permanent friendliness between the Filipinos and the Americans."

Says Senator Dubois:

"There is no intimacy and no sympathy between the Americans who are in the islands and the natives * * * They do not regard them as a factor in the future of the country. * * * The natives hate us cordially, and unless some radical change can be brought about, the hatred will grow more and more intense."

One American observer expresses the feeling of the Americans in the islands thus:

"When we have taught them * * * we shall set them free. * * * And yet, when the American looks about him at all the improvements * * * there is a certain feeling of reluctance to hand over the fruits."

Cannot the editor of the *Christian Advocate*, who did me the honor to review at length the previous article concerning the Philippines, and was even kind enough to characterize it as "illuminating," perceive how certain it is that the Filipinos understand this arrogant attitude of American business men, and suspect that there must be some ground for it? The Filipino is told by us that we expect to remain with him indefinitely. Is it not natural for him, in view of this attitude of Americans out there, to believe that our real purpose is to remain with him permanently; and will he not continue to believe so, unless we make a specific disclaimer of any intention permanently to exercise sovereignty over his country, and give him a definite promise of independence?

But let us cease for the moment to criticise the Congress for its sins of omission and commission against these Oriental subjects, and consider a reason, more elemental than taxation without representation and unjust tariffs, for the unpleasant but undeniable fact that the Filipinos like us infinitely less than they did the Spaniards. What Mr. Roosevelt said in 1889 in his "Winning of the West," concerning the French of the Ohio Valley before 1776, in regard to their cordial social relations with the natives, is true of all Latin races always under like circumstances, and suggests another strong reason why the Spaniards were liked in the Philippines far better than are their successors in sovereignty:

"They were not trammelled by the queer pride which makes a man of English stock unwilling to make a red-skinned woman his wife, though anxious enough to make her his concubine."

Men of English stock have changed but little in the matter of race instinct since 1776. Yet among men to whom the country looks for suggestion and the molding

of public opinion, we sometimes find such utter misapprehension of conditions in the Philippines that only unpleasant reading like the above will give them pause. Said the Rochester *Democrat-Chronicle* last July:

"The industrial and business classes, those who desire peace and order * * * are not eager for independence. On the contrary, they have uttered earnest protests," etc.

The Washington *Star* asks: "Has Judge Blount learned no lesson from Cuba?" The answer to this question is suggested by the foregoing demonstration that a leading daily newspaper in the State of New York is totally in the dark about the Philippines, whereas it never could be so about Cuban affairs.

Whether Cuba, and her ugly race problem, ought to be annexed or not, she lies in the Western Hemisphere, right at our door, so that the afternoon papers can acquaint us with what happens each morning, and public opinion can operate as it did on the life-insurance companies. Gibbon said, somewhere, that "remoteness softens the cries of distress." As to every great public question, with the exception of the Philippines, the American voter can form a *first-hand* opinion, according to the spirit and genius, the vital principle, of our institutions. As to the Philippines, he must rely upon *ex parte* information from the party in power seeking to continue in power. Besides, we owe Cuba a duty under the Monroe Doctrine.

Furthermore, if we forbid European Powers to colonize in the Western Hemisphere, it follows, as a corollary, that we should cease to colonize in the Eastern Hemisphere. We should be warned by the decline and fall of the Roman Empire—due, largely, as the greatest of all historians tells, to the failure to follow the advice contained in Augustus Cæsar's will, which he therein bequeathed, as a valuable legacy to his successors, viz, that they should "confine the Empire within those limits which nature seemed to have fixed as its natural bulwarks and boundaries."

In February, 1902, Judge Taft said to the Senate Committee on Philippine Affairs, with that good-humored tolerance of criticism which comes only from genuine and entire confidence in the soundness of one's views: "I have been called the Mark Tapley of this Philippine business." After something over three years more of trying to administer the affairs of those remote wards, in a way at once just to them and consistent with the fundamental principles of our Government, we find him admitting at Washington in May, 1905, that "we blundered into colonization."

The "trade expansion" argument boldly presented by Senator Lodge to the Republican National Convention of 1900—"We make no hypocritical pretence of being interested in the Philippines solely on account of others. * * * We believe in trade expansion"—was thus recognized as a delusion and a snare. It had become evident to all that the Philippines would not pay.

About the same time, Mr. J. J. Hill, of the Great Northern Railway, who also controls the steamship company of the same name which connects with the railway at Seattle, changed the Oriental terminus of his steamships from Manila to Hongkong, because it "did not pay to stop at Manila."

In June, 1905, or thereabouts, the Washington *Post* was saying, substantially, with commendable, if cynical, honesty, that all this talk about "benevolent assimilation" was the rankest casuistry, and that we took the Philippines because we believed they would pay; and on November 2, 1906, we find it using this language: "An honorable exit from Oriental sovereignty is the almost universal wish of the people of the United States."

The Congress of the United States has invariably turned a deaf ear to the appeals of the Administration concerning the extreme economical distress to which the Filipinos have been reduced by the Dingley Tariff. Time and again the several Governors-General, the Secretary of War and the President have urged that the tariff on Philippine sugar and tobacco imported into the United States should be

reduced to 25 per cent. of the Dingley Tariff, and as often have the measures introduced for that benevolent purpose been killed or died in committee room at Washington. Why? Because the Philippines are not a State of the American Union and never will be—and ought not to be—and therefore have not, and never will have, representatives in Congress, as have all other people living under the protection of the American flag and all other interests affected by the legislation of the American Congress. So long as we retain them, they will continue to suffer in one way or another from taxation without representation, or from the enactment or defeat of laws of one sort or another at the instance of special interests at home. If the administration of President Roosevelt, with all its unprecedented strength with the people, cannot get through Congress tariff legislation opening to Philippine planters of sugar cane and tobacco an avenue of escape from the financial drought which at present afflicts them, is it not the duty of his great War Secretary to cease to block the way of Philippine independence?

Sugar cane and tobacco are to the Philippines what cotton is to the South. And in the South, as the reader is doubtless aware, when the price of cotton is depressed, money "tightens," merchants fail, banks tremble and gloom pervades every household. The Administration will, no doubt, continue the fight at the next session of Congress. If it succeeds, we shall at last have done something for the Filipino, at least so far as regards his material welfare, but incidentally we shall have lessened incalculably the chances of ultimate Philippine independence.

Secretary Taft stated the case for the Filipino people, early in 1905, as follows:

"I sincerely hope that next year Congress will reduce the tariff to nothing on all goods produced in the Philippine Islands, except tobacco and sugar, and reduce that to 25 per cent. merely to justify our putting a duty in the Philippines against you until 1909, in order that the Government may be supported and not lose that revenue until that time. And then, when 1909 comes and we are released from the necessity, under the treaty of Paris, of giving the same privileges to Spain as to the United States, then we can have complete free trade between the islands and America."

To this Senator Newlands replies:

"Such a proposition involves the closed door in the Philippines at a time when we are strenuously urging the open door in China, Manchuria and Korea. This is both wrong and impolitic—wrong, because consistency is required of nations as well as of individuals; and impolitic, because it will give Japan and China an excuse for securing favored arrangements in the Orient, which will exclude our products. If we get the monopoly of imports into the Philippines, it would not compensate for the losses which we would sustain in the rest of the Orient by the assertion of this policy. If we refuse equal opportunities for Japanese trade, in the Philippines, how can we insist upon equal opportunities with Japan in Manchuria and Korea?"

Which of these views will prevail? In any event, does not the irreconcilable conflict between the interests of the guardian and those of the ward make it our duty to relinquish the guardianship, when it is hardly conceivable that the ward could be any worse off if left to himself?

According to a very able, patient and interesting presentation of our Oriental expenditures, by the Washington correspondent of the New York *Evening Post*, in the issue of that paper for March 6th last, the cost of the Philippine government to the United States Treasury, since the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1898, has been more than \$300,000,000. How little need of a railroad rate bill there would have been had that sum been put into the improvement of American rivers and harbors and interior waterways, instead of being worse than wasted upon this South Sea Bubble of ours.

The article in the *Post*, to which allusion has just been made, states a fact which it is very probable that few people in the United States know, but which is of the

first importance, viz., that on October 25, 1904, at New-ark, N. J., Secretary Taft himself admitted that the cost of the islands to us up to that date had been more than \$200,000,000. The cost of the Philippine government to the Filipino people is so enormous that the Secretary of War thought proper to answer a criticism to that effect by a British writer on colonial government. In explaining why a simpler and less expensive form of government was not adopted, the present elaborately articulated governmental structure was thus justified: "It adds to the expense, and it does not give them so good a government." "But what we are trying to do is to teach these people by object lessons" how to run a government for themselves—instead of giving them a chance to practise the art of responsible government—which is as manifest error as if you undertook to teach a boy how to ride a bicycle by letting him watch you ride. The Secretary then goes on to say:

"It is perfectly true that that government there could be much more efficient if we put an American in charge of each province, and made him absolute ruler there. It would not be any trouble to do it at all. We would have less taxes, the work would be attended to with more care, and, on the whole, for the next ten or fifteen years it is probable that the people would be in better condition."

Why not, then, make the condition of the people better at once, in the way indicated, or at least along those general lines, and leave a little of the future to the Lord? The answer is:

"They would not have any responsibility about the government. They would not be subject to scolding at every mouth by the officers above them."

It is only the very general disposition on the part of our people to consider Secretary Taft well-nigh infallible—a mistake due to his well-known courage, ability, kindness and tact—which enables him to keep the present generation of Filipinos in poverty and want, in order that their

posterity may, in the fulness of time, "secure the blessings of liberty."

Half of the seven and one-half millions of people in the Philippines live on the island of Luzon. The northern half of Luzon, that part lying above the Pasig River, at whose mouth Manila is, can be gotten ready within twelve months' time for such a government as New Mexico now has—an ordinary Territorial form of government, entirely autonomous within itself, by a man like the Hon. George Currie, formerly Governor of Isabela Province in Luzon, later Governor of Samar, and more recently appointed Governor of New Mexico. There is almost immediately available material for at least three such Territories in the northern half of Luzon, viz: (1) The Ilocano country (North Iloos, South Iloos and La Union), containing about half a million people; (2) The Cagayan valley, containing nearly a quarter of a million; (3) The Railroad and Rio Grande country (the country traversed by the Manila and Dagupan Railroad, and drained by the Rio Grande de Pampanga, consisting of five provinces, to wit, Bulacan, Pampanga, Pangasinan, Tarlac and Nueva Ecija), containing about a million and a quarter. If the inhabitants of these three regions were told by a man whom they liked and would believe, as they would Currie, that they were to have autonomous government like one of the Western Territories of the United States, at the very earliest possible moment, and urged to get ready for it, they could and would, under his guidance. We would get a co-operation from those people we do not now get and never will get, so long as we keep them in uncertainty as to what we are going to do with them. If next year we should formally disclaim intention to retain the islands permanently, and set to work to create autonomous Territories destined ultimately to be States of a Federal Philippine Republic, whenever fit, we would soon see the way out of this tangle, and behold the beginning of the end of it.

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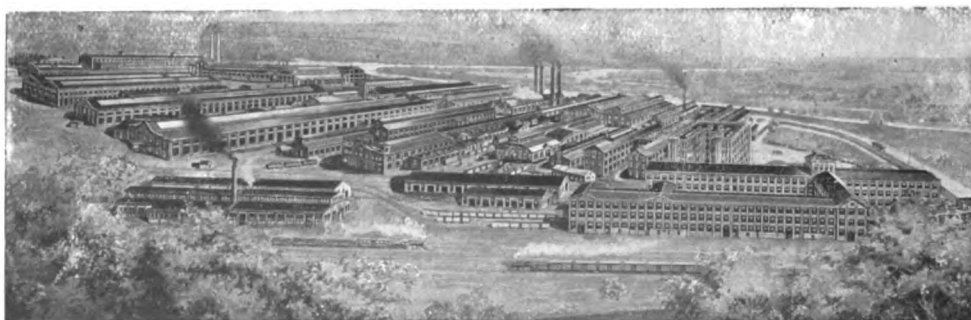
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