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TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

[To accompany bill H. R. No. 1096.]

MAY 18, 1868.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. Banks, from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, made the following

REPORT.

The Committee on Foreign Affairs, to which was referred the President's message and accompanying documents, relating to the treaty with Russia, has considered the same, and submits the following report:

A treaty is a compact between sovereign nations. Its negotiation and ratification are necessarily conducted by specified departments of the governments which are parties to the instrument. In despotic governments this power is vested in the crown. In free governments it is intrusted to such branches of the government as may be designated for that purpose by the constitution. The negotiation of a treaty is necessarily an act of sovereignty. It is the only method of settling controversies and establishing alliances that exists between governments. The power to negotiate and execute treaties is indispensable to the existence of government. The confederation of American States failed because it did not possess this power.

The articles of confederation vested the treaty-making power in the Congress, with the assent of nine States represented in Congress. But the States claimed and exercised the right to interpret and obstruct the execution of treaties made by the Congress of the confederation with foreign governments. The execution of the treaty of peace of 1783, between Great Britain and the United States, was defeated by the exercise of such powers, and Great Britain refused to deliver up the military possession of the northern and western frontier; asserting as a reason, that the States refused to repeal their laws prohibiting the collection of British debts. Many of the State laws were conceded to be in violation of the treaty. Congress, four years after the treaty of peace with Great Britain, unanimously declared that a treaty once concluded by Congress, according to the forms of the Constitution, the legislatures of the several States had no right to pass any act explaining or interpreting its meaning, or limiting, restricting, or counteracting its operation; that all such acts ought to be repealed, leaving Congress to determine what laws were in conflict with the treaty. But the declaration of Congress was ineffectual. It had no power to control the legislation of States, or annul their laws. The States obstructed in the same manner the execution of treaties with France and Holland. They made war and peace with Indian nations, formed alliances with each other, and raised and supported troops without consent of Congress. The confederation, therefore, was not a government. It had no sovereignty. It could not enter into and enforce a compact with foreign nations, which is the essential attribute of sovereign power. Mr. Adams, in his account of the close of his mission to England, under the confederation, says that the observations of Lord Caermathen on the relations of Great Britain to the United States were intended to signify to him, what had been all along intimated, that there was then no national government, but as soon as there should be, as the govern-
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ment was happy to observe the proposed Constitution would furnish, Great Britain would treat with the United States. France and Holland had as substantial arguments against the government of the confederation as England. The confederation exhibited other defects, but they were all subordinate to that connected with the power to negotiate and execute treaties with other states. It was to remedy this defect, chiefly, that the convention was called which framed the federal Constitution. Under this Constitution the United States became a government. It had power to conclude treaties with foreign governments, and to maintain in good faith the conditions of such alliances. This power was vested in the President of the United States with the advice and consent of the Senate, two-thirds of the members of the Senate concurring therein. The arrangement of these powers by the convention was a matter of much consideration and of great difficulty. It was proposed to exclude the President altogether from the exercise of this power, but this was abandoned, for the reason that it was indispensable that the negotiations should be conducted by the executive department of the government. To the Senate was given the power to confirm or reject such negotiations. It was also proposed to embrace the House of Representatives in the treaty-making power, but this was abandoned, as it would destroy or defeat the secrecy which was often indispensable in the successful negotiation of treaties, and by the consumption of time render the power itself cumbersome and inefficient, and probably defeat the object it was intended to accomplish. The wisdom of the framers of the Constitution is not more clearly shown in any part of the frame of government than in the arrangement and final disposition of the treaty-making power. The government has made alliances with civilized and uncivilized governments in all parts of the world. It has negotiated and maintained nearly 600 treaties during a period of more than three-quarters of a century, without a single violation of the stipulations to which its assent has been given. It is in this respect a perfect government, and by means of the authority so wisely regulated it has achieved a prosperity and power which has never been surpassed by other governments. Its success would have been impossible under the government of the confederation, or by other means than that of the treaty-making power. There is not an instance in which a treaty has been defeated by the refusal of Congress to pass laws for its execution, or the failure of the executive department to enforce them. It is to the uninterrupted success of this power that we owe the prosperity of the people and the strength of the government.

In the exercise of this power under the Constitution various questions, public and private, have arisen between different departments of the government which have been adjusted by the action of Congress or by the intervention of the judiciary. The first question of this character arose under a treaty negotiated in 1790 with McGilvray, chief of the Creek nation. By this treaty goods imported into the United States for the use of the Indians were made free of duty. This provision was in conflict with the revenue laws of the country and with the provisions of the treaty of peace with Great Britain. General Washington, who negotiated the treaty, called for the opinion of the officers of his cabinet as to the authority of the government to conclude a treaty of this character. The opinion of the cabinet was unanimous in favor of the power. Mr. Jefferson stated his opinion upon this subject in these words:

A treaty made by the President with the concurrence of the Senate is a law of the land, and a law of superior order, because it not only repeals all past laws but cannot itself be repealed by future laws. The treaty will then legally control the duty act and the act for licensing traders in this particular instance.

This treaty, with a secret article providing for the case, was submitted to the Senate and ratified without a division.* No objection was made to this act of the administration by any branch of the government or any portion of the peo-

* 5 Marshall, p. 233.
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ple, and no exception was taken to its action except by the government of Great Britain.

Thus a treaty made under the authority of the United States in the manner provided by the Constitution, although in contravention of existing laws, was then held by Mr. Jefferson to be the supreme law of the land, and of equal authority with the Constitution itself.

THE BRITISH TREATY OF 1794.

The right of Congress to call for papers relating to the negotiation, and to consider and decide upon the merits and expediency of treaties, was asserted by the House of Representatives in 1794. The difficulties existing between the United States and Great Britain, to which reference has been made, threatened the peace existing between the two countries. General Washington declared in a letter to the Secretary of State that his object in the conduct of affairs between the two countries was to prevent a war, if justice could be obtained by strong representations of the injuries which this country had sustained from Great Britain; and to put the government in a proper state of defence, and provide eventually for the execution of measures then pending in Congress, if negotiation in a reasonable time should prove unsuccessful. For this purpose Mr. Jay was sent upon a special mission to Great Britain. The treaty negotiated by him was approved by the President, with the concurrence of all the members of the cabinet except Mr. Randolph, who had succeeded Mr. Jefferson as Secretary of State. The treaty was ratified by the advice and consent of the Senate, exactly two-thirds of the senators voting therefor. Remonstrances, first from the city of Boston, and afterwards from all parts of the country, were presented to Congress for the purpose of preventing its ratification or defeating the necessary legislation to carry it into effect. The French minister protested against it as injuriously affecting the rights of France. The House of Representatives, when required to pass the laws necessary to its execution, called upon the President for his instructions to Mr. Jay, and the correspondence and other documents relating to the negotiation. The President declined to furnish this information to the House. It was clear to his mind, he said, that the power to make treaties was vested by the Constitution exclusively in the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate. Having been a member of the convention, he knew this was the understanding of the framers of the Constitution; that the subject had been fully discussed; that there were reasons for believing that the several conventions understood it in the same way, and this construction had hitherto been acquiesced in by the House of Representatives, and that a just regard to the Constitution and the duties of his office required him to resist the principle contented for by the House, which if put in practice would destroy the confidence of foreign nations in the Executive, derange the government, and lead to most mischievous consequences. Upon the receipt of this message of the President a resolution was passed (54 yeas to 37 nays) declaring that the House of Representatives did not claim any agency in making treaties; but that when a treaty stipulates regulations on any subject submitted by the Constitution to Congress it must depend for its execution as to such stipulations on a law or laws to be passed by Congress, and that it is the constitutional right and duty of the House of Representatives in all such cases to deliberate on the expediency or inexpediency of carrying such treaty into effect, and to determine and act thereon as in their judgment may be most conducive to the public good; and that in calling upon the executive for information it was not necessary to the propriety of the application, that the purpose for which such information might be wanted should be stated in the application. (Resolutions April 7, 1796, Benton's Deb., 6, pp. 696, 702.)

The resolution specifies the class of treaties upon which it claims the right of
judgment, and limits it to those which require appropriations of money or relate to the regulation of commerce. But the argument in support of the resolution proceeded upon a broader view of the question. As stated by Mr. Madison, (Benton’s Deb., 1, 641,) the important question was to be decided, “whether the general power of making treaties supersedes the power of the House of Representatives, particularly specified in the Constitution, so as to take to the Executive all deliberative will, and leave to the House only an executive and ministerial agency.”

The argument, as expressed by Mr. Madison in the debate, goes further than the demand made by the House upon the Executive for instructions and documents relating to the treaty. It does not limit the right of the House merely to an opinion upon treaties, which it is called upon to aid by legislation. It impliedly asserts the right of the House to deliberate upon all treaties, of whatever class or character, and to inquire whether they are in conformity with the Constitution and the spirit of the government. The opinions stated by Mr. Jefferson upon this subject are of the same character. His position is, that if the House of Representatives has no power—is a blind, unreasoning agent in regard to the enactment of laws necessary to carry treaties into effect, then the Executive and the Senate, which by the Constitution is the treaty-making power, could transfer the government itself to a foreign power or a barbarous chief. This is his language:

We conceive the constitutional doctrine to be, that though the President and Senate have the general power of making treaties, yet wherever they include in a treaty matters confided by the Constitution to the three branches of legislature, an act of legislation will be requisite to confirm these articles, and that the House of Representatives, as one branch of the legislature, are perfectly free to pass the act or to refuse it, governing themselves by their own judgment whether it is for the good of their constituents to let the treaty go into effect or not. On the precedent now to be set will depend the future construction of our Constitution, and whether the powers of legislation shall be transferred from the President, Senate, and House of Representatives, to the President and Senate, and Piamingo or any other Indian, Algerine, or other chief. It is fortunate that the first decision is to be in a case so palpably atrocious as to have been predetermined by all America. (Jefferson’s Works, vol. 4, p. 134.)

The right of the House of Representatives, not only to official information, but also to consider the character and the effect of a treaty upon the government, is here clearly asserted. Mr. Madison thus expresses his argument—“whether the powers of legislation shall be transferred from the President, Senate, and House, to the President, Senate, and Piamingo or any other Indian or Algerine chief.”

In his Manual of parliamentary practice, which is made a part of the rules of the House, Mr. Jefferson gives his view of the subjects to which the treaty power extends:

1st. It must concern the foreign nation party to the contract.
2d. It comprehends only those subjects which are usually regulated by treaty and cannot be otherwise regulated.
3d. It cannot embrace powers reserved to the States.
4th. It cannot exercise powers in which the Constitution secures a participation to the House of Representatives.

But this exception, he adds, is “denied as unfounded.” Treaties, in contravention of these principles, not only leaves Congress free to inquire into their character and withhold its aid in giving them effect, but it has power, when in contravention of the honor or safety of the government, to rescind them.

An act of the legislature alone can declare them infringed or rescinded. This was the process adopted in the case of France in 1798. (Manual, 135.)

And this power applies to all treaties, whether or not the legislative aid is required to give them effect.

Mr. Calhoun, the strongest opponent of unlimited power on the part of the government of the United States, in his discourse upon government, referring to the treaty-making power, takes the same view of the general question. He
makes no pretension that the House of Representatives is not required to carry into effect treaties made in conformity with the spirit of the government. But he affirms that there may be treaties concluded by the Executive, with the advice and consent of the Senate, which would not be binding on the government nor any branch of it, being beyond the scope of its authority; and that, in such cases, Congress would be justified in refusing to enact laws to carry them into effect.

Treaties must be considered in this two-fold aspect; and if they are found to be within the authority and scope of the powers conferred on the Executive and Senate by the Constitution, and not in contravention of its general objects, every branch of the government is solemnly bound to perform all acts that may be required to give them legal effect. Such is the opinion of Chancellor Kent:

"The argument in favor of the binding and conclusive efficacy of every treaty made by the President and Senate is so clear and palpable that it has probably carried very general conviction throughout the country, and this may now be considered as the very decided sense of public opinion."

If a treaty be the law of the land, it is as much obligatory on Congress as upon any other branch of the government or the people at large, so long as it continues in force and unrepealed. (Vol. 1, 286.)

Judge Story says, that "the power to make treaties is neither a legislative nor an executive power. It relates neither to the execution of any subsisting laws, nor to the enactment of new ones, and still less does it relate to the exertion of the common strength. Its objects are contracts with foreign nations, which have the force of law with us; but, as to the foreign sovereigns, they have only the obligations of good faith."

Treaties are not common rules, prescribed by the sovereign to his subjects, but agreements between sovereign and sovereign. The treaty-making power, therefore, seems to make a separate department, and to belong properly neither to the executive nor the legislative, although it may be said to partake of the qualities common to each.

A treaty, then, is a contract between the United States and the sovereign power of a foreign government; and if within the authority conferred upon the treaty-making power by the Constitution, both the House of Representatives and the Senate are solemnly bound to give effect to the conditions of the treaty by proper legislation. In the discharge of this duty, the House has an unquestionable right to all the information connected with the subject, if not inconsistent with the public interest or safety. It cannot be doubted that the House was entitled to the information it demanded in 1794, unless, upon other grounds, its communication would have been prejudicial to the government. It must be remembered that this was the first occasion in which the treaty-making power was discussed by Congress, and that this was but one of several difficult and delicate questions considered and decided, for the first time, by the different branches of the government. The information then called for has never been refused as to any subsequent treaty. Mr. Hamilton, who was regarded by Mr. Jefferson as the author of the President's message, afterwards expressed his regret that a qualified answer had not been returned. It is now conceded that the House is entitled to consider the merits of a treaty; that it may determine whether its object is within the scope of the treaty power; but, if it be not inconsistent with the spirit and purpose of the government, Congress is bound to give it effect, by necessary legislation, as a contract between the government and a foreign nation. If, on the contrary, it is found to be in conflict with the fundamental principles, purposes, or interests of the government, it would be justified, not merely in withholding its aid, but in giving notice to foreign nations interested that it would not be regarded as binding upon the nation, in passing laws for its abrogation, and preparing the state for whatever consequences might attend its action.

This was the course pursued by the government in 1798 in regard to the three treaties of alliance, commerce, and consular representation concluded with
France in 1778, the first treaties negotiated by this government with any foreign nation, and which were concluded immediately upon the recognition of American independence by France. The House would be justified in such action in regard to any treaty which should change the character of the government; bring into the Union and confer political powers upon large populations incapable of self-government, whose participation in its affairs would imperil our institutions and endanger the peace and safety of the people; which should alienate territory, surrender political power to any other government, civilized or uncivilized; bind the government to engage in the wars of other nations, or surrender the rights of the nation on the high seas in any part of the world; which should admit as States of the Union distant foreign nations or Indian tribes, conferring upon them representative powers, as was proposed under the confederation with regard to the Delaware Indians; re-establish slavery, annul the institution of marriage, or interdict the Christian religion. In such case the House would be justified in aiding in its rejection or its abrogation by any act within its power. But when a treaty is limited to objects consistent with the interests of the government, which can not be attained except by the treaty-making power, its first and highest duty is to enact such measures as are necessary to carry the treaty into effect. To say that a treaty is not a treaty until approved by the House is to make the House a part of the treaty-making power. "To say that the House has no rights in regard to foreign treaties, except when they are referred to the House by its provisions, is to admit that the House is not a part of the government. To say that a treaty between this government and a foreign nation may be limited, restricted, or annulled by an interpretation of the Supreme Court, is to disregard the express provisions of the Constitution conferring upon the President and Senate the treaty-making power, and to declare that the United States is incapable of making a treaty according to the terms and forms of the Constitution.

No such conclusions can be drawn from the history of the treaty of 1794. It was negotiated during a national crisis for the purpose of preventing war. It was supposed by the people to have compromised the interests of the nation to a dangerous, if not fatal, extent. It was the first question upon which the political parties of the country divided. It is known that a decided majority of the House of Representatives was opposed to the treaty and the principles on which it was negotiated, in which it was supported by a large majority of the people of every State. General Washington declared that the treaty was "universally unpopular." The language of Mr. Jefferson was that it was "so palpably atrocious as to have predetermined the opinion of all America against it." Notwithstanding these facts it was never intended by the House to defeat the appropriation. In this contest it had other objects in view, in which it was entirely successful. The appropriation was made by the House upon a recognition of its obligation to sustain by appropriate legislation a treaty made according to the terms and forms of the Constitution to which no valid constitutional objection could be made.

SPANISH TREATY OF 1819.

The most striking illustration of the obligation imposed by treaties upon the law-making power is found in the history of the negotiation and execution of the treaty of 1819 with Spain for the cession of Florida to the United States. By the conditions of this treaty, and in consideration of the acquisition of Florida, the United States surrendered to Spain its well-grounded claim to the Territory of Texas, and thus dismembered the Mississippi valley, and, intersected by the boundary line, the Red and Arkansas rivers. This treaty was unanimously ratified by the Senate the day after its negotiation. The government of Spain failed to ratify the treaty within the time limited by its terms, which expired
the 22d of August, 1820. In the negotiations between the two governments, upon the subject of the ratification, the Spanish government promised to complete its engagements under the treaty by the appointment of a minister, with authority for its ratification. The minister was appointed, but without the promised authority. Spain demanded new conditions concerning the independence of Spanish America as a condition of its ratification. The treaty was in the mean time assailed in the House of Representatives by Mr. Clay, who urged its abrogation, in which he was supported by a considerable party. The failure of ratification was made the subject of different communications to Congress by the President, who recommended Congress to postpone any action upon this subject on account of the change of ministry and the distress of the nation. But he subsequently recommended to Congress, in his annual message, to execute the treaty by its own act, without the co-operation of Spain. The English and Russian governments urged upon Spain the ratification of the treaty, and remonstrated with the United States against any action of its government consequent upon the failure of the Spanish government. It was under such circumstances that Spain ratified the treaty October 24, 1820, more than two months after the time fixed by the terms of the treaty had expired, and the final act of ratification was not completed until February 22, 1821. Mexico had meanwhile established her independence, and driven every Spaniard out of the country. Notwithstanding the course of the Spanish government, and the fact that she had no control of the territory she ceded, the Senate of the United States ratified the treaty a second time, and passed such laws as were necessary to give it effect, by sweeping majorities against vigorous opposition, representatives and senators holding themselves bound by the act of the government to perform the acts required for the execution of the treaty. Spain could not even appoint the agents provided for in the treaty to run boundary lines between the United States and Mexico, for the reason that her agents had been driven from the country; and this was done by the United States and Mexico in 1828.

It is impossible to cite a stronger recognition of the obligation resting upon the law-making power to execute a treaty made according to the forms of the Constitution with a foreign nation, than that which the treaty of 1819 with Spain presents, and no case so well illustrates the principles by which Congress has been governed in international questions of this character.

JURISDICTION OF THE SUPREME COURT ON TREATIES WITH FOREIGN NATIONS.

A treaty is a compact or contract between the United States and a foreign nation. It may involve private rights, distinct from public rights. The Supreme Court can have no power to interpret its provisions except as they apply to the citizens of this government or those who claim under it within the domain of private rights. It cannot by any decision limit, restrict, or extend its authority as regards the rights of the sovereign powers that are parties to the compact. All the decisions of the Supreme Court in relation to treaties are consistent with this limitation of its power.

The obligation of a treaty, the supreme law of the land, must be admitted. The execution of the contract between the two nations is to be demanded from the executive of each nation, but where a treaty affects the rights of parties litigating in a court, the treaty as much binds those rights, and is as much regarded by the Supreme Court as an act of Congress. (The United States vs. The Schooner Peggy, 1 Cranch, 103; 1 Cond Rep., 256.)

In the case of Foster et al. vs. Neilson, 1 Peters, 314, the decision recognizes the existence of the contract as between nations, over which it could of course have no jurisdiction. But in regard to the rights of third parties claiming advantages under the treaty, it was decided that "the legislature must execute the contract before it can become a rule for the court."
In the case of the United States vs. Arredondo, 6 Peters, 735, it is decided that—

A treaty is, in its nature, a contract between two nations, not a legislative act. It does not generally effect of itself the object to be accomplished, especially so far as its operation is infra-territorial, but it is carried into execution by the sovereign power of the respective parties to the instrument. It is, consequently, to be regarded in courts of justice as equivalent to an act of the legislature, whenever it operates of itself, without the aid of any legislative provision. But, when the terms of the stipulation import a contract, when either of the parties engages to perform a particular act, the treaty addresses itself to the political, not the judicial department, and the legislature must execute the contract before it can become a rule for the court.

That is to say, before subjects of this government can claim rights under a treaty the legislation necessary to give effect to the treaty must have been enacted. "The political department of the government must have given effect to the treaty by legislation." But as between the sovereign nations, parties to the contract, each state is bound to perform all the acts necessary to give it effect. That is to say, that the constitutionality of a treaty is not within the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. That belongs to the political and not to the judicial department of the government.

A treaty under the Federal Constitution is declared to be the supreme law of the land. This, unquestionably, applies to all treaties where the treaty-making power without the aid of Congress can carry it into effect. It is not, however, and cannot be the supreme law of the land when the concurrence of Congress is necessary to give it effect. Until this power is exercised, as where the appropriation of money is required, the treaty is not perfect. It is not operative in the sense of the Constitution, as money cannot be appropriated by the treaty-making power. This results from the limitations of our government. The action of no department of the government can be regarded as a law until it shall have all the sanctions required by the Constitution to make it such. As well might it be contended that an ordinary act of Congress, without the signature of the President, was a law, as that a treaty which engages to pay a sum of money is in itself a law. And in such a case the representatives of the people and the States exercise their own judgments in granting or withholding the money. They act upon their responsibility, and not upon the responsibility of the treaty-making power. It cannot bind or control the legislative action in this respect, and every foreign government may be presumed to know that so far as the treaty stipulates to pay money, the legislative sanction is required. (Judge McLean.)

This is a perfectly just statement of the obligations of a treaty as it regards the subjects of either government, and as between the governments themselves. So too, where a treaty has been ratified according to the provisions of the Constitution, it becomes the law of the land, and it is perfectly immaterial whether or not the persons who signed it did or did not transcend their instructions. (Hamilton vs. Eaton, North Carolina Cases, 77.)

These decisions are to be interpreted with reference to the rights of third parties under the treaties. The declaration of the court is, that the treaty is not to be regarded as a law under which the subjects of the government may claim their individual rights until it shall have the sanctions of all the departments of the government required by the Constitution to make it a law. But the decision of the court does not touch the validity of the treaty as between the sovereign powers which are parties to the compact. It cannot be assumed that the Supreme Court can in any way by interpretation affect the validity of a treaty between the United States and a sovereign power. But it is competent to decide that no subject of either government can claim rights under the treaty until its provisions shall have been carried into effect by the law-making power of the government under which he claims. As between the governments, therefore, according to the language of the Supreme Court, it is to be carried into execution by the powers that are parties to the instrument; as it regards the rights of individuals, citizens of either government, its operation is subject to the action of the legislative power of the government under which these rights are claimed, and the Supreme Court is limited to the consideration of the latter class of questions, and can in no manner affect the authority or validity of the treaty as between nations.
The government of the United States has not left us in doubt as to its view of the solemn obligation resting upon every nation which is a party to a treaty, to give effect to all its provisions involving the rights of the sovereign parties to the contract by appropriate and necessary legislation. A treaty between this government and France, ratified in 1831, provided for the payment of an indemnity for spoliations upon American commerce. The French government disregarded its obligations to provide for the payment of the money stipulated in the treaty, and after long delay and fruitless negotiation, the President of the United States thus called the attention of Congress to the subject in his sixth annual message, (2d December, 1834:)

This treaty was duly ratified in the manner prescribed by the constitutions of both countries, and the ratifications were exchanged at the city of Washington on the 2d of February, 1832. On account of its commercial stipulations it was, within five days thereafter, laid before the Congress of the United States, which proceeded to enact such laws favorable to the commerce of France as were necessary to carry it into full execution; and France has from that period to the present been in the unrestricted enjoyment of the valuable privileges that were thus secured to her. The faith of the French nation having been thus solemnly pledged through its constitutional organ for the liquidation and ultimate payment of the long-deferred claims of our citizens, as also for the adjustment of other points of great and reciprocal benefits to both countries, and the United States having, with a fidelity and promptitude by which their conduct will, I trust, be always characterized, done everything that was necessary to carry the treaty into full and fair effect upon their part, counted, with the most perfect confidence, on equal fidelity and promptitude on the part of the French government. In this reasonable expectation we have been, I regret to inform you, wholly disappointed. No legislative provision has been made by France for the execution of the treaty, either as it respects the indemnities to be paid, or the commercial benefits to be secured to the United States; and the relations between the United States and that power, in consequence thereof, are placed in a situation threatening to interrupt the good understanding which has so long and so happily existed between the two nations.

The idea of acquiescing in the refusal to execute the treaty will not, I am confident, be for a moment entertained by any branch of this government; and further negotiation upon the subject is equally out of the question.

If it shall be the pleasure of Congress to await the further action of the French Chamber, no further consideration of the subject will at this session probably be required at your hands. But if, from the original delay in asking for an appropriation; from the refusal of the chambers to grant it when asked; from the omission to bring the subject before the Chambers at their last session; from the fact that, including that session, there have been five different occasions when the appropriations might have been made; and from the delay in convoking the chambers until some weeks after the meeting of Congress, when it was well known that a communication of the whole subject to Congress at the last session was prevented by assurances that it should be disposed of before its present meeting, you should feel yourselves constrained to doubt whether it be the intention of the French government, in all its branches, to carry the treaty into effect, and think that such measures as the occasion may be deemed to call for should be now adopted, the important question arises what those measures shall be.

Our institutions are essentially pacific. Peace and friendly intercourse with all nations are as much the desire of our government as they are the interest of our people. But these objects are not to be permanently secured by surrendering the rights of our citizens, or permitting solemn treaties for their indemnity, in cases of flagrant wrong, to be abrogated or set aside.

It is my conviction that the United States ought to insist on a prompt execution of the treaty; and, in case it be refused or longer delayed, take redress into their own hands. After the delay on the part of France of a quarter of a century in acknowledging these claims by treaty, it is not to be tolerated that another quarter of a century is to be wasted in negociating about the payment. The laws of nations provide a remedy for such occasions. It is a well settled principle of the international code, that where one nation owes another a liquidated debt which it refuses or neglects to pay, the aggrieved party may seize on the property belonging to the other, its citizens or subjects, sufficient to pay the debt, without giving just cause of war. This remedy has been repeatedly resorted to, and recently by France herself towards Portugal, under circumstances less unquestionable.

The time at which resort should be had to this or any other mode of redress is a point to be decided by Congress. If an appropriation shall not be made by the French Chambers at
their next session, it may justly be concluded that the government of France has finally
determined to disregard its own solemn undertaking, and refuse to pay an acknowledged
debt. In that event, every day's delay on our part will be a stain upon our national honor,
as well as a denial of justice to our injured citizens. Prompt measures, when the refusal of
France shall be complete, will not only be most honorable and just, but will have the best
effect upon our national character.

Since France, in violation of the pledges given through her minister here, has delayed her
final action so long that her decision will not probably be known in time to be communicated
to this Congress, I recommend that a law be passed authorizing reprisals upon French prop­
erty, in case provision shall not be made for the payment of the debt at the approaching
session of the French Chambers.

If she should continue to refuse that act of acknowledged justice, and, in violation of the law of nations, make repri­
sals on our part the occasion of hostilities against the United States, she would but add vio­
lence to injustice, and could not fail to expose herself to the just censure of civilized nations,
and to the retributive judgments of Heaven.

Collision with France is the more to be regretted on account of the position she occupies
in Europe in relation to liberal institutions. But, in maintaining our national rights and
honor, all governments are alike to us. If, by a collision with France in a case where she
is clearly in the wrong, the march of liberal principles shall be impeded, the responsibility
for that result, as well as every other, will rest on her own head.

After full debate upon the message, the House of Representatives passed
unanimously the following resolution: "That in the opinion of this House the
treaty of July, 1831, should be maintained, and its execution insisted on." (Yeas
212, nays 0.)* And a resolution was then unanimously adopted, "that prep­
arations ought to be made to meet any emergency growing out of our relations
with France."†

The argument of the French Chambers was exactly that urged in this House
against the British treaty in 1794. The constitution of France vested the treaty­
making power in the King. But it also conferred upon the Chamber of Deput­
ties the control of appropriations of money. When a treaty requires appropria­	ions or legislation to give it effect, said the Deputies, the Chambers have a right
to consider and decide upon its merits, and to give or withhold their approval.
The French Chambers did not admit the justice of its concessions to the United
States, and they refused to give it validity by the legislation which it demanded.
They drew their arguments from the debate of 1794 in this House, and they
were answered as they ought to have been by President Jackson's message.
They asserted their right to disregard the obligations of a treaty, and we
answered them, with the concurrence of every branch of this government, by
suggestions of immediate or ultimate war if the stipulations of the treaty were
not fulfilled. Having taken this course with France, in vindication of our claims
against France, it is hardly consistent with permanent interest or national honor
that we should defeat a treaty with a friendly power by a refusal to give it effect
by appropriations of money due to that nation, upon the sole ground that a sin­
gle branch of the government can annul a treaty to which it is not a party by
the letter or spirit of the Constitution.

THE ORIGIN OF THE TREATY OF 1867.

The northwest territory of the United States, bordering upon British America,
was organized as the Territory of Washington in March, 1853. It has a popu­
lation of nearly 35,000. At the close of the Mexican war, California attracted
to the Pacific shores the most enterprising young men of the country, many of
whom became pioneers in the settlement of the country north of California.
Agriculture and the trade in lumber constituted the wealth of those who first
settled Washington Territory. Many of the earliest of these pioneers were
from New England and the British provinces. Among them were men who had
been engaged in the lumber trade of Maine and the fisheries of the British prov­
inces, and who appreciated the advantages which its magnificent harbors gave,

*Gales and Seaton's Register, 3d March, 1835, page 1633.
†Gales and Seaton's Register, 3d March, 1835, page 1635.
and the great importance of the fisheries of the adjacent seas. They entered into competition, unsuccessfully, with the subjects of Great Britain and Russia, who had obtained from their respective governments a virtual monopoly of the seas and coast above the parallel of 49° north latitude. They appealed to the government at Washington for aid in their unequal struggle with the gigantic trading corporations of Europe, firmly planted on the western coasts of America, and aided by the representations of the territorial legislature, the attention of the government was drawn to the subject, and a treaty negotiated for the purchase of Russian America by the United States.

But two despatches passed between the negotiators in reference to the purchase. One required an unreserved transfer of the territory, and the other assented to the demand.

The people of Washington Territory first presented this question to the government in 1866. They petitioned the territorial legislature upon the subject in 1867. The treaty was concluded the 30th of March, ratified by the Senate May 28; the ratifications were exchanged, and proclamation made thereof the 20th of June, and the transfer of the territory to the United States was effected at Sitka, October 18; 1867.

The consideration stipulated by the treaty for the payment of this territory is $7,200,000. This sum not having been appropriated within the period fixed for its payment, the time has been extended by consent of the Russian government. The correspondence by which this extension was authorized has been submitted to the House. (Ex. Doc. No. 177)

The mystery which was supposed to attend this cession has been dispelled, and the motives of the parties presenting it to the government have been satisfactorily explained. They were, first, the laudable desire of citizens of the Pacific coast to share in the prolific fisheries of the oceans, seas, bays, and rivers of the western world; the refusal of Russia to renew the charter of the Russian American Fur Company in 1866; the friendship of Russia for the United States; the necessity of preventing the transfer, by any possible chance, of the northwest coast of America to an unfriendly power; the creation of new industrial interests on the Pacific necessary to the supremacy of our empire on the sea and land; and, finally, to facilitate and secure the advantages of an unlimited American commerce with the friendly powers of Japan and China.

The parallel of 54° 40' was made, by the convention of 15th February, 1825, between Great Britain and Russia, the southern boundary of Russian America. The western boundary is a line running south westerly from the Frozen ocean, through a point in Behring's strait at the parallel of 65° 39' north latitude, south westerly to the middle of the strait between Atton and Copper islands, so as to include in the cession the whole of the Aleutian islands. The Rocky mountains and the Arctic ocean form the substantial boundaries on the east and north.

The first treaty negotiated between the United States and Russia was negotiated in April, 1824. But the relations between the two countries from the first has been of the most friendly character. The treaty of 1824 provides that the navigation of the Pacific shall be free to both parties; illicit trade shall be prevented; no establishment shall be formed by Russia south of that line; interior seas to be free to both nations; certain articles, spiritsuous liquors, fire-arms, ammunition, &c., always to be excepted from this commerce.

The second treaty was concluded in December, 1832. It provides for the freedom of commerce and navigation; mutual protection of laws; reciprocal duties on tonnage; reciprocal duties on merchandise for Russian and American vessels, and same rule for imports or exports; all prohibitions to be general, coasting...
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

Trade excepted; deserters to be returned to their respective governments, and consuls to assist in their arrest.

A convention was concluded, July, 1854, establishing the doctrine that free ships make free goods, and giving protection to neutral property in enemies' vessels.

The treaty of the 30th of March, 1867, makes an unreserved cession of the territory of Russian America to the United States.

The treaties between Russia and Great Britain which affect Russian territory in America are those of 1825 and 1859.

The convention of 1825, between Great Britain and Russia, provides that the subjects of the two governments respectively shall not be molested in navigating or in fishing in any part of the Pacific ocean, or in landing for trade at any points on the coast not already occupied by the other party, but not at such points without the consent of the officers representing the government by which it was occupied. Neither party was to form settlements on the other's possessions. These privileges were renewed for 10 years by the treaty between Great Britain and Russia, 12th January, 1859.

"The right of navigating freely and without any hinderance whatever all the rivers and streams which in their course towards the Pacific ocean may cross the line of demarcation upon the line of coast described in article three of the present convention," is ceded to Great Britain "forever." Copies of the treaty relating to Alaska negotiated between Russia and Great Britain are appended to this report.

THE CHARACTER OF THE COUNTRY CEDED.*

The area of the country ceded to the United States is 570,000 square miles. It includes a margin of mainland on the Pacific coast, in front of British America, 30 statute miles wide, and 300 miles long, extending from the 49° parallel northward to Mount St. Elias. The coast line of the territory is four thousand miles, and, including bays and islands, it has a coast line of more than 11,000 miles. The peninsula of Alaska is 300 miles long, and averages 50 miles in width. There are numerous islands south and north of Alaska peninsula, and five in Behring's sea. It extends the jurisdiction of the United States, on the land 304,000, on the sea, 176,000 square miles. The territory of the United States before this cession, was 2,933,666 square miles, and the ocean coast line was 12,609 miles. The distance from the southern extremity of Alaska to Point Barrow, the northern extremity of the continent on the Arctic ocean, is about 1,100 miles.

POPULATION.

The entire population of this country is estimated at 75,000. There are 9,000 Russians, Creoles, Kodiacks, and Aleoutes, and about 65,000 Indians of different tribes. Where the natives have anything to trade upon they are peaceful, capable, learn quickly, exhibit skill in commerce and mechanics, and prefer the people of the United States to those of other nations. Lieutenant Pease on the Yukon, in the interior, Major Kennicott on the Mackenzie, east of the mountains, and the miners on the Stikine, all found them friendly and peaceful. If uncorrupted by ardent spirits, not outraged by ill usage, nor confounded by those sources of Indian wars which we call treaties, of which this government has negotiated between 400 or 500 with the tribes within its limits,

* The facts relating to the physical character of Russian America are drawn chiefly from the papers accompanying the message of the President contained in Executive Document 177, Colonel Charles J. Bulkley's report, the report of the Russian American Telegraph Company, the correspondence of the Boston Journal, the Alta California, the New York Herald, the La Crosse Republican, the Atlantic Monthly of June, 1867, and the Revue Contemporaine, January, 1868.
the natives of Alaska will become civilized, prosperous, and useful in agriculture, commerce, and the fisheries. They have considerable mechanical capacity. They are proverbial for their skill in fashioning a multitude of household utensils and war implements. In carving they rival the Japanese, from whom, centuries ago, it is supposed they derived the art of giving curious and quaint forms to wood, horn, and ivory.* The women participate in hunting and fishing, and are better treated than among other tribes of American Indians. The Kodiak women bathe every morning in the waters of the Pacific. Some of them have married Russian laborers, and are proud of their connection. The miners of the upper Stekine valley have matrimonial alliances with the natives. There are different races among the Indians. Some of them had force enough to teach the Russians that kind treatment and fair dealing was the only means of attaining peace with them. The great fur companies of the eastern and western continents, by fulfilling to the letter every agreement with them, avoided the savage outbreaks and wars which have desolated settlements on the American frontiers.

SETTLEMENTS AND TRADING POSTS.

Sitka.—The Baranoff islands have been regarded by the Russians as the most important point, and is the best known part of the Russian American coast. Upon one of these islands the town of Sitka, the capital of Russian America, called by the Russians New Archangel, was established. It was made the headquarters of the Russian American Fur Company when it abandoned Stuart's and St. Michael's islands, in Norton sound. It has a good harbor, sheltered westward by innumerable islands, and is well protected from easterly and northeasterly winds. The main islands are mountainous, the sides of which are covered with a dense growth of spruce and pine timber. There is but little land for cultivation. The severity of the winters, and the almost unceasing rains of summer, caused by the proximity of the high, cold mountains to the coast, render the cultivation of the land difficult and unprofitable. The waters conveyed by the winds of the Pacific are condensed by the island and coast mountains, and fall constantly in rain or snow, and envelope the country in dense, wet fogs.

No mineral discoveries of importance have been made by the Russians. The furs of this region are of inferior quality, and of small value compared with those of other parts of the country. The Russian settlers have made no efforts to extend their knowledge of the islands, harbors, rivers, or mountains of this part of the coast. Mr. Blake, the geologist of the Coast Survey expedition, stated in a public address in San Francisco, in 1867, that he had never heard of a white man or Indian that had crossed the island, a distance of only 20 miles. All recent authorities tend to show that this is not an extravagant illustration of the want of enterprise on the part of the agents of the Russian American Company or the Indians subject to their government. The timber, which is valuable and almost limitless in quantity, consists of spruce, fir, cedar, and hemlock. It is easily obtained in the immediate vicinity of the coast and upon its water communications. Vast quantities of superior salmon are caught, cured, and exported to California, the Sandwich islands, and Europe. It is the principal food of the Russians and natives. Halibut are plentiful, and clams of good quality are found in the immediate vicinity of the islands and the harbor of Sitka. Deer, ducks, geese, and grouse are abundant in the season, and the mountain streams abound in different varieties of trout.

The climate of Sitka is comparatively mild. The American Ice Company was compelled to abandon this location for the colder regions of Kodiak, to insure the supply of ice required for California.

The population of the town numbers about 500 Russians, Cossacks and Cre-

oles, and there are about 1,000 Indians in its vicinity. It has but one street, with straggling log-houses. The principal buildings are the governor's residence, a Greek church, a Lutheran chapel, the buildings of the Russian American Company, a club house, and a block house with a small battery. The town proper is enclosed by stockades. It was established in 1805. The slow progress it has made is due to its unfortunate location and the want of enterprise on the part of the Russians and native Indians. The Americans who have visited it recommend a change in the location of the capital to a point about 15 miles north, upon the same island.

**THE CHARACTER OF THE COAST.**

The coast from Fort Simpson to Lynn channel and Chilcot river is high, rugged, and mountainous. Deep inlets cut the coast. The mountain ranges continue more or less near the sea, culminating in the great peak of Mount St. Elias, which is the initial point of the eastern boundary of Alaska. This region has been rented to the Hudson Bay Company, and furnishes a valuable portion of its trade. The mountains towards Cook's inlet are depressed; they are further from the ocean, of moderate elevation, terminating on the seacoast with an undulating country, well watered by the Copper river, which empties into the sea near the 145th meridian.

**COOK'S INLET.**

Cook's inlet, leading to the interior from Prince William sound further west, furnishes, in the opinion of Colonel Bulkley, the best location for the principal military post, and the fairest prospects for settlers on the coast. It has a good harbor, better climate, a larger extent of arable land than any bay in the territory. It yields good barley, a fair quality and quantity of furs, and gold and silver are said to have been found in this vicinity.

**KODIAK.**

The island of Kodiak, 550 miles west of Sitka, is the next important point on the coast. It is the principal depot of the Pacific ice trade. The climate of Kodiak, unlike Sitka, being more distant from the Coast mountains, has fair proportions of sunshine and shade. The winters are cold; the summers agreeable and healthy. About two-thirds of the island is an open, rolling country, covered with grass. The soil is favorable to the cultivation of hardy vegetables. It affords sufficient pasturage for six or eight thousand cattle. Game is plentiful, and the streams abound with every variety of fish. Spruce and fir timber is found on the sides of the valleys. It has two safe anchorages with good water. The population numbers about 1,800, of whom 100 are Russians. Kodiak and its accessions are regarded by Professor Baird as a prolongation of the peninsula of Kenoy, parallel with Alaska, and the Chilékoff strait a continuation of Cook's inlet. The mountains of Kodiak reach an elevation of 3,000 feet.

**CHAUMAGINE ISLANDS.**

The Chaumagine group of islands, of which Ounga is the most important, lies at the southwest of Kodiak. It has an excellent harbor, affording shelter from winds, and plenty of water. There are no inhabitants except the employés of the Russian American Company. The surface is of rolling land interspersed with lakes, without timber, but covered with long thin grass. Colonel Bulkley considers the island as near the centre of the great cod fishing ground, that extends without interruption from Unimak passage to Prince William sound. One of the early explorers of the Russian American Company claims to have found here both agates and amethysts. The officers of the telegraph company
found many specimens of petrifaction, stumps of trees, and smaller petrified woods, and seams of coal from three to five feet deep, which burns sufficiently well for ordinary steaming purposes. Its furs are of ordinary quality. Coal Harbor, which receives its name from the seams of coal plainly visible upon the face of the bluff near the head of the harbor, is well stocked with codfish and halibut. Its agricultural capacity is similar to that of Kodiak and Cook's inlet.

ALASKA PENINSULA.

From the north of these islands the peninsula of Alaska stretches to the southwest, terminating at Unimak passage, the first principal strait which separates the continent from the Alaskan island. This peninsula appears to be a continuation of the Mount St. Elias range deflected at Prince William sound, and embraces some very high volcanic peaks. The southeast shores are bold and rocky. There is timber on the margin of the coast as far west as Kodiak. Many bays indent the shores of the peninsula, and numerous lakes connected by small streams from the mountains. For the last sixty miles it is comparatively low, and nearly cut into islands by deep bays which indent its shores. The northwest coast is low and sandy, backed by a belt of land covered with herbage.

THE ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.

The Aleutian islands are the summits of the mountain range which extend northward on the American coast around the head of Prince William sound and Cook's inlet, and down the peninsula of Alaska. They form a regular curve from the termination of the peninsula, southward, westward and northward, to Behring's island, a distance of 1,075 miles. Attn, the western of the Aleutian islands, is separated from Copper island by a strait 201 miles in width, through the middle of which runs the boundary line established by the treaty. There are 60 or 70 of these islands that range from 3 to 40 miles in length. Unimak, the largest, is 73 miles long. The smaller islands are numberless.

Ounalaska, in latitude 53° 51', longitude 166° 24' west, is the most important of this range, which extends from the American continent to Kamtschatka. It has the best harbor, and furnishes at this time a central point for the trade of the chain of islands, as it will hereafter for the local trade, between the eastern and western continents. It is destitute of trees, but has a fine growth of grass. The population numbers about 500, including Russians and Creoles. The natives are hospitable and harmless, and are generally connected with the Greek church.

There are but two islands west of Ounalaska where posts have been established by the Russian American Company, Atka and Atton; the latter is the extreme western point of the Aleutian chain, and near the western boundary of the Russian purchase. But little is accurately known of these islands, even by the Russians, and nothing of their resources or their ultimate capacity for trade. These islands diminish in size, and are less frequent as they approach the Asiatic coast. The climate is also modified when the warmer water and winds of the Pacific pass through the numerous straits. The Behring sea currents flowing south would give a colder climate west of Ounalaska, were it not for these warm south winds from the Pacific.

SOUTHERN ISLANDS.

There are numerous large islands southeast of Alaska, about 100 miles from its extremity, of which little is known even of their position. The important island of Kodiak lies off the southeast coast of the peninsula towards Cook's inlet, 25 to 35 miles wide, and separated from the peninsula by the strait of Chelekoff. Very little doubt is entertained that numerous extensive fishing
banks exist well out to sea, of some of which the position is only approximately
determined, and others towards the Shoumagin group, whose position is kept a
secret by the fishermen, who frequent them. Of the waters adjoining the coast
of the main land, very little is accurately known. The early exploration of
all these waters is of great importance.

BEHRING SEA—ITS BAYS AND ISLANDS.

North of the peninsula of Alaska, on the American coast, there are four large
bays and sounds called Bristol, Kouskovin, Norton, and Kotzebue, in which the
many mouths of the great Yukon or Kwichpak and other large rivers find an
outlet to the Arctic and Behring seas.

The island of St. Paul is the first point of importance northward from the Alee-
tian chain, latitude 57° 10', and longitude 170° west. Though comparatively
small, it is one of the most important of the Russian possessions in America.
It is the only known home of the fur-seal. Colonel Bulkley visited this island
twice, and says that he saw, at each visit, from 100,000 to 200,000 fur-seal on
and about the island. The annual exportation of skins from this island have
seldom been less than 120,000. Under proper management he says the skins
from this island alone would, in a few years, pay the cost of the entire pur-
chase. He regards it as of more intrinsic value for a steady revenue than any
other part of the territory. The island of St. George, a few miles south of St.
Paul, is used as an auxiliary to St. Paul by the Russian American Company.

BRISTOL BAY.

Bristol bay, east of St. Paul, is a favorite resort of whalers. Right whales
are found in its vicinity of extraordinary size and in great numbers. The furs
of the beaver, marten, mink and fox are obtained from the head of Bristol bay
in large quantities. The land is said to be low and rolling, but nothing is
known of its adaptation to agriculture, as no explorations have been made. It
affords spruce and fir timber.

The island of St. Matthew is further north, where the white bear, walrus and
common seal are found. It is believed that large deposits of walrus tusks and
other forms of ivory may be discovered on this island. The island of Miniwak,
north and east of St. Matthew, adjoining the coast, has never been visited except
by a few whalemen, and little is known of its value.

The island of St. Lawrence, which almost blocks the entrance to Behring
straits, and completes the chain of islands visited by Colonel Bulkley, is inhab-
ited by Indians, who carry on an extensive trade with the natives of north-
eastern Siberia, in whale and seal oil, bone and boats. It affords shelter from
northerly and westerly winds, with good water, but no safe anchorage.

Behring sea is mainly valuable for the whale fishery, though the codfish
has been found in small quantities as far north as Plover bay, in northeastern
Siberia. Little is known of the capacity of this vast fishing ground, except as
a resort for whales.

STUART’S ISLAND.

In Norton sound, was first selected by the Russian American Company as head-
quartes for its trade, but was afterwards abandoned for Sitka. It is without
permanent inhabitants. The island is of moderate height, without timber,
but covered with tall grass which, in the short summer season, grows to a
surprising height. This island and that of St. Michael’s, which was made by
the Russians a depot for trade between the Youkon river and Kotzebue sound,
are but masses of lava. The canals separating these islands from the main
land abound with ducks and geese. In the mountains near the coast, wild deer
are plenty. The streams that empty into the bay furnish an abundance of sal-
mon and other fish.
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

At the narrowest part of Behring strait a large trade is carried on between the American and Siberian coasts across the strait, which is pursued in open boats in the summer, and upon the ice in winter.

At Kotzebue sound, north of Behring strait, the most northerly point of the explorations of the telegraph company, in latitude 66°, longitude 163°, the thermometer rose to 79° above zero in summer, and the greatest cold experienced was 69° below zero in winter. This is a favorite resort for traders, and the natives deal largely in furs and the ivories of the seal and walrus.

RIVERS AND WATER COURSES.

Stekine or St. Francis' river.—The Stekine or St. Francis' river is the first river of consequence north of British Columbia which waters the territory of Alaska, and has been the principal means of communication between the coast and British territory, north and east. For about thirty miles to the coast, it runs through Alaska, and above that, from its sources, it passes through British America. It is navigable 150 miles, four months in a year, for light draught steamers, and above for canoes. Its course is through a gold-bearing country, the gold washing down from the mountains in which the river rises. There are several smaller rivers between the Stekine and the Copper river, of which little is yet known, but which cannot fail to be of considerable importance in the future development of this country, among which are the Jakon, emptying into Stevens’ pass, and the Chilet emptying into Cross sound.

Copper river.—The Copper river, north of the Stekine, derives its name from the deposits of native copper on its banks. The natives retain the locality of these deposits as a secret; but they are supposed to be about 25 or 30 miles above its eastern mouth, and to exist in masses of pure copper of various sizes. Its course, for 100 miles from its mouth, is from the north, and above that to its sources, from the northeast. Little is known of the upper portions of this important stream. The natives call it the Atna. They live upon its bank, feeding upon fish and such vegetables as they can cultivate or gather. They are supposed to have communication by this river with the Youkon, the affluents of the two rivers being so near each other that but short portages are made.

COOK'S (INLET) RIVER.

Cook’s river cuts a deep gash into the coast line and opens the interior to an extensive communication. The lakes of this region of the interior are all supposed to have outlets by the rivers flowing to the ocean, and to open the country to easy water communication.

The Kuvck is a small river opening into Cook's inlet. The Sushitna is a larger stream, nearly as long as Copper or Atna river, with its sources in the mountains on the north, and with branches extending westward to the Chigmit mountains, running southerly into Cook’s inlet. The Kvichpak connects Riamanna lake with Bristol bay, into which it empties. It is an important communication between the coast and the interior rivers and lakes.

The Nashgalak is represented by the natives to connect by lakes and marshes with Cook’s inlet on one side, and the Kouskavim on the other. The portages are short and open the whole interior country to easy and advantageous water communication.

THE KOUSKAVIM RIVER.

The Kouskavim is smaller than the Yukon. It is 1,700 or 1,800 feet wide for 200 miles above its mouth. In many places on the right bank Lieutenant Zugoskin, a Russian officer, found mica in the rocks. The left bank is clothed with heavy firs. Parallel with the river, 20 miles distant, is a range of mountains.
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

The country between the Kouskavim and the Yukon was found to be full of small rivers. The ice broke up on the 1st of May, 1844, in the Kouskavim and by the 9th the river was perfectly clear. Above Fort Malakoff it is from 700 to 2,100 feet wide. For 100 miles it runs between rocky cliffs from 300 to 500 feet high, which are covered with dense forests. Numerous rivers enter the Kouskavim on both sides. The natives are friendly and ready for trade. The expedition of Lieutenant Zugosykin halted at the mouth of the Sochotno, 180 miles above Fort Malakoff and 350 above the mouth of the river. At the mouth of the Sochotno the natives spoke of a beautiful inland sea in the interior, between the Kouskavim and the Yukon. The same story was repeated at other points on the Kouskavim and the Yukon by the natives. It was described as a large and beautiful lake, abounding in fish, and supporting a numerous people on its banks. Lieutenant Zugosykin supposed the location of this lake to be between latitude 63° and 65° north and longitude 150° and 154° west, and that it found an outlet for its waters by the Haggaya river into the Yukon. The hills and forests disappeared in the country near the Sochotno. At one point a chain of lakes, in a flat country, extended as far as the eye could reach. The soil at this part of the river contained a layer of organic matter from the forest, about three feet deep, beneath which was wet clay.

YUKON RIVER.

The Yukon, the great river of the north, empties its waters into Behring sea, south of Norton's sound. The lower river near the mouth is called by the Russians Kwichpak. The Indians named its headwaters the Yukon, by which name the river is now generally known. It mouths correspond in some degree to the delta of the Mississippi, and embrace nearly two degrees of latitude. It is open by the middle of May and closes about the middle of October. It is one of the largest rivers of the globe. Including the Billy river, its waters run 2,000 miles to the sea. There are no serious obstacles to the navigation of this river, for light-draught steamers, for 1,500 miles, from its mouth to its junction with the Porcupine at Fort Yukon. Fort Yukon, the extreme western post of the Hudson Bay Company on this river, is within the territory of Alaska. Nulato, 500 miles from its mouth, is the extreme eastern post of the Russian American Company.

Major Robert Kennicutt, who conducted the explorations in Russian America for the telegraph company, had travelled, previously to his engagement with this company from the western States, by Lake Superior, Winnipeg, Athabasca, and the Great Storm lake to Fort Simpson, and down the Mackenzie to its mouth on the Arctic sea, and on the Yukon across the Precipice mountains to Fort Yukon, at its junction with the Porcupine, returning to the States by the same route. In 1865, entering the employ of the telegraph company and the Smithsonian Institute, he commenced an exploration of the Yukon river to its junction with the Porcupine at Fort Yukon. He died at Nulato, 500 miles from its mouth, without completing his enterprise. Lieutenant Charles Pease, one of his party, returned with his remains down the Yukon to Fort St. Michael, upon Behring sea. He found numerous tribes of friendly Indians on the route. The river averages a mile and a half in width from the sea to Fort Yukon, and is navigable all the way for large steamers. The views of Major Kennicutt and Lieutenant Pease are embodied in an article upon Alaska published in the Atlantic Monthly, June, 1867.

Colonel Bulkley says that, from his own observations, as well as from reports of explorations by the telegraph expedition, there is no portion of Russian America more worthy of attention than the country drained by this magnificent river. The most valuable sable, minx, and beaver furs are obtained from the natives along this river at little cost. Fish and game are found in the greatest abundance. Moose meat, which is slightly coarser than that of the wild deer,
was the chief subsistence of the Hudson Bay Company as of the telegraph expedition which ascended this river to Fort Yukon. Above Nulato the banks are heavily timbered with spruce, fir, and larch. The country along the upper Yukon is described as slightly rolling, not too heavily timbered, with high bluffs upon the river bank.

Among the important discoveries made by Major Kennicutt, in 1860, near Fort Yukon, at the junction of the Porcupine with the Yukon, was that of the breeding place of the canvas-back duck, the eggs of which, not often seen by naturalists, literally covered acres of ground. Here he found the nests and eggs of the Bohemian wax-wing, the only place where its eggs have been found. On the Yukon Lieutenant Pease saw several islands covered with swans, geese, and herds of seals.

Lieutenant Pease travelled up the Analaklat. The mercury stood at two degrees below zero October 21, 1866, but the ice in the river was not strong enough to bear them. On the 8th November it could be traversed with dog teams. The party remained on the Yukon during the winter, where Major Kennicott died. The ice broke up on the Yukon the 23d May, and Lieutenant Pease transported the remains to Behring sea, 550 miles. The navigation was not more difficult than on western rivers, the sand-bars having a fair depth of water, and the rapids offering no serious obstacles to a good steamer. At Fort Yukon, the Catholic priest had given place to an Episcopal clergyman.

The peninsula can be traversed by following these rivers from east to west and from north to south by the short passes in the mountains and the lakes and short portages that lead to the rivers running north.

Above the junction with the Nulato the Yukon river is about one mile wide, and runs through a level plain covered with small lakes abounding in fish. Numerous streams enter from either side, and the banks are covered with willow, alder, aspen, birch, poplar, and large firs. The woods do not extend a great distance from the river. Marshy plains and smaller mountains are found beyond. Below Nulato it was a mile and a half in width and from one to ten fathoms in depth. The left bank was low, with hills in the distance. The right bank high, terminating in mountains, and both sides well wooded. The upper region of the Yukon will supply the coast at its mouth with timber. The drift now furnishes building materials and fuel.

THE ONALAKCUT RIVER.

The American telegraph expedition made its headquarters for two years near the mouth of the Onalakcut river, 60 miles north of St. Michael. This is a favorable point for intercepting the trade between the Yukon river and the Arctic ocean. The natives exhibited the utmost respect for the Americans, and a most decided preference for them over the Russians. Golovin bay, northwest of the Onalakcut, is the best bay in Norton sound, and a favorable post for trade. The coast northward to Port Clarence, the depot of the American Telegraph Company and Behring strait, is of moderate height, without timber or grass, but thickly covered with the moss of the Arctic regions. Port Clarence offers good shelter, abundance of drift-wood, fresh water, and easy and safe landings. The natives, having nothing for trade, are constantly engaged in war.

The Unalaklet enters Norton sound from the east. Its length is 65 or 70 miles. A mile and a half from its mouth the forests of poplar, alder, and fir appear, extending back from both banks 2,000 feet. The width of this stream is from 40 to 500 feet.

The Koipak enters Norton bay. The Selawik, the Towak, and the Inland river empty into Kotzebue sound. The Inland river is a large stream emptying into Kotzebue sound, latitude 67°, and running southwesterly from its sources in the mountains near to those of the Colville, which runs directly north into Harrison's bay, on the Arctic ocean, latitude 71°.
The river Colville is the principal of the Arctic rivers within the Territory of Alaska, and the largest west of the Mackenzie, which waters the northern part of Russian America.

CLIMATE.

The laws which govern the climate of Alaska are, in many respects, unlike those which control the climate of that part of the American continent on the northern Atlantic ocean. A great warm ocean current sweeps from the south along the eastern coast of Asia, crosses the Pacific to the northwest coast of America, giving to that country a higher temperature and a correspondingly milder climate than could exist in the same latitudes under other circumstances. The ancient and modern navigators of the Old and New World have observed this current and noted the changes it produces in the climate of the Asiatic and American coasts. The great northern equatorial current leaving the coast and gulf of Lower California sweeps across the Pacific south of the Sandwich Islands, and, moving northward, gradually deflects to the north and northeast along the Asiatic coast. It combines its waters with the monsoon current of the Caroline islands, and those of the Japan stream, which has its origin, also, in the northern equatorial current, and the waters of the three currents combined follow the Asiatic coast, deflecting to the north and northeastward until it is divided into two parts by the intrusion of the cold polar current from the Arctic ocean through Behring strait. The main body of the stream moves directly towards the coast of America, down the coast of Oregon and California, and finally sweeps back into the equatorial current in which it originated, to continue its ceaseless course and mysterious changes. The other branch of this great current when separated by the cold polar current, called the Kamtschatka current, passes through Behring strait, follows the northern Arctic coast of America, and doubtless enters the stream which escapes from the Arctic ocean through Davis strait into the north Atlantic, forming the icy polar current which chills the eastern shore of America, and continues as far south as the peninsula of Florida. But the whole of the waters of the Kamtschatka current do not pass through Behring strait. A part are thrown from the eastern capes of the Asiatic coast, and the south shore of the island of St. Lawrence, eastward and southward upon the American coast and the northern shores of the Aleutian islands. These warm currents from the equator, whose waters show an average temperature of 86°, give a tropical vegetation to the Japanese and Bonin islands, in latitude 27° 40' north.

The warm currents from the equator which wash the shores of western America produce an exactly opposite effect upon the climate of that country from that which is wrought upon the eastern coast of America by the icy currents from the Arctic ocean which wash the northern and eastern shores of the continent. It is impossible for us to comprehend the nature of the climate of the northwestern coasts from anything we know of that which prevails upon the northeastern coast. One is modified by the grand, ceaseless currents from the south; the other is constantly chilled by the icy streams from the northern ocean.

These observations upon the equatorial and arctic currents enable us to accept the otherwise incredible statements made by ancient, as well as more recent explorers, of the moderate temperature of the northwestern coast of America. It is milder than the western coast of Europe, and wholly independent of the causes which give to the northeastern coast of America climatic conditions so unlike those of western Asia, eastern Europe, or the northwest coast of America. These facts show, also, that many of the extraordinary characteristics of the climate of Alaska are exceptional peculiarities, and do not affect, much less control, the general condition of the climate. Thus the constant and dense fogs that are met in certain localities in Behring sea are supposed to be
due to the contact of the warm waters of the equator with those of the Polar sea. The almost perpetual fall of rain at some parts of the American coast, as at Sitka, is occasioned by the close proximity of the high mountains, and their "thrilling regions of thick-ribbed ice," to the warmer waters of the Pacific seas.

In view of these facts we can credit the statement that Captain Williams sailed the last season as far west as 188°, and Captain Thomas as far north as latitude 72° 55', and saw nothing but open seas before them, which would be incredible if applied to the same latitudes of the Atlantic coast. The perfectly well-established theory of the ocean currents in the Pacific enables us to accept conclusions which are wholly at variance with received ideas of the climate of other parts of the American continent.

Mr. Loring Blodgett, the distinguished author of the excellent work on American Climatology, says, in a communication addressed to the chairman of the Committee of Foreign Affairs, that "the winters in the Territory of Alaska, fully up to Port Providence, near Behring strait, are very mild. At Sitka they are nearly as mild as at Philadelphia—milder than in New York harbor. There is, also, much less snow falling at Sitka than in New York city." A table accompanying this communication, both of which are appended to this report, shows that at Point Barrow, the northwest limit of the American continent, latitude 71° 20', on the western coast, the average temperature of the three winter months is 3° warmer than at Igloolik,* Melville peninsula, which is 3° of latitude further south; 4° warmer than Havøe, Norway, west coast of Europe, in the same latitude, 71°; and 8° warmer than Nije Kolynisk, latitude 68° 32', on the east coast of Asia, 3° further south.

Port Clarence, southeast of Behring strait, the depot of the Russian American Telegraph Company, latitude 65° 45', is 3° warmer for the winter months than Hebron, Labrador, latitude 58°, which is 7° further south; 2° warmer than Bergen, Norway, latitude 60° 24'; and 1° warmer than Iakoutsk, east Siberia, 3° further south. Sitka, latitude 57° 3', is 10 1/2° warmer than Quebec, 11° further south; 9° warmer than Portland, Maine, 14° further south; 5° warmer than Boston, Massachusetts, 15° further south; 2° warmer than New York city, 16° further south; 1° warmer than Philadelphia, 17° 10' further south; and is warmer than Baltimore, 17° 45' further south; or Washington, 18° 15' further south, on the eastern American coast; and from 15° to 20° warmer than St. Petersburg, Russia; Christiana, Norway; Copenhagen, Denmark; Berlin, Prussia; Bremen, Germany; Munich, Bavaria; Mannheim, on the Rhine; Odessa, Russia; or Vienna, on the west coast of Europe, which range from 2° 23' to 15° 10' of latitude further south than Sitka; and warmer than any point between Okhotsk and Petropaulowski, on the eastern coast of Asia.

On the lower coast, and at all intermediate points between Sitka and San Diego, the climate is milder than at any point on the same meridian on the coasts of eastern America, western Europe, or eastern Asia.

At Fort Simpson, near the southern boundary of Alaska, latitude 54° 30', the winter months are 11° warmer than at St. John, Newfoundland, 7° further south; 2° warmer than at Lancaster, England, 12° further south. Vancouver is 3° warmer than Richmond, 12° to 13° further south; 4° warmer than London, 6° 29' further south. Gray's Harbor, southwest coast of Washington Territory, is warmer than Memphis, 7° further south; 1° warmer than Gosport, England; and 3° warmer than Yeddo, Japan, 11° further south. Fort Umpqua, Oregon, is 1° warmer than Beaufort, North Carolina, 9° further south; 2° warmer than Cork, Ireland; and 1 1/2° warmer than Shanghai, China. Los Angeles, California, is but 3° colder for the winter months than Mobile, Alabama, 4° further south; 3° colder than St. Michael's, Azores; and nearly the same as at Canton, China, 11° further south.

* North of Hudson Strait, northeast coast of America, 68° 21' north latitude.
These conclusions are drawn from observations taken at different periods, and are undoubtedly substantially correct. The results are in conformity with natural laws, which are supposed to modify, if not to control, the climate of different parts of the earth. The committee solicits attention to the interesting and instructive table of Mr. Blodgett, from which the above statements are drawn.

The winters at Sitka are warmer than those of the cities of Quebec, Portland, Maine, Boston, Massachusetts, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and nearly as warm as at Washington. The summers are cooler. The mean temperature of the winter is $32^\circ 30'$; that of summer is $53^\circ 37'$. The harbor is open at Sitka during the winter.

It is stated by the officers of the Smithsonian Institution that from observations made at Sitka, 1831, the longest frost lasted only five days. In December the temperature was at the freezing point only two days; in January, seven days; and in March it froze only at night, never during the day.*

At Kotzebue sound, latitude $52^\circ$ north, the most northerly point of the explorations of the telegraph company, Colonel Bulkley says the thermometer rose to $79^\circ$ in summer, and the greatest cold experienced in winter was $69^\circ$ below zero, Fahrenheit. Major Pope, who explored the inland route for the telegraph, reports that in latitude $55^\circ$ and longitude $126^\circ$ south of Sitka, and 160 miles east of Queen Charlotte's sound, "ground ice" is found at any time of the year six or eight feet below the surface. In that region the surface is usually frozen in the winter two feet deep, leaving a space of six to eight feet between the upper and lower or "ground ice." This ground ice does not prevent the growth of vegetables or berries. Among the Esquimaux, where the moss or sphagnum which covers the whole country has been removed, as at Port St. Nicholas, the ground thaws to an average depth of three feet from the surface. (P.121, report of telegraph company.) Vegetation flourishes where the "ground ice" is but two feet from the surface.

The gold miners who have been nearly ten years on the Stekine run, report

* The following table of the climate of the Pacific as compared with that of the Atlantic coast has been compiled by direction of the superintendent of the Smithsonian Institution:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Places</th>
<th>Mean temperature in degrees, Fahrenheit</th>
<th>Precipitation in rain or snow, Depth in inches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spring</td>
<td>Summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Michael's, Russian America, Lat. 63° 56' 45&quot; north.</td>
<td>28.75</td>
<td>53.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Youkon, Russian America, Lat. (near) 67°</td>
<td>14.92</td>
<td>59.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ikognut, Russian America, Lat. 61° 47'</td>
<td>19.62</td>
<td>49.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sitka, Russian America, Lat. 57° 36'</td>
<td>30.65</td>
<td>53.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puget sound, Wash'n Territory, Lat. 47°</td>
<td>48.88</td>
<td>63.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Astoria, Oregon, Lat. 40° 11'</td>
<td>51.16</td>
<td>61.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Francisco, California, Lat. 37° 48'</td>
<td>55.39</td>
<td>58.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nain, Labrador, Lat. 57° 10'</td>
<td>23.67</td>
<td>48.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montreal, Canada East, Lat. 45° 39'</td>
<td>41.90</td>
<td>68.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portland, Maine, Lat. 43° 36'</td>
<td>40.12</td>
<td>63.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Hamilton, New York, Lat. 40° 37'</td>
<td>47.84</td>
<td>71.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington, Dist. of Columbia, Lat. 41° 9'</td>
<td>54.19</td>
<td>73.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

that on the coast ranges of mountains the summers are dry and warm, the
winters very severe, with heavy falls of snow that stop mining operations.

Professor Baird gives in his report tables obtained from St. Petersburg obser-
vatory of the climate for a period of 12 years to 1862, inclusive. The mean
temperature of the year at Sitka from 12 years' observation was 42° of Fahren-
heit.

The temperature of the different seasons he exhibits in the following table,
begining with March:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Season</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>Spring, 41° 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>Autumn, 44° 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>Winter, 31° 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In November, 1853; which was unusually cold and clear, the mean tempera-
ture of the month was 19° 85', with less than one-half inch fall of snow. All
the information obtained shows a remarkably equable climate.

The report of the Greek bishop at Ounalaska gives the mean temperature of
the year for nine years at 38° 03', or 4° 9' below Sitka. The highest tempera-
ture recorded is 77° upon two occasions, and the lowest, 0° 6 below zero; but
on only nine occasions is it recorded less than ten degrees above zero.

The clearest months, without clouds, are December, January, and February,
when the north and northwest winds prevail.

August, September, and October are the months in which the most rain falls,
during which time winds from the south to west prevail. The rainfall is not
recorded, but he says that rain falls during some part of the 24 hours upon 150
days of each year, and estimates the total fall at only 27 inches, which must be
much underestimated.

Snow falls sometimes in every month except June, July, and August, and is
recorded in every month except July.

Thunder-storms are very rare, only 17 being recorded in seven years, and
none in winter.

Earthquakes are comparatively frequent, no less than 32 being recorded in
seven years.

The clearest month is January, and at any season clear weather accompanies
or follows north winds. Very strong winds prevail from October to March.

The average annual amount of rain, melted snow, and hail that fell in 14.09
years at Sitka, was 83.39 inches, or within a fraction of seven feet, (yet less
than what falls at the mouth of the Columbia river,) and the average annual
number of days upon which rain, snow, or hail fell, or heavy fogs prevailed, was
245, or two days out of every three, while it does not follow that the other days
have a clear sky.
The following scheme exhibits the rainfall for the different months:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Inches</th>
<th>Season</th>
<th>Rainy days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>March</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>Spring, $14^\circ$0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>April</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>Spring, $14^\circ$0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>Spring, $14^\circ$0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>June</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>Summer, $15^\circ$4</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>July</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>Summer, $15^\circ$4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>August</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>Summer, $15^\circ$4</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>September</td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td>Autumn, $30^\circ$.8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>October</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td>Autumn, $30^\circ$.8</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>November</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td>Winter, $22^\circ$.9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>December</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>Winter, $22^\circ$.9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>January</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>Winter, $22^\circ$.9</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>Winter, $22^\circ$.9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The greatest amount of rain that fell during any one year was 95.8 inches, or eight feet, in 1850; the smallest was 58.6 inches in 1861. The most that fell in any one month was 19.5, in October, 1853; the smallest was .5 inch, in November, 1853. A rainfall of 21.4 inches took place in August, 1867; 16 inches in September, and about 15 inches in October, or quite 52 inches of rain during the period of the coast survey expedition to Alaska.

Lutke's tables are cited, showing that in 1828 and 1829 there were each year an average of 170 days calm, 132 of moderate winds and 63 with strong winds, an average of 74 fine days, 174 on which snow or rain fell at intervals, and 117 with continued snow or rain.

The prevailing winds in winter are easterly, and if from the south are accompanied with rain and snow; when from the northeast the weather is generally clear and cold. The stormy weather commences in October; storms and tempests are frequent in November and December, and from the vicinity of Sitka the aurora borealis is seen frequently and very brilliant during clear, cold nights. The winter weather breaks up about the end of March, and the Russian American Company's vessels are ready for their first fur trading early in April, when the weather is cold but comparatively dry. March, April, May, June, and July, and sometimes August, are good months, with an average monthly rainfall not much greater than that on the Atlantic coast.

Kodiak is warmer in summer and colder in winter than Sitka. The air is calm and clear, and labor quite practicable through the year. The ice trade was transferred from Sitka to Kodiak because the ice was more solid and thicker. The cutting begins in December, when the ice is 12 inches thick, and closes in February, when it is 18 inches, clear and solid. The snow falls to the depth of three feet and lasts into June, when it disappears quickly and grass comes forward rapidly. It grows from the sphagnum or moss, and late in August was two and three feet high. The most violent winds are those that come in gusts from the mountains on the coast behind the settlements.

Unfavorable localities have left upon the earlier and some later explorers disagreeable recollections of the climate, and led to dismal reports of the character of the country. But similar reports are found in the early explorations of every part of the world.

Alaska is a region of contrasts in character, product, and climate. It is three countries rather than one, and that which is true of one part may have no relation whatever to either of the others. It has an interior, a Pacific, and an arctic region, wholly distinct from each other. The valley of the Youkon is, according to our information, the central region of Alaska. It has been partially described by Kennicott, Pease and Bulkley. North of the Youkon is the second or arctic Alaska. South of the Nevada and Chymit mountains lies the
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peninsula to which is attached the chain of islands extending nearly to the Asiatic coast, which may be called southern or oceanic Alaska. To assume that a fact applicable to a part of these greatly diversified regions, and especially a fact that describes some features of Sitka which belongs rather to British Columbia than Russian America, as a characteristic of the several Alaskan regions, would be wholly unjust. We know very little of these particular countries, and nothing at all of countries like them.

AGRICULTURE.

The cultivable surface of the districts bordering on the northern Pacific, in which the western slope of the Rocky mountains may be included from the 45th to the 60th parallels of latitude, and embracing five degrees of longitude in width, is not much less than 300,000 square miles.

The characteristics of Sitka have been noticed. The soil and climate of Kodiak are superior to those of Sitka, and the island is more important in commercial and agricultural points of view. The land is good and will produce most of the vegetables and fruits known to northern climates. Potatoes, turnips, and lettuce are cultivated with great success. Raspberries, strawberries, and whortleberries are well filled and of large size, but did not ripen well the last season. Gooseberries did better. It is thought cultivation will greatly improve these as all other products of the soil.

The food of the birds that find a breeding place in this vast and distant region is chiefly the Alpine cranberry, smaller and not so palatable as the common cranberry until touched by frost, when it is delicious.

Captain Howard says of Ounalaska that grasses are abundant to the summit of the hills, 1,800 feet above the level of the sea. He does not know a better country for stock. A few spruces have been transplanted from Kodiak, no trees being found upon the island. The natives offered good potatoes for sale at the mouth of Chilkat river and also at Kake island.

On the southern boundary we find as fine herds grass as any country can boast. It grows wild, without care or culture. The white and burr clover introduced from California grows well at Sitka. They answer well for green fodder, but haying is impracticable in the opinion of Dr. Kellogg. The telegraph corps found no difficulty in making hay on the Stekine river. Mr. William Palmer says that they wintered 40 head of cattle and had no difficulty whatever in doing it. Turnips, beets, carrots, parsnips, potatoes, and other root crops, with cabbage, &c., are the main resource of the people. Winter gooseberries, blackberries, the cowberry, little inferior to cranberries, the large thimbleberry of the west, the blackberry, and the colored berry of the finest flavor are abundant from Sitka to Ounalaska. No dish, says Dr. Kellogg, can be more fascinating than these berries eaten with sugar and cream, or more delicious for a sauce to mutton or game. If these berries were largely cultivated, he says, an unlimited market and good fortunes could be realized. Dr. Kellogg saw many mown valleys at Kodiak wherein a good supply of hay had been cured for winter use from the native grasses. The cattle were fat, and milk abundant. Nothing has been done in the way of thorough and careful cultivation. One of the choicest luxuries is pickled mushrooms which are abundant. At Ounalaska the grasses are abundant, with a better climate for haying than that of Oregon. The cattle are remarkably fat and the beef tender and delicate, rarely surpassed by any well-fed stock. There are many sunny hillsides which would produce good crops with thrifty cultivation. Oats and barley often sprout in the ear, and if fall sown would thrive like the native grasses. Grass is cut in August on the island of Kodiak when it is two to three feet high, and cures well and rapidly. Stacks examined by Professor Davidson he found as sweet and in as fine condition as any he had ever seen on the Atlantic coast. Western
men corroborate the report of Dr. Kellogg, the botanist, in saying that it is a fine grazing country, capable of sustaining a large number of cattle. The condition of the cattle seen at Saint Paul and on Spruce island, at the freedmen's settlement was fine, and the flavor of the beef good.

The enormous amount of rainfall along a seaboard essentially cloudy throughout the year has its normal effect upon the class of vegetation that will succeed in ripening under such conditions of climate. The whole extent of country subject to these rains is covered with sphagnum from one to two feet in depth, and even on the steepest hillside this carpet is saturated with water and renders progress through it very slow and difficult, especially when there is a heavy growth of wood and underbrush. At Fort Simpson, the Stekine, Chilkat, Kodiak, Unalaska, and the islands westward, this moss exists to the summits or snow line of the mountains.

It is used, according to the statement of the officers of the telegraph expedition, on the Atlantic islands and on the Asiatic coast for fuel, and in some places as food for cattle. The extent to which it may be made useful cannot now be determined. It has been already stated that where it has been removed the ground thaws to the depth of three feet.

Cranberries grow wild about Sitka. They might easily be cultivated, and would form a valuable addition to the California market. Grass would grow as well at Sitka as at Kodiak if the land were cleared. Potatoes yield from four to seven fold, and attain a weight from three to four pounds. Peas grow at Unalaska, and as far north as Norton sound, latitude 64°. The fields are brilliant with many-colored flowers throughout the whole country, and the potato is cultivated in every village in the country. Plants are found in the sub-Arctic regions which belong to more temperate climes. Poisonous plants are few in number and not virulent. No reptiles, toads, lizards, nor any similar animal, were found by the coast survey explorations, nor are they found in the Arctic or sub-Arctic regions.

A correspondent of the Boston Journal, November 18, 1867, says the soil of Kodiak is black and fertile; one-third covered with forest trees, the rest with fine grass, closely resembling red-top grass of the United States. Travelling inland, he camped at night on a hillside, such as may be found anywhere in Maine. The whole country closely resembles the western and central part of that State. A valley to the southwest looks like the Saco near Fryeburg. The ground was dry, the air aromatic from the spruce and fir trees, the nights cool and calm. The reporter and his companions slept in a single blanket without the slightest annoyance from insects, and with perfect comfort. Kodiak has pasture lands for 10,000 cattle. The summers are cooler than New England, and the winters warmer than in Pennsylvania. The natives do not use beef, and there has been no inducement to raise cattle. Ounalaska, he says, has no timber, but is covered with grass, and abounds in lignite and coal. The land, when level, closely resembles that of Nahant, and in September the temperature is the same. Cattle can be raised on any of those islands as well as in New England. The same writer speaks of the country adjacent to Cook's inlet as the garden of Alaska. Its climate in summer is the counterpart of northern Maine and New Hampshire. Rye, barley, and oats mature. The abundance of crab apples indicate that the apple could be cultivated where shielded by mountains from the Arctic winds. The rose, poppy, marigold, aster, and hollyhock are seen in perfection in the garden of the superintendent, at Fort St. Nicholas.

The correspondent of the Alta Californian, 2d November, 1867, says, upon the reliable authority of Mr. La Borne, that in 1865 he saw fair-sized and fully-ripened kernels of rye and barley raised that season at Redoubt St. Nicholas, and he is positive that with assurance of a fair recompense, rye, barley, and oats can be raised in quite a large section of country on the coast. "All authorities
which I have been able to consult," says this correspondent, "are positive that in the vicinity of Cook's inlet there is an area of 10,000 to 15,000 square miles that will mature the above-named grains." Grass grows spontaneously in quite a large extent of country. There are few white people in all this country, and the natives have had no inducement to engage in grain raising. In Europe grain is raised further north, with a summer temperature several degrees lower than at Cook's inlet.

The wild mountain sheep are fleet animals, living in great numbers upon the mountains. The natives carve household and other utensils from the horns, the only part of these sheep of which use is now made.

The Hon. Joseph F. Wilson, Commissioner of the General Land Office, says in a letter received the 16th May, 1868, that Mr. Loring Blodgett, in a communication to that office, "estimates the quantity of land in Alaska that can be disposed of to actual settlers under the land system of the United States at 20,000 square miles, being 12,800,000 square acres, or a larger agricultural area than was supposed to exist in California prior to the admission of that State into the Union. The most reliable estimate of agricultural land in California at present is about 89,000,009 acres. How much a more perfect knowledge of Alaska may enlarge Mr. Blodgett's estimate it is now impossible to say."

WOOD AND TIMBER.

The Sitka spruce, called by lumber dealers white pine, and the western hemlock spruce is found in abundance at Sitka and on the islands and coasts northward. Its growth is much larger and it is more durable than the Canadian spruce. It grows from tide-water to the mountain tops. The bark is excellent for tanning. The best timber tree is the yellow cedar. Dr. Kellogg saw at Sitka sleepers of yellow cedar perfectly sound after 21 years' exposure in the ground. This wood is unsurpassed for lightness, toughness, durability, and ease in working, or for service in boat-building. It does not water-soak, and is not subject to the attack of tereds. This wood was formerly exported to China and Japan, and afterwards brought to this country in the curious manufactures of the Chinese. It is used by the Indians for their choicest canoes. The miners on the Stekine river report the timber of the interior to be superior to that of the coast. An attempt has been made to transplant trees from Kodiak to the Aleutian islands, which are entirely without timber. It was only partially successful and was not repeated. It illustrates the retarding effect which the more profitable fur trade has had upon the colony. The same care that has been given to transplanting trees on the sea-coast in New England would undoubtedly give, in good time, a luxuriant growth of timber to the Aleutian islands. Hard woods, ash, apple, &c., such as is used for carriages, tools, &c., have not yet been found, but the yellow cedar is a good substitute.

On the eastern coast of America no forests are found above the mouth of Egg river, latitude 60°. On the western side they are found in latitude 66° 44', nearly 7° nearer the north pole. The upper peninsula is well timbered within a hundred miles of the coast on the Yukon and nearer on smaller rivers.

The Sitka spruce grows to great size and covers every foot of ground, climbing the steepest mountain sides to the height of 2,000 or 2,500 feet above the sea. The officers of the Coast Survey measured felled trees of this spruce that were 180 feet long and four feet thick at the butt, while adjacent standing trees measured over six feet in diameter, and were branchless for over 50 feet. Hemlock, alders, and willows are found, but the most valuable wood of the country is the yellow cedar, with a fine, even texture, fragrant smell, good size, and greater strength than the spruce. "I first called public attention to the Port Orford white cedar in 1851, and, while admitting its many good qualities, have no hesitation in saying that the yellow cedar of Alaska is a much superior wood.

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It is readily worked, takes a smooth surface, and is remarkably durable. It will make a valuable addition to the cabinet woods of the California market, is superior as a ship timber to any on the coast, and, from our short examination, we are satisfied that it may be obtained of ample size for frames and knees of ordinary-sized vessels. At Skalitch anchorage one was measured 18 feet in circumference and estimated over 125 feet in height. A small vessel constructed of this wood over 32 years ago has been a wreck upon the beach for several years and exhibits not the least sign of decay or teredo attacks; the wood around the copper and iron bolts is nearly as well preserved as on the day they were driven. The hulls of all the trading and fishing vessels on this new coast may be constructed of this durable wood upon any of the innumerable bays of the Alexander archipelago." (Prof. Baird.)

While the vast forests of wood exist upon the waters of Puget sound, Admiralty inlet, and the straits of Fuca, it may be commercially unprofitable to cut and ship even this yellow cedar to the California market unless native labor can be obtained at low rates to get it out; yet, even if unavailable at the present time, it affords an inexhaustible resource in future, and will prove of the greatest importance as the supplies decrease to the southward.

This timber is found from the southern boundary of Alaska to the furthest point northward in Chatham strait.

The spruce, yellow cedar, hemlock, &c., cover the coast as far north as Sterya bay.

On Prince William sound, notwithstanding the severity of the winters, vegetation is reported to spring up with great rapidity, and berries of every variety in great abundance flourish where the low shores are not densely covered with spruce, alder, and birch.

The same remarks apply to Cook's inlet, with its warmer summer and more vigorous vegetation. Its shores are covered with timber.

Similar products continue to Alaska peninsula and the northern part of the island of Kodiak, although on this island we found the trees smaller and shorter, and growing only in the valleys or low grounds, and in comparatively small areas along the northern coast lines.

The yellow cedar is abundant on all the eastern islands. It furnishes the best material for ship-building, for ceiling, doors and furniture; is harder, finer, and takes a better polish than redwood. Doors of the public buildings made of cedar are equal to the best mahogany. The dry alder, which is abundant, is the best wood for drying and smoking salmon. The hemlock spruce bark contains the ingredients essential to the process of tanning leather, and is met with in large quantities.

COAL, MINERALS, MARBLES, ETC.

The geologists of the Coast Survey expedition found undoubted evidences of coal of a very superior quality, if not anthracite, at Port Lincoln, 15 miles above Sitka. There is said to be an unworked vein of coal seven feet thick, and similar veins are reported to exist at the entrance to Tchugatchnik bay; and similar veins crop out upon the shore of Cook's inlet for 20 miles north towards Anchor Point. Two positions on Chatham strait are reported to furnish coal.

Specimens of pure copper have been found in various localities, principally on Copper river; large cubic masses are found, and the natives hammer out from such blocks copper plates 26 by 15 inches in size. Silver is represented to exist in several places. Specimens of quartz with sulphates of iron and lead were found at St. Paul, and analyzed at San Francisco; it was found to contain 4.15 per 2,000 pounds, with traces of gold. An assay of gold ore from other parts of Alaska, made at California, January 16, 1868, was reported to the Secretary of State, by W. T. Ballou, to yield $13,000 per ton. Miners make from $2 to $7 per day at the gold diggings on the Stekine river, but they
can work only six months in the year. Gold is reported to exist on the Kak­
may river, at Cook's inlet, latitude 60°, and at St. Nicholas. Very fine marble
was found 15 miles from Sitka in exhaustless quantities, and at the mouth of
the Chilcat river. Bismuth of a remarkably fine quality is reported by the
Russians to be found on the flanks of the Verstova mountains, and iron ore in
the vicinity of Sitka. No sufficient opportunity has been given the agents of
the United States to verify the truth or falsehood of these reports, but there is
scarcely a doubt that they will prove well founded.

The correspondent of the Alta Californian copied the following entry from the
journal of Kentzee, kept while in the employ of the Russian American Company,
in 1855:

Left Sitka in command of bark Cyane in April, 1855, and reached Cook's inlet with men
to open a coal mine at English bay. The coal was found cropping out of the ground at an
angle of 45 degrees. We landed the machinery at a place 90 miles north, called Kotch­
mimie; found coal veins from six to eight feet wide, which extended from low water mark to
the top of the hills. I consider the mines inexhaustible. The coal obtained here was used
on board the vessel all summer, and proved to be a good article.

There would seem to be no reason why the mineral wealth of this coast should
be less than that of Japan, of which the late British consul says, that in one
place coal forms the sea cliff, and that in another he walked four miles upon an
iron sand having 60 per centum of metal.

At Ikagnuk, a trading port about 200 miles below Nulato, Zagoyskin says
the soil changes from sand to clay. He saw pure, clear earth of different bright
colors, red, yellow, straw color, and white, with all their various shades. These,
he thought, contained lead. The soil on the lower Yukon, at the divergence of
its channels to the sea, contained a layer of organic matter from the forest about
three feet deep. Below was wet clay.

Professor Davidson says that magnetic iron ore is reported to exist on Par­
tishiskof island, where the compass is said to have been so far affected as to
reverse the needle. The hurried surveys made by Mr. Blake for the discovery
of the ore were unsuccessful.

Green streaked marble is found near Sitka in unlimited quantities. Captain
Demidoff informed the correspondent of the New York Herald that it would
prove one of the most valuable products of the Territory if properly quarried.
Finland has some very valuable quarries of the same marble of superior quality.
The same officer expressed the opinion that in the interior of Alaska would be
found the richest auriferous sands in the world. The scarcity of provisions has
prevented the development of these resources on the Stekine and elsewhere,
which will be thoroughly explored during the present year by the pioneers and
miners of California and Nevada.

Lieutenant Pease found a copper-bearing rock in Behring sea. On the
voyage down the Yukon the natives pointed out, two days' sail below Nulatoto,
a hill where coal was worked by the natives for their own use. Zagoyskin
found indications of lead on the lower Yukon.

The gold fields of British Columbia are on the borders of Alaska, and extend
largely in that Territory. Geographical lines are not geological lines.

The La Crosse (Michigan) Republican, February 26, 1868, publishes the
following statements, made from personal observations by an "exploring friend,
who came through from Russian America to La Crosse:

Coal.—In Russian America and contiguous territory coal is found in abundance but not
of superior quality, although it might have been that it was surface coal, with fine strata of
earth in it, which causes the difference of appearance between it and the Pennsylvania coal.
Yet it burned freely, throwing out a yellow-blush and red glare. This coal we first saw
used in an Indian lodge, and afterwards discovered three veins of it in various localities.
Since then a United States government party of officers report having found a vein, about
five feet wide, of good coal near the coast.

Iron ore.—Iron is scattered profusely over the sides of the mountains in that country.

Copper.—Pure copper is found in large pieces, of a soft nature. The heads of families
flatten its sides and inscribe thereon, in caricatures, hierocracy or hieroglyphics of their belief;
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likewise, any notable event that may occur, and the genealogy of the family, thus forming the archives of each little body of Indians, which is handed down from ancestors to posterity, and from one generation to another, and is highly prized by the descendants of old families. New families not possessing this memento of past greatness are looked upon in the same light as our "codfish aristocracy."

Silver.-Silver is found in its virgin state in small quantities and small flat pieces. The Indians puncture the same and wear them as ornaments. The miners on Stickeen river have found several pieces in their sluices, and suppose them to have travelled far, owing to their smoothness, there not being any indication of quartz in their neighborhood.

Gold.-Gold is found in nearly every stream prospected, but, with the exception of one or two rivers, not in paying quantities, and what has been found being very fine, requiring quicksilver to work the same. Owing to the great difficulty of procuring provisions, the miners are unable to prospect the interior of the country.

Cinnabar.—I never saw but one piece—it weighed about two pounds; was in the hands of a miner, who got it from an Indian, but could not learn the locality from whence it came, and it was evidently "float." In appearance it resembled that taken from the quicksilver mines of New Almaden, 14 miles from San José, California, although the sulphurites were of a much darker red, leaving one to suppose that it was of a very rich quality.

"A French traveller named Roche, who has carefully studied the mineralogy and geology of Russian America, and who predicted that it would be annexed to Canada, mentions the gold, silver, and diamonds that have been found in that region. Russian America, says he, possesses mineral wealth that far surpasses the value of its furs, fisheries, and forests. The working of these mines would give more life to the country, causing villages and cities to spring up and flourish more prosperously than any in the less hospitable regions of Siberia.

"Comparing the geographical features of the two countries, he believes the American part of the country as rich in minerals as the Asiatic part, and is sure that gold might be found in all the rivers and valleys. Roche wrote thus 15 years ago, and his predictions have already been partly realized. He positively declared that platina, lead, silver, diamonds, and other minerals found in Siberia would be discovered in the mountains of Russian America. In fact, he says, that jet, kaolin, opal, black lead, gypsum, galena, porphyry, iron, carbonates, amber, sulphur, petroleum, variegated marble, iron ore, &c., have been brought to light. Many beds of bituminous coal have been discovered on the coast and in the Aleutian islands. The Russian steamers have long taken coal from the mines of Kodiak, which can furnish it for future commerce for many years yet."

(Revue Contemporaine, January, 1868.)

GAME.

Between the Rocky mountains and Behring's sea is the breeding place of myriads of birds that visit the lower latitudes during a portion of the year. They move up the eastern slope of the mountains from the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, on the western slope from the lower Pacific, feed upon the berries that cover the country, raise their broods of young, and return to the lower latitudes at the end of summer. The snow birds arrive in April—ospreys, gerfalcons, eagle, gull, geese, ducks, and swans, of every variety. White and black geese settle on the Arctic, and others on the rivers and lakes of the interior. Finches, the American robin, (yellow poll,) swallows, and snow birds are found there. The Arctic owl and the white hawk are among the birds that abandon the polar regions in winter for the lakes and rivers of Alaska.

FURS.

The fur-bearing animals, of every variety, inhabit this country from the mouth of Copper river, longitude 145°, to the extremity of the Aleutian islands. Very little is known of the actual value of this trade to the Russian-American Fur Company, as the existence of the company depended upon the secrecy with which its business was conducted. Their profit is a thousand per cent. on the first cost of the skins. The Hudson Bay Company has also had rights of
trade in certain localities, and their traders have done their utmost to increase their supplies. The Land Commissioner of the United States, Hon. Joseph F. Wilson, states that "the Russian Fur Company have annually taken 180,000 seal-skins, worth $3 each and amounting to $540,000, from the islands north of the Aleutian chain." Some of the more valuable furs are worth $50 each.

The fur-bearing animals and the feathered tribes are reported by Major Ken nicott and Lieutenant Pease to be in surprising numbers on the Yukon and its tributaries, and by the Russian explorers on the Kouskavim. The fur seal and sea otter have outlived a war of 80 years upon them, and are now found in undiminished numbers.

FISHERIES.

All the old navigators and fur traders state that every part of the coast abounds in cod, halibut, salmon, and every variety of fish inhabiting comparatively cold waters, and the experience of the telegraphic and coast survey expeditions established the truth of their accounts.

At some of the entrances to shallow fresh-water streams the water is packed with salmon, and the bears come down in numbers to feed upon them, selecting the heads only. On some of the beaches near these streams the seine will take them in thousands.

The great winter food of the natives is dry and smoked salmon, of which they lay in very large supplies.

The most valuable fishery on the coast is the cod. Those persons interested in it refuse to give detailed information of their outfit, catch, profits, or banks where the fish are caught. It is, however, generally understood that the principal fishing grounds are off the Fox islands, while some fish off the island of Kodiak, and a few go as far as the Okhotsk sea, fishing along the western shores of the peninsula of Kamtschatka, where the fish average about 12 pounds each.

In 1866, 23 vessels, comprising barks, brigs, and schooners, started from San Francisco for the various fishing grounds, but concealed their particular destinations. Their time for leaving San Francisco is as early as March, arriving on the grounds in April, and leaving in September.

Captain Howard caught codfish 32 to 37 inches in length and weighing from 30 to 38 pounds each, and halibut, turbot, (place or sole,) and flounders of great size, between Kodiak and Oumak islands. Salmon abound in all the islands and rivers on the main, trout in all the lakes and streams, and the bays and creeks are alive with ducks, geese, curlew, and snipe. The right-whale is found in all these waters. Dr. Kellogg saw at Kodiak hundreds of salmon cured without a particle of salt, by exposure to the weather, before the hut of one of the natives.

The supply from the Alaska banks has stopped the importation of codfish from the eastern ports to San Francisco, and when the curing process is properly understood and carried out the Pacific coasts of America and Asia will become consumers.

The fish have not been cured on the Aleutian islands because the territory belonged to Russia, but were kept in salt as long as six months, or until the return of the vessel to San Francisco, evidently to the injury of the cargo. Many of the persons engaging in the business knew nothing of the manner of catching or of curing the fish, yet the prices commanded were from 13 to seven and a half cents (gold) per pound; and last February the average rate was nine and a half cents. One vessel carried her full cargo direct to Australia, and received eight cents per pound.

The large amount of fish consumed in California, where the population is largely Catholic, has always created and sustained a large demand, and the new cargoes are quickly disposed of at rates ranging as high as 13 cents per
The southern coasts of America are almost wholly Catholic in their population, and so soon as the fish are well cured, the demand from that source will increase.

The Nantucket sailors say that the Alaska codfish are so much like those of Newfoundland that they cannot be distinguished from each other. The market for dried fish will be more profitable than mining. The season for drying is from April to the middle of October. The Alta Californian says that the facts are so incredible, as to the extent of the fishery, that the truth would be regarded as a hoax. "At the dam of the artificial ice-pond, at the head of Ratatzky lake, 2,000 barrels of salmon are taken at each spring 'run,' although the stream is a shallow one." Salmon weigh from 30 to 50 pounds; halibut 350 pounds. There is no part of the world where halibut are so abundant. They are caught at all seasons. Catching and curing halibut will soon become a regular business in eastern Alaska. The candle fish appears annually about the first week of May. Mr. Ainslee, the pilot of the John L. Stephens, a reliable man, says the Alta Californian, states "that some days it is difficult to row a boat across the mouth of Naas river on account of the dense mass of these fish. An adverse tide or a heavy wind lodges tons of them on the shore." The Indians know of their arrival by the flight of birds northward, and hasten from all the adjacent region to share in the catch. This fish is six to eight inches long, resembles a smelt, and of all fish is the most fat. The Indians store great quantities of them, and, if well cared for, they remain sweet for months. When dried the Indians burn them in the place of candles. They give a clear, brilliant light, and are not easily blown out by the wind. Each fish burns about 15 minutes. The men who took natives for guides counted five fish to a mile of travel. There are other statements of this writer that are omitted because they seem incredible. Professor Baird, of the Smithsonian Institution, in his report, gives equally remarkable and without doubt, strange as they seem, perfectly reliable reports of the multitudes of these fish. Lieutenant Zagoyskin speaks of the candle fish as a small, greasy lamprey, found in great numbers, and remaining about two weeks. To the dwellers on the Yukon this fish is what the white bait is to the citizens of London or the first shad to those of New York. The natives flock in great numbers to catch these fish.

The rivers of the upper peninsula are filled with large salmon, white fish, sturgeon, pike, and monster trout.

In relation to the importance of the fisheries Mr. Wilson, the Commissioner of Public Lands, cites the statement made by John Keas Lord, F. Z. S., naturalist to the British North American Boundary Commission, as to the value of the salmon fishery of the Columbia, which is graphically described:

In June the grand piscatorial invasion begins. The countless masses of salmon rush up the main stream, send detachments into all the branches, stem its rapids and cascades, and finally perish by millions from rapid overcrowding. The naturalist in attempting to ford a stream thus packed with salmon was nearly thrown from his horse, frightened by the mass of animal life. On pointing out these statements of Mr. Lord to Mr. E. Hunter Scoville, who had charge of the surveying parties of the Russian Telegraph Company, Mr. Wilson says that gentleman confirmed the statement in every particular, and represented from actual observation that this phenomena became still more marked in Alaska. Mr. Scoville adds that the salmon improved in size, quality and richness towards the north.

Captain Bryant, of Massachusetts, an old whaler, says that "Behring sea is a mighty reservoir of cod and halibut." He never threw out his lines without bringing up a fish, in whatever part of the sea he might be.

The walrus ivory is obtained in large quantities from the walrus islands on the north side of the peninsula of Alaska. Ten tons of these tusks have been secured in some seasons by the Indians. They are valued at 70 cents, gold, per pound at Sitka. With more liberal encouragement than that given by the Russian company, this industry will be greatly extended. The Arctic whalers who obtain large quantities of the tusks by capture or by trade, and who also
preserve the oil of the walrus, say that the number of these animals is count­
less.

The soundings of Behring sea and of the Arctic ocean north of Behring
strait indicate it as the most remarkable submarine plateau of such great extent
yet known. On the eastern half of this sea soundings of less than 50 fathoms
are found over an extent of 18,000 square miles.

South of Alaska, at a distance of say 50 miles from shore, there are banks
running parallel to the coast, admirable for cod fishing; fishermen report that
wherever the water is shoal, cod fish are abundant.

The fishing smacks carry their bait from San Francisco at a cost of about one
hundred dollars in gold for a one hundred ton vessel; but there are plenty of
small fish, herring, clams, &c., suitable for bait in all the harbors along the
coast.

The importance of the possession of these islands can hardly be overestimated;
not only can our fishermen enter and fish in every bay when heavy weather
compels them to leave the banks, but they give ample opportunities for the suc­
cessful curing of the fish, certainly as great, if not greater, than exist on the
south shore of Newfoundland. Instead of making the long trip to and from
San Francisco, and of keeping the fish so long in salt, especially if imperfectly
cleaned, it appears feasible to make a general depot and curing establishment,
as at Kodiak, whence vessels could carry the catch of all the smacks, which
might readily refit in winter and be ready for the opening of the next season.

Kodiak is mentioned as affording the nearest available timber for repairs, and
is already a depot for the ice crop of the Pacific.

The governor of the Russian colonies acknowledged to Professor Davidson
that the Russian government had not been aware of the extent, value, and impor­
tance of the cod grounds as a new industry in the Pacific. While its commer­
cial value is so great to us, it will prove of great service to the Aleutians, who
are patient, skilful, and fearless in their fishing. They may be very profitably
employed in the taking and curing of fish.

The herring, besides its own intrinsic value, has an important bearing on the
question of the cod fisheries in supplying bait, which is now carried from San
Francisco for that purpose at large prices.

The waters surrounding the Territory of Alaska have always been celebrated
for their whale fisheries, and the Russian American Company formerly paid some
attention to this branch of industry and profit, and had surveys made in Cook’s
inlet for ascertaining the proper anchorages and harbors for their whalers in
winter. They even established a ship-building establishment in one of the bays
between Prince William sound and Cook’s inlet. But as whaling was not so
remunerative as the fur trade, they gave their attention to the lighter, safer, and
more profitable pursuit. The whale is found at different seasons everywhere in
these waters. The whalers prefer the Arctic region to the gulf of Alaska, as
the water is more shallow and they detect more readily the movements of the
whales. The whaling fleet for six years has numbered 80 vessels, 70 of
which belonged to the United States. Their average catch is about 1,200
barrels each, and about 20,000 pounds of whalebone. They are chiefly from
Massachusetts, and have followed the whale from the Atlantic to the Pacific
ocean. They are fitted out for a cruise of five years, and sail 19,831 miles before
they reach their ground.

The command of all the bays and straits of the northwest coast, resorted to
by the whale, will give very great advantages to our whalers, that need only
be mentioned to be appreciated: fishing at all seasons, opportunities to winter
and refit, depots for cargoes, and regularity in transhipping them to the east or
to the Pacific ports.

In 1857, of 600 or 700 American whalers, of all descriptions, at least one-half,
embracing nearly all of the larger craft, were employed in the seas of the north

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Pacific. This branch of our national industry was destroyed during the late civil war. It will now revive and greatly increase, and the extension of our jurisdiction over the seas where it is employed is of the greatest national importance. The Russians have never allowed any foreign vessels to land and cure fish on the coast. (Alta Californian, November 2.)

Mr. Van Buren informed Congress by message, 4th December, 1838, that the right to fish and trade on the northwest coast had been refused to the United States by Russia, because the only use made by our citizens of the privilege was to supply the Indians with spirituous liquors, ammunition, and fire-arms.

This deprived American fishermen of the advantages which had been acquired during half a century's negotiation with Russia. Former restrictions were more onerous than those now existing, but they show the importance of the possession of this country to the United States, as they might hereafter be renewed. It appears that formerly foreign vessels, American or European, were forbidden to approach within one hundred miles of the coast, except in cases of distress. This was upon the theory that owning both coasts of the sea, it was a mare clausam, the special possession of Russia. (Am. State Papers, vol. 4, p. 856, Foreign Relations.)

CONCLUSION.

These statements upon the character of the territory acquired by the treaty are the results of personal observations made by perfectly reliable public officers and private citizens since the date of the purchase, representing different interests and different parts of the country, moving in different directions and by different courses through the territory by sea and land, and are presented without argument as a just representation of facts already known in support of the treaty. The remarks preceding this part of the report upon the rights of the House in regard to the negotiation of treaties, which were orally presented to the committee, are embodied in the report at the suggestion of members who voted in the affirmative and negative on the final question of reporting the bill herewith presented.

The treaty adds an extended territory to the United States, the political jurisdiction of which will ultimately be indispensable to its peace and power.

It tends largely, directly, strongly, and immediately to the consolidation of the Northern Pacific coast line as an American possession.

It creates an entirely new industrial interest of vast proportions on the Pacific, the results of which cannot now be fully appreciated.

It makes telegraphic communication between the United States and the people of China, Asia, India, and Russia, as simple and as feasible as that between New York and San Francisco.

It concentrates the power of Russia and extends that of this country, which together will soon span the entire globe north, and strengthens the mutual friendship and interests that have marked their career since the period when they together first challenged the attention of Europe as continental powers, and began their work of expansion and progression.

It adds greatly to the productive wealth of the country.

It furnishes indispensable ports for American whalers and fishermen in the Pacific and Arctic oceans.

It furnishes a basis for explorations and discovery in the Arctic region.

It encloses British Columbia within American jurisdiction south, west, and north.

It removes the danger of territorial or maritime jealousies and controversies to which the two countries, that have been and ought to remain friends, are constantly exposed.

It strengthens the military position of the government.
For these and other reasons that might be presented, the committee reports to the House the following bill making an appropriation to carry the treaty into effect, with a recommendation that it be enacted into a law.

N. P. BANKS,
For the committee.

A BILL to enable the President of the United States to fulfil the treaty between the United States and Russia, of March 30, 1867.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives, That there be and hereby is appropriated, from any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, seven million two hundred thousand dollars in coin, to fulfil the stipulations contained in the sixth article of the treaty with Russia, concluded at Washington on the 30th day of March, 1867.

Letter of Lorin Blodgett, esq., illustrating by comparison the winter climates of the eastern and western continents.

PHILADELPHIA, December 10, 1867.

SIR: Believing that great misapprehension exists in many quarters as to the intrinsic value and the capacity for occupation of the northwest coast of this continent, I beg to enclose a table, comparing the observed winter temperatures at a number of points on the east and west coasts of both continents, showing what the relative climate for the severe season of each is. I do not suppose this so essential to afford yourself proper information as to the value of Russian America, as, perhaps, to enable you to make its value clear to others who have not the materials at hand to show what its climate is.

Several years since, when preparing my general work on the climate of the temperate latitudes, I had my attention particularly called to the great misapprehensions existing as to the true climate of our northwestern districts, and I beg to refer you to some remarks then made, at page 532 of the work I published at this city in 1857, ("Climatology of United States," &c.) I have seen no reason to modify those views, and have frequently proposed to revise and publish the statistics since accumulated in regard to the climate of that part of the continent.

Some weeks since, at the application of the Commissioner of the General Land Office, I prepared and sent him very full results of all the observations taken at Sitka by the Russian government; and if those are not already printed, I think they might still be obtained for reference by your committee, if desired. I also sent him an isothermal chart of the north Pacific and adjacent coasts, which may now be engraved; and I have another in course of being engraved at New York.

The general result of these inquiries is to add much to my previous estimate of the value of Russian America. As you will see by reference to the enclosed table, the winters are very mild there fully up to Port Providence, near Behring straits; at Sitka they are as mild as at Philadelphia, nearly—milder than in New York harbor. There is also much less snow falling at Sitka than at New York city; a table showing the quantity, as observed for ten years, is among the papers before referred to, as sent the Interior Department.

I shall be very glad to see a proper estimate of the character and value of that great field for shipping and for commerce attained by the House of Representatives, and doubt not your committee will procure full information.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

LORIN BLODGET.

Hon. N. P. BANKS,
Chairman Com. on Foreign Relations, House of Reps.
Comparison of positions illustrating the winter climate of the two continents (compiled from periods of one to forty years of thermometric observation) by Lorin Blodget, December 10, 1867.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Mean temperature of three winter mos.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>WEST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point Barrow, north coast of continent</td>
<td>71° 20'</td>
<td>-18° 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Yukon, valley of Yukon river</td>
<td>66°</td>
<td>-23° 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sesuailing, Kotzebue sound</td>
<td>67°</td>
<td>-15° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Clarence, southeast of Behring straits</td>
<td>65° 45'</td>
<td>-3° 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Providence, southeast of Behring straits</td>
<td>64° 14'</td>
<td>+18°*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Alexander, Bristol bay</td>
<td>59°</td>
<td>+25° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katmay, Alaska peninsula and Kodiak island</td>
<td>58°</td>
<td>+30° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sitka, Baranov island</td>
<td>57° 3'</td>
<td>+33°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Simpson, coast of British America</td>
<td>54° 30'</td>
<td>34° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen Charlotte's island</td>
<td>53° 38'</td>
<td>36° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort McLaughlin, main land</td>
<td>52°</td>
<td>35° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vancouver's island</td>
<td>49° to 50°</td>
<td>46° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Bellingham, Washington Territory</td>
<td>49° 45'</td>
<td>47°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Steilacoom, Washington Territory</td>
<td>47° 10'</td>
<td>39° 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olympia, Washington Territory</td>
<td>47°</td>
<td>40°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gray's harbor, southwest coast of Washington Territory</td>
<td>46° 40'</td>
<td>42° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Astoria, mouth of Columbia river</td>
<td>46° 11'</td>
<td>42° 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Umpqua, Oregon</td>
<td>43° 42'</td>
<td>46°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Orford, Oregon</td>
<td>42° 44'</td>
<td>47° 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klamath, mouth of Klamath river</td>
<td>41° 49'</td>
<td>47°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humboldt, northwest coast of California</td>
<td>40° 46'</td>
<td>46° 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Ross, (now Bodega,) California</td>
<td>38° 35'</td>
<td>46°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benicia, California</td>
<td>38° 3'</td>
<td>49°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Francisco</td>
<td>37° 48'</td>
<td>50° 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monterey, California</td>
<td>36° 36'</td>
<td>51° 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sacramento, California</td>
<td>36° 33'</td>
<td>45° 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Reading, California</td>
<td>40° 28'</td>
<td>46° 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Miller, California</td>
<td>37°</td>
<td>49° 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalles of Columbia, Oregon</td>
<td>45° 36'</td>
<td>35° 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lapwai, Koosookskia, Oregon</td>
<td>46° 27'</td>
<td>38° 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Okanogan, Washington Territory</td>
<td>46° 15'</td>
<td>30° (?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Benton, upper Missouri</td>
<td>47° 50'</td>
<td>25° 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Los Angeles, California</td>
<td>33° 3'</td>
<td>35° 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Diego, California</td>
<td>32° 42'</td>
<td>54° 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Yuma, mouth of Colorado river</td>
<td>32° 43'</td>
<td>56° 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EAST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igloolik, Melville peninsula</td>
<td>69° 20'</td>
<td>-21° 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fort Hope, Repulse bay</td>
<td>62° 50'</td>
<td>-25°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hebron, Labrador</td>
<td>58°</td>
<td>-0° 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nain, Labrador, (same latitude as Sitka)</td>
<td>57° 10'</td>
<td>-0° 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quebec, (11° lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>46° 49'</td>
<td>+13°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portland, Maine, (14° lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>43° 30'</td>
<td>+24° 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston, Massachusetts, (15° lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>42° 20'</td>
<td>+28° 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York city, (16° lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>41° 4'</td>
<td>+31° 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philadelphia, (17° 10' lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>39° 56'</td>
<td>+32° 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baltimore, (15° 45' lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>39° 18'</td>
<td>+32° 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington, D. C., 18° 15' lat. further south than Sitka)</td>
<td>36° 53'</td>
<td>+63° 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. John's, Newfoundland</td>
<td>47° 39'</td>
<td>+23° 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlotte Town, Prince Edward's island</td>
<td>48° 12'</td>
<td>+23° 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halifax, Nova Scotia</td>
<td>44° 29'</td>
<td>24° 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richmond, Virginia</td>
<td>37° 4'</td>
<td>37° 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortress Monroe, Virginia</td>
<td>37°</td>
<td>40° 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williamsburg, Virginia</td>
<td>37° 5'</td>
<td>38° 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These observations were not taken in the same year as at Port Clarence; apparently this was a warm winter and the winter observed at Port Clarence a cold one; the true mean would be between them.
### TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

Comparison of positions, &c.—Continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Mean temperature of three winter months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EAST COAST OF NORTH AMERICA—Continued.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norfolk, Virginia</td>
<td>36° 51'</td>
<td>41°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memphis, Tennessee</td>
<td>35° 8'</td>
<td>42°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raleigh, North Carolina</td>
<td>35° 47'</td>
<td>42°.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapel Hill, North Carolina</td>
<td>35° 54'</td>
<td>42°.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beaufort, North Carolina</td>
<td>34° 41'</td>
<td>45°.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilmington, North Carolina</td>
<td>34° 11'</td>
<td>47°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camden, South Carolina</td>
<td>34° 17'</td>
<td>49°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athens, Georgia</td>
<td>35° 55'</td>
<td>47°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augusta, Georgia</td>
<td>35° 28'</td>
<td>48°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smithville, coast of North Carolina</td>
<td>33° 30'</td>
<td>51°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgetown, South Carolina</td>
<td>32° 45'</td>
<td>51°.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charleston, South Carolina</td>
<td>32° 25'</td>
<td>53°.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Antonio, Texas</td>
<td>29° 25'</td>
<td>53°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leavenworth, Kansas</td>
<td>39° 21'</td>
<td>29°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Louis, Missouri</td>
<td>38° 40'</td>
<td>32°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pittsburg, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>40° 32'</td>
<td>30°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicago, Illinois</td>
<td>41° 52'</td>
<td>25°.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savannah, Georgia</td>
<td>32° 51'</td>
<td>50°.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile, Alabama</td>
<td>36° 42'</td>
<td>57°.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Orleans, Louisiana</td>
<td>29° 57'</td>
<td>50°.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacksonville, Florida</td>
<td>30° 15'</td>
<td>55°.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key West, Florida</td>
<td>24° 32'</td>
<td>69°.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **WEST COAST OF EUROPE.** |          |                                        |
| Havøe, Norway               | 71°      | +22°                                     |
| Hammerfest, Norway           | 70° 40'  | +23°.6                                   |
| Reykjavik, Iceland           | 64° 8'   | +29°.2                                   |
| Bergen, Norway               | 60° 24'  | +36°.3                                   |
| St. Petersburg, Russia       | 59° 56'  | +19°                                     |
| Christianshavn, Norway       | 59° 55'  | +29°.8                                   |
| Copenhagen, Denmark          | 55° 41'  | +37°.3                                   |
| Berlin, Prussia              | 59° 45'  | +31°.4                                   |
| Bremen, Germany              | 53° 4'   | +32°.9                                   |
| Munich, Bavaria              | 48° 8'   | +32°.5                                   |
| Mannheim, Rhine              | 40° 29'  | +33°.6                                   |
| Odessa, south Russia         | 46° 29'  | +27°.4                                   |
| Vienna, Austria              | 48° 13'  | +31°.9                                   |
| Lancaster, England           | 54° 3'   | +36°.6                                   |
| York, England                | 53° 37'  | 36°                                      |
| Edinburgh, Scotland          | 56° 5'   | 36°.7                                    |
| London, England              | 51° 29'  | 33°.2                                    |
| Glasgow, Scotland            | 56° 51'  | 33°.9                                    |
| Liverpool, England           | 53° 25'  | 40°.5                                    |
| Gosport, south of England    | 50° 47'  | 41°                                      |
| Constantinople, Turkey       | 41° 7'   | 41°.8                                    |
| Bordeaux, France             | 44° 50'  | 43°.1                                    |
| Cork, Ireland                | 55°      | 44°.3                                    |
| Plymouth, England            | 50° 29'  | 44°.8                                    |
| Naples, Italy                | 40° 52'  | 47°.6                                    |
| Genoa, Italy                 | 44° 25'  | 47°.3                                    |
| Barcelona, Spain             | 41° 22'  | 49°.5                                    |
| Lisbon, Portugal             | 36° 43'  | 50°                                      |
| Marseilles, France           | 43° 17'  | 49°                                      |
| Palermo, Sicily              | 38° 7'   | 52°.6                                    |
| Cadiz, Spain                 | 36° 32'  | 52°.9                                    |
| Algiers, north Africa        | 36° 47'  | 54°.3                                    |
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

Comparison of positions, &c.—Continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Mean temperature of three winter months</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WEST COAST OF EUROPE—Continued.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Michael, Azores</td>
<td>37° 50'</td>
<td>57° 3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funchal, Madeira</td>
<td>36° 38'</td>
<td>60° 8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Santa Cruz, Teneriffe</td>
<td>28° 27'</td>
<td>64° 6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAST COAST OF ASIA.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nije Kalymsk, mouth of Kalymsk river</td>
<td>63° 32'</td>
<td>-26° 5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chan's peninsula, west of Behring straits</td>
<td>66° 38'</td>
<td>-7° 4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anadir, bay and mouth of river</td>
<td>64° 30'</td>
<td>-0° 5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jakoutsk, east Siberia</td>
<td>62° 2'</td>
<td>-37° 9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okhotsk, east Siberia</td>
<td>59° 21'</td>
<td>-8° 2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ostrog, southeast Siberia</td>
<td>54° 30'</td>
<td>-18° 2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neitchinsk, Siberia</td>
<td>51° 18'</td>
<td>-15° 9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajan, sea of Okhotsk</td>
<td>56° 27'</td>
<td>-1° 5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milkowo, Kamtchatka</td>
<td>54° 45'</td>
<td>+20° (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petropaulowski, Kamtchatka</td>
<td>53°</td>
<td>+25° (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saghalien island</td>
<td>49° to 53°</td>
<td>+20° to 25°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pekin, China, (latitude of Philadelphia)</td>
<td>39° 54'</td>
<td>+20°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khacodata, (Hakodadi?) Japan</td>
<td>41° 48'</td>
<td>-29° 5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jessö island and Hakodadi</td>
<td>43°</td>
<td>30° to 31° (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeddo, Japan</td>
<td>35° 40'</td>
<td>43° (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagasaki, Japan</td>
<td>32° 45'</td>
<td>44° 9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shanghai, China</td>
<td>31° 5'</td>
<td>44° 2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canton, China</td>
<td>23° 8'</td>
<td>54° 9.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The signs + and — are given to show when the averages are above and below zero.

TREATIES BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND RUSSIA.

Convention concluded 5—17 April, 1824, at St. Petersburg.

Article I. Navigation and fisheries of the Pacific to be free to both parties.

Art. II. Illicit trade to be prevented.

Art. III. No establishment to be formed by citizens of the United States north of 54° 40', or by Russians south of the same latitude.

Art. IV. Interior seas to be free to both nations for 10 years.

Art. V. Certain articles always to be excepted from this commerce.

Art. VI. Ratification to be exchanged at Washington within 18 months.

Treaty of navigation and commerce concluded at St. Petersburg, 6—18 December, 1832.

Article I. Liberty of commerce and navigation, and protection of laws.

Art. II. Duties of tonnage reciprocally on the footing of national vessels; other duties and charges on the footing of the most favored nation.

Art. III. Duties on merchandise same in American vessels as in Russian vessels.

Art. IV. The same rule to obtain whether arriving from their own or from foreign ports.

Art. V. Merchandise which may be exported in national vessels may be so in those of the other party.

Art. VI. No higher duties shall be imposed than on the same articles from other countries; all prohibitions shall be general.

Art. VII. Coasting trade excepted.
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

ART. VIII. Consuls, &c.: their privileges. Consuls, &c., to judge and arbitrate in certain cases.

ART. IX. Consuls may require the assistance of local authorities to arrest deserters. Deserters must be sent back within four months.

ART. X. Succession to personal estate, and disposal thereof.

ART. XI. Favors granted to either nation shall become common.

ART. XII. Treaty to extend to Poland, and to continue in force until January 1, 1839.

ART. XIII. Treaty to be ratified, and ratification exchanged within 12 months.

Separate articles concluded at St. Petersburg, 6-18 December, 1832.

Certain special between Russia, Prussia, and Sweden and Norway, not to be affected by this treaty.

Convention concluded 22d July, 1854.

ARTICLE I. Free ships to make free goods; neutral property in enemies' vessels protected unless contraband. These principles to be applied to other states which shall assent to them.

ART. II. An ulterior understanding as to details to be come to if necessary.

ART. III. Other nations may accede to this treaty.

ART. IV. Ratification.

Treaty concluded March 30, 1867.

ARTICLE I. Cession of territory by Russia to the United States; boundaries.

ART. II. Cession of territory and dominion includes private property, churches, government archives; copies will be furnished.

ART. III. Rights of inhabitants of ceded territory. Those civilized shall become citizens the United States; uncivilized, subject to the laws of the United States.

ART. IV. Agents for formally delivering and receiving the ceded territory. Cession to be absolute on exchange of ratifications.

ART. V. Fortifications or military posts to be delivered to agent of the United States, and Russian troops withdrawn.

ART. VI. Payment therefor; territory ceded declared to be unencumbered by reservations, privileges, franchises, &c.; cession conveys all rights, franchises, and privileges belonging to Russia.

ART. VII. Ratification to be exchanged within three months.

Ratifications exchanged June 20, 1867.

TREATIES BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND RUSSIA IN REFERENCE TO "RUSSIAN AMERICA," 1825, 1859.

[Translation.]

RUSSIA.

Convention between Great Britain and Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, February 28, (16,) 1825.

In the name of the most holy and undivided Trinity: His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russians, being desirous of drawing still closer the ties of good understanding and friendship which unite them, by means of an agreement which may settle, upon the basis of reciprocal convenience, different points connected with the commerce, navigation, and fisheries of their subjects on the Pacific ocean, as well as the limits of their respective possessions on the northwest coast of America, have named plenipotentiaries to conclude a convention for this purpose, that is to say: His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honorable Stratford Canning, a member of his said Majesty's most honorable Privy Council, &c., and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russians, the Sieur Charles Robert Count de Nesselrode, his imperial Majesty's Privy Councillor, a member of the Council of the Empire, Secretary of State for the Department of Foreign Affairs, &c., and the Sieur Pierre de Poletica, his imperial Majesty's Councillor of State, &c., who, after having com-
municatcd to each other their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed upon and signed the following articles:

Art. I. It is agreed that the respective subjects of the high contracting parties shall not be troubled or molested in any part of the ocean commonly called the Pacific ocean, either in navigating the same, in fishing therein, or in landing at such parts of the coast as shall not have been already occupied, in order to trade with the natives, under the restrictions and conditions specified in the following articles.

II. In order to prevent the right of navigating and fishing, exercised upon the ocean by the subjects of the high contracting parties, from becoming the pretext for an illicit commerce, it is agreed that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not land at any place where there may be a Russian establishment without the permission of the governor or commandant; and, on the other hand, that Russian subjects shall not land, without permission, at any British establishment on the northwest coast.

III. The line of demarcation between the possessions of the high contracting parties upon the coast of the continent and the islands of America to the northwest shall be drawn in the manner following:

Commencing from the southernmost point of the island called Prince of Wales island, which point lies in the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and between the 131st and 133d degree of west longitude, (meridian of Greenwich,) the said line shall ascend to the north along the channel called Portland channel as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of north latitude; from this last-mentioned point, the line of demarcation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast as far as the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude (of the same meridian;) and, finally, from the said point of intersection, the said meridian line of the 141st degree, in its prolongation as far as the Frozen ocean, shall form the limit between the Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the northwest.

IV. With reference to the line of demarcation laid down in the preceding article, it is understood, first, that the island called Prince of Wales island shall belong wholly to Russia; second, that whenever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the coast, from the 56th degree of north latitude to the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude, shall prove to be at the distance of more than 10 marine leagues from the ocean, the limit between the British possessions and the line of coast which is to belong to Russia, as above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of 10 marine leagues therefrom.

V. It is moreover agreed, that no establishment shall be formed by either of the two parties within the limits assigned by the two preceding articles to the possessions of the other; consequently, British subjects shall not form any establishment either upon the coast or upon the border of the continent comprised within the limits of the Russian possessions, as designated in the two preceding articles; and, in like manner, no establishment shall be formed by Russian subjects beyond the said limits.

VI. It is understood that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, from whatever quarter they may arrive, whether from the ocean, or from the interior of the continent, shall forever enjoy the right of navigating freely, and without any hindrance whatever, all the rivers and streams which, in their course towards the Pacific ocean, may cross the line of demarcation upon the line of coast described in article three of the present convention.

VII. It is also understood that for the space of 10 years from the signature of the present convention, the vessels of the two powers, or those belonging to their respective subjects, shall mutually be at liberty to frequent, without any
hindrance whatever, all the inland seas, the gulf's, havens, and creeks on the coast mentioned in article three, for the purposes of fishing and of trading with the natives.

VIII. The port of Sitka, or Novo Archangelsk, shall be open to the commerce and vessels of British subjects for the space of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present convention. In the event of an extension of this term of ten years being granted to any other power, the like extension shall be granted also to Great Britain.

IX. The above mentioned liberty of commerce shall not apply to the trade in spirituous liquors, in fire-arms, or other arms, gunpowder or other warlike stores; the high contracting parties reciprocally engaging not to permit the above-mentioned articles to be sold or delivered, in any manner whatever, to the natives of the country.

X. Every British or Russian vessel navigating the Pacific ocean, which may be compelled by storms or by accident to take shelter in the ports of the respective parties, shall be at liberty to refit therein, to provide itself with all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any other than port and light-house dues, which shall be the same as those paid by national vessels. In case, however, the master of such vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray his expenses, he shall conform himself to the regulations and tariffs of the place where he may have landed.

XI. In every case of complaint on account of an infraction of the articles of the present convention the civil and military authorities of the high contracting parties, without previously acting or taking any forcible measure, shall make an exact and circumstantial report of the matter to their respective courts, who engage to settle the same in a friendly manner and according to the principles of justice.

XII. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within the space of six weeks, or sooner if possible. In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done at St. Petersburg the 28th (16th) day of February, in the year of our Lord 1825.

STRATFORD CANNING. [L. S.]
COMTE DE NESSELRODE. [L. S.]
PIERRE DE POLETICA. [L. S.]

Treaty of commerce and navigation between Great Britain and Russia, signed at St. Petersburg, January 12, 1859.

XIX. * * * In regard to commerce and navigation in the Russian possessions on the northwest coast of America, the convention concluded at St. Petersburg on the 16th (28th) of February, 1825, shall continue in force.

XXII. The present treaty of commerce and navigation shall remain in force for 10 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications; and further, until the expiration of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the expiration of the first nine years, or at any time afterwards.

PRINCE A. GORTCHACOW. [L. S.]
JOHN F. CRAMPTON. [L. S.]
The following notes of the climate of Sitka, from the correspondent of the Alta Californian, have been furnished to the committee by M. M. Noah, esq.:

November 14, 1867.—Rained the whole day. A meeting of the citizens in the evening. A full attendance, and much interest and good feeling manifested. The city charter presented by the committee was unanimously accepted. Nominations were made for mayor, city council, and other city officers.

November 15.—Breakfast at half-past 8 o'clock by candle-light. The Indians gave us a fair market this morning: a deer could be bought for $10, or two bottles of whiskey.

November 16.—A mild but rainy day. Mercury stands at 50° this morning.

November 17.—We had church and a full congregation, notwithstanding the rain. A momentary glimmer of sunshine this afternoon.

November 18.—Rather a brighter day. An hour's sunshine. Thermometer 40° to-night.

November 19.—A bright, pleasant day, and quite an interesting one, being attended with a flag presentation to the old Indian chief, whose birthday it is; he being, as nearly as he can reckon, 90 years of age, though he does not look it. The old fellow has long been desirous of exchanging the Russian flag, which floats over his cabin, for the stars and stripes. Thermometer to-night 34°.

November 20.—Heavy frost and some snow this morning. Thermometer 33°. A bright, beautiful day.

November 21.—Beautiful day, though cold.

November 22.—Continued fine weather.

November 23.—Another bright day.

November 24.—A day of perfect loveliness. This fine weather brings every lady out for a walk.

November 25.—A little rain to-day, and the weather dull. Election day, and quite an interest manifested.

November 26.—Cold, rainy and disagreeable.

November 27.—Continued rain.

November 28.—Church in the morning. A very pleasant little party at the Princess's house in the evening. Fifteen ladies on the occasion. Rainy, but more mild.

November 29.—Continued rain.

November 30.—Bright and beautiful. We are all getting on through the winter very well, but we miss the mails and the daily news of the world.

December 1.—Rainy. Church in the afternoon.

December 2.—Dark and rainy, but mild. Thermometer 42°.

December 3.—Rainy and mild. The Indians quite excited at a new order from General Davis, inviting sales of game by the Indians to the market place, and forbidding sales for liquor to any one. Thermometer 42°.

December 4.—A pleasant day; mild and bright.

December 5.—A beautiful day; clear, bright and cold; thermometer 26°.

December 6.—Some snow; no sunshine, but an agreeable day; thermometer 34°.

December 7.—Rain all day.

December 8.—Only a few drops of rain, a little sunshine, and we called it a pleasant day.

December 9.—Rain all day; not cold, and so far we have had a very mild winter—much more agreeable than San Francisco was the same time last year.

December 10.—Rainy and disagreeable. The city limits extend to the river in one direction, and include a portion of the Indian village. The city ordinances are being enforced also. It is a new thing for our Russian American citizens to pay fines and work upon the streets for their little indiscretions.

December 11.—A beautiful, mild, sunny day. Thermometer 58°.

December 12.—A real winter's day, with a snow-storm; an agreeable change from the rain.

December 13.—A beautiful day of sunshine, and in my experience so far, I think this climate has been much abused. Thermometer 28°.

December 14.—Fine weather continues, clear and cold.

December 15.—Thermometer 19°; coldest we have had. Beautiful weather.

December 16.—Cold and bright. Every one skating on the lake back of the town. The Lutheran church is finally turned over for the use of the Protestant congregation here.

December 17.—Still clear and pleasant. The Russian ship Zaretza left to-day with a portion of the Russian garrison for St. Petersburg. We gave them a national salute upon their departure.

December 18.—Delightful weather. The winter has thus far astonished us with its moderation.

December 19.—The skaters improve the pleasant weather.

December 20.—The weather still all one would ask.

December 21.—Cold and pleasant. Ice on the lake ten inches thick. Hope to get a mail before long. Three months without one word from the outside world is a disagreeable experience. Thermometer 12°; coldest we have had.

December 22.—The sun rises about 9 o'clock on the tops of these snowy mountains—
very beautiful every morning. Another lovely day. Preaching at 2 o'clock, by the chaplain, every Sunday.

December 23.—Fine weather; thermometer 18°.

December 24.—Pleasant day.

December 26.—Pleasant day.

December 27.—Weather moderated; thermometer 30°.

December 28.—Beautiful; thermometer 36°.

December 29.—Beautiful day; colder.

December 30.—Milder day; pleasant.

December 31.—Mild; snow-storm all day until night, when it changed to rain.

January 1, 1868.—Driving snow-storm; comfortable in-doors.

January 2.—Mercury 10°; coldest day so far; bright, lovely, and full of sunshine.

January 3.—Ditto ditto; thermometer 18°.

January 4.—Ditto ditto; thermometer 26°.

January 5 to 8.—Ditto ditto; dry, pleasant, and agreeable.

January 9.—Ditto ditto; thermometer 31°.

January 10 to 12.—Weather still all that one could ask; people enjoying themselves masquerading, &c.

January 12.—Weather mild; rain all day.

January 14.—Still raining.

January 15.—Raining.

January 16.—Still raining.

January 17.—Cleared up, and pleasant sunshine.

January 18.—Beautiful day.

January 19.—Some rain; disagreeable.

January 20.—Snow, hail, and sunshine; thermometer, morning, at 36°; night, 28°.

January 21.—Lovely day; thermometer 24°.

Sitka, January 25.—Mercury averaging 25° to 35°.

January 31.—Rain; mercury 41°.

February 1.—Rain.

February 2, 3, and 4.—Rain; dull and disagreeable on the 4th, with less rain.

February 5.—Clear and cold; mercury 20°.

February 6 and 7.—Clear and cold; bright days.

February 8.—Snow—fall three inches.

February 9.—Sleighing by the only two horses there; snow throughout the night of the 8th ceased; cold and clear.

February 10.—Cold and clear; mercury 16°.
MR. C. C. WASHBURN submitted the following as the

VIEWS OF THE MINORITY.

The minority of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, to whom was referred so much of the President's annual message as related to the purchase of Russian America, submitted the following report:

In 1824 a treaty was negotiated at St. Petersburg between the United States government and Russia. The negotiators of that treaty were Hon. Henry Middleton on the part of the United States, and Count Nesselrode on the part of Russia. That treaty has never been abrogated, and was in full force when the treaty was negotiated which we are hereafter to consider. The first article of the treaty of 1824 is as follows, viz:

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

The instructions afterward named are such as were necessary to prevent illicit trade.

In 1832 another treaty was negotiated with Russia, the negotiators being Hon. James Buchanan on the part of the United States, and Count Nesselrode on the part of Russia. That treaty was of full force and effect at the time of the negotiation of the late treaty for the purchase of Russian America. The first article of that treaty is as follows, viz:

ARTICLE I. There shall be between the territories of the high contracting parties a reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation. The inhabitants of their respective states shall mutually have liberty to enter the ports, places, and rivers of the territories of each party wherever foreign commerce is permitted. They shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all ports whatsoever of said territories, in order to attend to their affairs, and they shall enjoy to that effect the same security and protection as natives of the country wherein they reside, on condition of their submitting to the laws and ordinances there prevailing, and particularly to the regulations in force concerning commerce.

It will thus be seen that at the time negotiations were opened for the purchase of Alaska, or Russian America, we had perpetual treaties with the government of Russia, under which our citizens were guaranteed the free enjoyment of the Alaskan seas as fully and freely as the subjects of Russia, with the right of fishing and resorting to the coasts for the purpose of trading with the natives; also the right “to enter the ports, places, and rivers of the territory, with liberty to sojourn there in order to attend to their affairs, enjoying the same protection as the subjects of Russia, on condition of submitting to the laws prevailing there.” Every right which the government of the United States can have after the territory is acquired, we had before its acquisition was attempted, save the naked right of governing that country.

The questions involved in this reference are—

1st. Is the country ceded by the treaty with Russia a valuable one to the government of the United States, and one desirable for the United States to hold, occupy, and possess?

2d. If valuable and desirable for the United States to own, is it of such value and is its present possession of such importance as to demand so great an outlay at this time?

3d. The treaty having been made and ratified in the manner provided by the Constitution, and the government of the United States having taken possession
of the country ceded, can this House refuse to appropriate the money without
subjecting the government to the charge of bad faith with the government of
Russia?

4th. The treaty having been negotiated and ratified by the parties named in
the Constitution as the proper parties for the making of treaties, has the House
of Representatives the right to withhold the necessary appropriations to carry
such treaty into effect?

These questions will be considered in inverse order, for if the House has no
discretion in the matter of appropriations of money to execute treaties, that will
end the whole matter, and will dispense with any examination of the other
questions stated.

In considering, then, the last question, it is proposed to state the reasons
which force the minority of the committee to the conclusion that in all cases
where "a treaty stipulates regulations upon any of the subjects submitted by
the Constitution to the power of Congress, it must depend for its execution as
to such stipulations on a law or laws to be passed by Congress, and it is the
constitutional right and duty of the House of Representatives in all such cases
to deliberate on the expediency or inexpediency of carrying such treaty into
effect, and to determine and act thereon as in their judgment may be most con­
ducive to the public good."

It is proper to state at the outset that the opposite doctrine has found sup­
porters from the foundation of the government down to the present time, and
among those supporters, it should be said, have been found many men of high
characters and great ability, but the weight of authority and the strength of the
reasoning largely preponderate the other way.

By some it has been and is maintained that a treaty duly negotiated
by the President and ratified by the Senate, Congress is under the same obligation to
make an appropriation to execute it as it is to provide for the payment of the
salaries of the judges and President, or to vote money to pay any acknowl­
edged debt; in a word, that a treaty which stipulates the payment of money,
creates at once a debt which Congress is in duty bound to discharge, no matter
how unwise or injudicious said treaty may have been. Among the earliest and
ablest supporters of this doctrine may be named the Hon. Wm. Pinckney, and
among the latest is the no less able and distinguished gentleman from Pennsylvan­
ia, and member of the present Congress, Hon. Mr. Stevens. From such proposi­tion
the minority of the committee entirely dissent. With the early founders of the
republic, they maintain "that when a treaty stipulates regulations on any of
the subjects submitted by the Constitution to the powers of Congress, it must
depend for its execution as to such stipulations on a law or laws to be passed by
Congress," and that Congress ought to decline to pass such laws where the great
interests and rights of the people have been sacrificed in the treaty, and of this
Congress must be the judge.

The minority of the committee is not unaware that so high judicial authority
as Judge Story and Chancellor Kent have, to some extent, taken the ground
now combated; but the opposite doctrine has repeatedly been maintained by the
Supreme Court of the United States, as will presently be seen:

Tucker, in his Commentaries on Blackstone, (Appendix, p. 389,) speaks as
follows:

It may not be improper here to add something on the subject of that part of our Constitution
which declares that treaties made by the President and Senate shall be a part of the supreme
law of the land. Acts of Congress made pursuant to the powers delegated in the Constitu­
tion are to be regarded in the same light. What, then, is the effect of a treaty made by the
President and Senate, some of the articles of which may contain stipulations on legislative
objects, or such as are expressly vested in Congress by the Constitution, until Congress
shall make a law carrying them into effect? Is Congress bound to carry such stipulations
into effect, whether they approve or disapprove of them? Have they no negative, no dis­
ccretion upon the matter? The answer seems to be that it is in some respects an inchoate act.
It is the law of the land, and binding upon the nation in all its parts, except so far as relates
to those stipulations. Its final fate, in case of a refusal on the part of Congress to carry these stipulations into effect, would depend on the will of the other nation. If they were satisfied that the treaty should subsist, although some of the original stipulations should not be fulfilled on our part, the whole, except those stipulations embracing legislative objects, might remain a treaty. But if the other nation chose not to be bound, they would be at liberty to say so, and the treaty would be defeated. A contrary construction would render the power of the President and Senate paramount to that of the whole Congress even, upon those subjects upon which every branch of Congress is, by the Constitution, required to deliberate. Let it be supposed, for example, that the President and Senate should stipulate, by treaty, with any foreign nation, that in case of a war between that nation and any other, the United States should immediately declare war against that nation; can it be supposed that such a treaty would so far be the law of the land as to take from the House of Representatives their constitutional right to deliberate on the expediency or inexpediency of such a declaration of war, and to determine and act thereon, according to their own judgment?

Jefferson, in a letter to Wm. B. Giles, (Jefferson's Works, vol. 4, p. 125,) says, in speaking of the Louisiana treaty:

I am well pleased with the manner in which your House have testified their sense of the treaty. Randolph seems to have hit the true theory of our Constitution: that when a treaty is made involving matters confided by the Constitution to the three branches of the legislature conjointly, the representatives are as free as the President and Senate were to consider whether the national interest requires or forbids their giving the force and forms of law to the articles over which they have power.

And in a letter to Mr. Monroe, (same volume, p. 134,) he says:

We conceive the constitutional doctrine to be, that though the President and Senate have the general power of making treaties, yet whenever they include in a treaty matters confided by the Constitution to the three branches of the legislature, an act of legislation will be requisite to confirm these articles, and that the House of Representatives, as one branch of the legislature, are perfectly free to pass the act or to refuse it, governing themselves by their own judgment whether it is for the good of their constituents to let the treaty go into effect or not. On this depend whether the powers of legislation shall be transferred from the President, Senate, and House of Representatives, to the President, Senate, and Piamingo, or any other Indian, Algerine, or other chief.

Story, in his Commentaries on the Constitution, sec. 1508, says:

The power to make treaties is, of course, general. But though it is thus general and unrestricted, it is not to be so construed as to destroy the fundamental laws of the State. A power given by the Constitution cannot be construed to authorize a destruction of other powers given in the same instrument. It must be construed, therefore, in subordination to it, and cannot supersede any other of its fundamental provisions.

The case of Turner vs. American Baptist Missionary Union, (5 McLean, 344,) decides as follows:

A treaty is the supreme law of the land only when the treaty-making power can carry it into effect.

A treaty which stipulates for the payment of money undertakes to do that which the treaty-making power cannot do; therefore the treaty is not the supreme law of the land.

To give it the effect, the action of Congress is necessary. And in this action the representatives and senators act on their own judgment and responsibility, and not on the judgment and responsibility of the treaty-making power.

A foreign government may be presumed to know the power of appropriating money belongs to Congress.

No act of any part of the government can be held to be a law which has not all the sanctions to make it law.

The cases of Metzger, (1 Barb., 248,) and Foster vs Neilson, (2 Peters, 243, 314,) are to the same effect. In the latter case Chief Justice Marshall says:

A treaty is, in its nature, &c., a contract between two nations, not a legislative act. It does not generally effect, of itself, the object to be accomplished, especially, so far as its operation is infra-territorial, but it is carried into execution by the sovereign power of the respective parties to the instrument. In the United States a different principle is established. Our Constitution declares a treaty to be the law of the land. It is consequently to be regarded in courts of justice as equivalent to an act of the legislature whenever it operates of itself without the aid of any legislative provision. But whenever the terms of the stipulation import a contract where either of the parties engage to perform a particular act, the treaty addresses itself to the political, not to the judicial department, and the legislature must execute the contract before it can become a rule for the court.

The precedents established from the foundation of the government down to this time, show that the House of Representatives has always resolutely main-
tained its right to exercise its discretion in legislating in regard to treaties. A brief recapitulation of facts will show this to be true.

In 1796 the British treaty, more commonly known as Jay's treaty, came up for consideration in the House. Edward Livingston offered a resolution calling upon the President for information in regard to the treaty. It was resisted. A very lengthy and exhaustive discussion followed, and the resolution passed by a vote of 57 to 35. Among those voting for it were the well-known names of Edward Livingston, James Madison, William B. Giles, Nathaniel Macon, and other distinguished men. In the progress of the discussion Mr. Gallatin said:

To what would a contrary doctrine lead? If the power of making treaties is to reside in the President and Senate unlimitedly; in other words, if in the exercise of this power the President and Senate may absorb all legislative power. The executive has then nothing to do but to substitute a foreign nation for the House of Representatives and they may legislate to any extent. He should not say that the treaty is unconstitutional, but he would say that it was not the supreme law of the land until it received the sanction of the legislature.

Mr. Madison said:

It was important, and appeared to him to be a decisive view of the subject, that if the treaty power alone could perform any one act for which the authority of Congress is required by the Constitution it may perform every act for which the authority of that part of the government is required. It was to be presumed that in all such cases the legislature would exercise its authority with discretion, allowing due weight to the reasons which led to the treaty, and to the circumstances of the existence of the treaty. Still, however, this House in its legislative capacity must exercise its reason; it must deliberate, for deliberation is implied in legislation. If it must carry all treaties into effect, it would no longer exercise a legislative power. It would be the mere instrument of the will of another department, and would have no will of its own. He thought the President and Senate would be as likely to make a bad treaty as this branch of the government would be to throw obstructions in the way of a good one after it was made.

Mr. W. B. Giles, of Virginia, said:

That he believed the House had a right, and if it was a right it must be also their duty, to oppose its execution by all the constitutional means in their power, as legislators, if they found it upon mature deliberation contrary to the interests of the people and the honor of the nation.

The other check over the treaty-making power, he noticed, was the power of making appropriations, the exercise of which is specially vested in Congress. He begged leave to call the attention of the committee to this part of the subject. The Constitution says that no money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law. This is no doubt intended as a check, in addition to those possessed by the House. It is meant to enable the House, without the concurrence of the other branches, to check, by refusing money, any mischief in the operations carrying on in any department of the government.

If the President can, by the assistance of a foreign power, legislate against the rights of the House to legislate, and his proceedings are to be binding on the House, it necessarily destroys their right to the exercise of discretion.

George Washington, the President, in answer to the resolution, declined to give the information sought for, maintaining the doctrine that the House had nothing to do in the matter, but he was overruled by a vote of 57 to 35, in the following resolution:

Resolved, That it being declared by the second section of the second article of the Constitution that "the President shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided that two-thirds of the senators present concur," the House of Representatives do not claim any agency in making treaties, but that when a treaty stipulates regulations on any of the subjects submitted by the Constitution to the power of Congress, it must depend for its execution as to such stipulations on a law or laws to be passed by Congress; and it is the constitutional right and duty of the House of Representatives in all such cases to deliberate on the expediency or inexpediency of carrying such treaty into effect, and to determine and act thereon as in their judgment may be most conducive to the public good.

The same question arose in 1803, at the time the treaty was up in the House for the purchase of Louisiana, and it was conceded by the strongest friends of the treaty that the House had a perfect right to refuse to appropriate money to
execute the treaty if it disapproved of it, and that was clearly the sense of the House; even many of the federalists, who took opposite grounds in 1796, conceding it, though they voted money to execute the treaty because it was commended to their judgment. (See Annals of Congress, first session eighth Congress.)

The discussion on that occasion was very able, and is very instructing at this time. We cannot quote what different men said, but will quote a single paragraph from Mr. Randolph, a strong friend of the treaty. Said he:

Does not the President of the United States submit this subject to Congress for their sanction? Does he not recognize the principle, which I trust we will never give up, that no treaty is binding until we pass the laws for executing it; that the powers conferred on Congress by the Constitution cannot be modified or abridged by any treaty whatever; that the subjects of which they have cognizance cannot be taken in any way out of their jurisdiction? In this procedure nothing is to be seen but a respect on the part of the executive for our rights—a recognition of a discretion on our part to accord or refuse our sanction.

The next instance wherein this same principle was maintained was in 1816, in the commercial treaty with Great Britain. In the course of the discussion in the House of the bill to carry that treaty into execution, Mr. Taylor, a distinguished member from New York, afterwards Speaker of the House of Representatives, spoke as follows:

Mr. Speaker: It has been asked whether the treaty will not be executed even if Congress refuse to pass a law for that purpose. I answer in the negative. By the existing laws goods imported into the United States from Great Britain in American vessels pay a certain duty, and goods imported in British vessels pay a different duty. By the treaty it is agreed that in both cases they shall be charged the same duty: the treaty does not, neither could it, determine what that duty shall be; whether it should be the higher or lower rates or a modification of both; that could only be decided by municipal law; to make that decision the bill under discussion is introduced; legislation on the subject is thought necessary by the President himself. In his message communicating the treaty he says: "I recommend to Congress such legislative provisions as the convention may call for on the part of the United States." Such is not the form in which treaties capable of executing themselves are communicated. For a proof of this I refer gentlemen to the President's message at the last session of Congress announcing the treaty of peace with Great Britain.

We have already seen that the Constitution in its first article contains a declaration that all legislative power shall be vested in Congress. The eighth section of the same article proceeds to enumerate the subjects over which that power may be exercised. "The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises." But of what avail is this power if the President and 13 senators can, by treaty, abolish a tax or duty laid by Congress and establish another? If they can vary a tariff of duties in any particular they can abolish it altogether. They can agree that all goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British dominions, shall be admitted into the United States free of duty, in consideration that the British government will extend the same privilege to American produce introduced into Great Britain, or in consideration that the British government will grant to the United States the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, to be governed by the President and Senate, or as the President alone, or as any other individual may direct; or in consideration that the British government would pay to the President and Senate, or to the Paymaster General of the army of the United States, an annuity of $10,000,000, to be disbursed by the President of the United States, or for any other consideration which they might think proper to accept.

"To borrow money on the credit of the United States."

But of what avail is this power if the President and Senate can repeal the revenue laws of Congress enacted with a view to pay the interest and repay the principal of money so borrowed; or if they can by treaty borrow money themselves and pledge the public lands for its reimbursement?

"To regulate commerce with foreign nations."

But of what avail is this power if the President and Senate can definitely agree by treaty with a foreign nation what article of commerce shall be admitted into the United States and what excise, what duties shall be paid and what remitted, and generally upon all subjects relating to both foreign and domestic commercial transactions?

"To establish a uniform rule of naturalization."

But of what avail is this power if the President and Senate can by treaty stipulate that the subjects of a foreign government other shall not be admitted into the United States, or, being admitted, shall not be naturalized, or if they can repeal the naturalization laws enacted by Congress and establish others contradictory thereto?

"To declare war."

Even this exalted attribute of sovereignty is of little importance to Congress if the Presi-
dent and Senate can by a treaty of alliance bind the United States to commit an act of hostility against a nation with which we are at peace, thereby producing a state of actual war as effectually as if declared by the constitutional organ of the government.

"To raise and support armies."

But this grant of power may be rendered useless if the President can by treaty stipulation fix the number of men to be retained in the military establishment of this and another country with a view to the mutual security of both, or by a treaty of alliance determine the contingent of force to be furnished by the United States and the amount of subsidy to be received therefor.

"To provide and maintain a navy."

This power also is annihilated if the President and Senate can agree with the government of another nation what amount of naval force shall be retained in service by the respective countries.

The last case that will be adverted to is that of the treaty with Mexico, negotiated by General Gadsden in 1854. General Gadsden was sent out to Mexico with instructions to negotiate for the abrogation of one of the articles of the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, and the purchase of the Mesilla valley. He was authorized to pay $10,000,000. Instead, he violated his instructions and agreed to pay $20,000,000. When the treaty came up for consideration in the Senate the fraud was so palpable that the Senate refused to ratify it, but amended it and sent it back, striking out $20,000,000 and inserting $10,000,000. The Mexicans at once agreed to accept the latter sum, and the treaty as thus amended was ratified by the Senate. A bill was reported in the House appropriating the money. It was vigorously opposed there. Among its opponents were Hon. T. H. Benton and other distinguished public men. The bill was passed by a strict party vote, but the friends of the bill took special pains to declare that the House was under no obligation to vote the money unless it approved the treaty. Hon. T. H. Baily, of Virginia, chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, who had charge of the bill and directed its passage through the House, speaking for the friends of the bill, said:

I know it has been maintained in this country by some of the ablest and purest of our statesmen, from the days of Jay's treaty down to this occasion, that a treaty regularly negotiated by the President and confirmed by the Senate, even though it makes stipulations on subjects in respect to which power is conferred by the Constitution on Congress to legislate, is absolutely binding on Congress, and that it cannot withhold any legislation necessary to execute its provisions without invading the privileges of the treaty-making power, and committing a breach of national faith. Others have gone further, among them the great William Pinckney, and maintained that all treaties negotiated by the President and ratified by the Senate are complete and self-efficient, and require no legislation to execute them. I wholly dissent from these views.

The appropriation bill passed the House and was sent to the Senate, where it was taken up and passed without one word of explanation or debate. The ayes and noes being called, the bill passed by a vote of 34 to 6. Those voting against the appropriation were Chase, Fessenden, Gillette, Seward, Sumner, and Wade.

Thus, in every instance since the government was formed, when a treaty required legislative action, has the House maintained the doctrine which the minority of the committee now uphold; and it is worthy of special remark that in the case of the Gadsden treaty the negotiator of this Russian treaty, (Mr. Seward,) and the strongest advocate for its confirmation in the Senate, (Mr. Sumner,) both voted against appropriating money to pay Mexico, while to their votes was added that of the present Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, the present acting Vice-President, and the very distinguished senator from Maine, (Mr. Fessenden.)

If it was right then to refuse to vote money to execute a treaty with a weak power, it hardly can be wrong now to so vote where the treaty is with a strong power.

Indeed, in the opinion of the minority of the committee, to now vote for an appropriation to execute a treaty that does not commend itself to the judgment H. Rep. Com. 37—4.
of the House, because the contracting party was a great and powerful nation, would be a concession to power not entirely creditable to this nation.

The minority of the committee have thought it proper to go thus at length into this question, because it is one of too grave a nature and involves consequences too serious so be lightly passed over, and because they have learned, with some degree of surprise, that there are at this late day men able, distinguished, and high in the public confidence who would, in the language of Mr. Jefferson, "transfer the powers of legislation from the President, Senate, and House of Representatives to the President, Senate, and Piamingo, or any other Indian, Algerine or other chief."

Having thus disposed of the fourth question involved in the appropriation, the minority of the committee proceed to consider the third question, which is, "the treaty having been made and ratified in the manner provided by the Constitution, and the government of the United States having taken possession of the country ceded, can this house refuse to appropriate the money without subjecting the government to the charge of bad faith with the government of Russia?"

In considering this question the committee declare in the outset that, in their judgment, whatever good faith and honor require, that should be done, and the nation cannot afford to count the cost in doing it. But there is no question of good or bad faith involved in this matter.

This is a plain business statement of the case. A contract is entered into by the President, acting through the Secretary of State, to purchase of the Russian government the territory of Alaska. The contract contained stipulations which were well understood by Baron Stoeckl, the agent of the Russian government. Those stipulations were such as the negotiators could not enforce, but which were necessary to be complied with before the treaty could become valid or binding. The stipulations were, first, that the treaty should be ratified by the Senate; and, second, that the legislative power should vote the necessary appropriation. The first stipulation was complied with, and the second is the one now being considered. Each stipulation was independent of the other, and required independent powers to carry it into execution. The treaty-making power can no more bind Congress to pass a law than Congress can bind it to make a treaty. They are independent departments, and were designed to act as checks rather than be subservient to each other.

As was well said by Judge McLean, in the authority before quoted, "a treaty is the supreme law of the land only when the treaty-making power can carry it into effect. A treaty which stipulates for the payment of moneys undertakes to do that which the treaty-making power cannot do; therefore, the treaty is not the supreme law of the land. A foreign government may be presumed to know that the power of appropriating money belongs to Congress."

In this particular case the foreign government may not only be presumed to know, but it may safely be said that that government did actually know, that the treaty was not complete, and the law of the land, until the action of the body stipulated in the treaty was had; and this declaration is based on the fact that the minister of the government of Russia, who negotiated this treaty, has been a resident of Washington for over 20 years. He speaks the English language fluently and well. He is a gentleman of intelligence and well informed in regard to our system of government. It was impossible for him to be ignorant of the fact that the treaty he negotiated was not the supreme law of the land until it had received the sanction of Congress; and if he failed to make known the fact to his august master, it is not the fault of the American Congress or the American people.

But it is said that Russia has given us possession, and for that reason we should vote the money. Quite otherwise, in this judgment of this committee. Why was possession taken by the Executive of this government and yielded by
Russia before the money was paid or even voted? No interest of this government was suffering for the want of immediate possession, and it is believed that no benefit could arise to this government from having possession before the time stipulated for the payment of the money. The same may be said in regard to Russia, unless the country was so worthless that every day she held possession was a positive damage to her, and for that reason she was in haste to be rid of it. It requires no great stretch of imagination to divine the scarcely hidden causes which governed the parties negotiating this treaty in stipulating for immediate possession. They could hardly have failed to foresee that this treaty would be strongly opposed in this house, and that upon its merits it could have no chance for the necessary appropriation. An extraordinary pressure was seen to be necessary, and that pressure was sought for in giving and taking possession.

Will this house allow itself to be coerced by any such performance? To state the question is to answer it. But it is said Russia, our best friend, will be offended if we fail to appropriate the money. The minority of the committee fully recognize the friendly character of the Russian government in the past, and the importance of cultivating friendly relations in the future; but, for the reason stated, it is denied that any just ground of offence can exist if this house fails to sanction the treaty. The country is grateful to Russia for sympathy received from her during our late struggle for existence, and the minority of the committee would be very unwilling to do anything to justly offend that power. It is maintained that the refusal to appropriate money to carry this treaty into execution would be cause of war on the part of Russia, and the action of President Jackson is cited, in the case of the refusal of France to pay the money stipulated to be paid in the treaty of Paris, negotiated in 1831. But that case is in no sense parallel to the one under consideration. There the claim of this government existed long before the treaty was negotiated. The treaty merely liquidated the amount which France was to pay. Our right to the money was perfect and complete before the treaty was made, and a refusal to pay it was as much a cause of war before the treaty as afterward; and had there been no treaty liquidating the amount, the right to demand payment would still have existed, and, if need be, to use force to compel it.

The first and second questions stated in the commencement of this report are so intimately connected that they will be treated as one. They lead the committee to the consideration of the character of the country ceded. In doing so, the minority of the committee finds itself under great embarrassment from the limited sources of information to which they have had access.

On the 19th day of December last the House adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the President of the United States be, and he is hereby, requested, if not inconsistent with the public interests, to communicate to this house copies of all correspondence with and instructions to our minister to Russia, in regard to the acquisition of Russian America; also all correspondence with the Russian minister at Washington concerning the late treaty with Russia; together with all the information in the possession of the executive department of the government in regard to the country proposed to be ceded by said treaty.

The response to that resolution has but recently been laid before the House. It makes a volume of 360 pages, and contains a vast mass of irrelevant matter that is in no way responsive to the resolution. In it a comparison is made of the opposition to the purchase of this inhospitable region to that which was made to the purchase of Louisiana—a purchase known to embrace the finest lands upon the continent, in a genial climate, and giving us the control of the navigation of the Mississippi river for all time. Large quotations from the doggerel poetry of that period, in regard to the Louisiana purchase, are sent into Congress in response to the House resolution.

That response discloses this fact, that at the time of the negotiation of the treaty our government had actually no information in regard to that country
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that could justify the belief that it possessed any value to us. When under consideration in the Senate, a learned senator, Mr. Sumner, spoke of the country as follows:

Perhaps no region of equal extent upon the globe, unless we except the interior of Africa, or, possibly, Greenland, is as little known. Here I do not speak for myself alone. A learned German, whom I have already quoted, after saying that the explorations have been limited to the coast, testifies that "the interior, not only of the continent, but even the island of Sitka, is to-day unexplored, and is in every respect terra incognita." Another writer of authority speaks of the interior as a "mystery;" and yet another says that our ignorance with regard to this region would make it a proper scene for a chapter of "Gulliver's Travels."

The only correspondence, pending the negotiation of the treaty, is contained in the following notes that passed between Mr. Seward and Mr. Stoekl, and a telegram from Gortchakoff:

Mr. Seward to Mr. de Stoekl.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, March 23, 1867.

Sir: With reference to the proposed convention between our respective governments for a cession by Russia of her American territory to the United States, I have the honor to acquaint you that I must insist upon that clause in the sixth article of the draught which declares the cession to be free and unencumbered by any reservations, privileges, franchises, grants, or possessions by any associated companies, whether corporate or incorporate, Russian or any other, &c., and must regard it as an ultimatum; with the President's approval, however, I will add $200,000 to the consideration money on that account.

I avail myself of this occasion to offer to you a renewed assurance of my most distinguished consideration.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD,
Secretary of State.

Mr. Edward de Stoekl, &c., &c., &c.

[Translation.]

Mr. de Stoekl to Mr. Seward.

IMPERIAL LEGATION OF RUSSIA TO THE UNITED STATES,
Washington, March 25, 1867.

Mr. Secretary of State: I have had the honor to receive the note which you were pleased to add to me on the 3d March, 1867, to inform me that the federal government insists that the clause inserted in article sixth of the project of convention must be strictly maintained, and that the territory to be ceded to the United States must be free from any arrangement and privileges conceded either by government or by companies.

In answer, I believe myself authorized, Mr. Secretary of State, to accede literally to this request on the conditions indicated in your note.

Please accept, Mr. Secretary of State, the assurances of my very high consideration.

STOECKL.

Hon. William H. Seward,
Secretary of State of the United States.

[Translation.]

Mr. de Stoekl to Mr. Seward.

WASHINGTON, March 17–29, 1867.

Mr. Secretary of State: I have the honor to inform you that by a telegram dated 16–29 of this month from St. Petersburg, Prince Gortchakoff informs me that his Majesty the Emperor of all Russians gives his consent to the cession of the Russian possessions on the American continent to the United States for the stipulated sum of $7,200,000 in gold, and that his Majesty the Emperor invests me with full powers to negotiate and sign the treaty.

Please accept, Mr. Secretary of State, the assurance of my very high consideration.

STOECKL.

Hon. William H. Seward,
Secretary of State of the United States.
TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

[Telegram.]

WILLIAM H. SEWARD:

Just received the following telegram from St. Petersburg:

"Treaty ratified. Bodisco carries it back and leaves immediately."

"GORTCHAKOFF."

I shall be in Washington to-morrow.

STOECKL.

No evidence appears that any attempt was made to acquire any information in regard to the country before the trade was closed, or as to whether any encumbrances existed upon the territory, or the extent of such encumbrances, if any; but the public cannot fail to be struck with the extreme nonchalance of the Secretary of State in proposing to give without being asked $200,000 additional in gold to clear off real or supposed encumbrances.

The testimony embodied in the answer to the House resolution in regard to the character of the country acquired, has nearly all been obtained since the treaty was negotiated. Before reviewing it the minority of the committee desired to call attention to a class of witnesses whose testimony may be supposed to be disinterested, and who were not sent to that court to make out a case.

There is no conflict of testimony among the early navigators. It is now over 127 years since Vitus Behring, a Dane in the service of Russia, discovered the coast of Russian America. Leaving Kamtchatka in June, 1741, the expedition, consisting of two well-appointed ships, set sail on their voyage of discovery: the St. Paul, under the command of Captain Behring, and the St. Peter, under Captain Tschirikow.

For some time it is said that the two vessels kept together but a violent storm and fog coming on, they were separated and saw each other no more. The expedition was supplied with several men of science, naturalists and botanists, who were to report on the natural history and botany of the countries discovered. Captain Behring appears to have discovered the continent July 18, 1741, in latitude 58° 28'. The country was described as "having terrible high mountains and covered with snow." Evidently that part of the country first discovered did not tempt him long, for, remaining two days only, he sailed southward, passing among the Aleutian islands and making several landings, the other ship sighting the coast July 15, 1741, at about where Sitka or New Archangel is situated. Captain Tschirikow sending his mate and long-boat ashore with 10 men, with a small cannon and small-arms, for the purpose of inquiring into the country and procuring water, the same disappeared in a wooded bay and returned no more. Not understanding the cause of their detention he despatched his small boat, in command of the boatswain, with a complement of men well-armed, in pursuit. That boat disappeared and was never again seen; but soon after the natives appearing, left no doubt as to their fate. Such were the inhabitants that peopled that coast at the time of its discovery, and whose descendants are so soon to be made citizens of the United States. That they have no way improved since then we will presently show. Tschirikow, as if disgusted with his discovery, made no further attempts to land, but sorrowfully sailed for home. Adverse winds and storms prevailed, but at last he reached Kamtchatka, October 9, with a crew diminished from 70 to 49, and history does not inform us that this gallant captain saw anything in the country that could tempt him to its shores again. Captain Behring, it is safe to presume, was equally disgusted, for, in the language of the most learned, able, and eloquent gentleman that has ever spoken on the subject of Russian America, while Captain Tschirikow was hurrying home as fast as the tempestuous seas would allow—Behring was driven, like Ulysses, on the uncertain waves. A single tempest raged for 17 days, so that Andrew Hosselburg, the ancient pilot, who had known the sea for fifty years, declared that he had never seen anything like it in his life. Scurvy came with its disheart-
The commodore himself was a sufferer; cables snapped, anchors were lost, and at last the tempest-tossed vessel was cast upon a desert island without a name, where the commodore, sheltered in a ditch, and half-covered with sand as a protection against the cold, died December 8, 1741.

This all took place in that delightful climate and on that calm and placid sea of which we have heard so much of late, but of which we knew so little until the recent discoveries of the Secretary of State.

The French navigator, La Perouse, visited the coast in 1786; Captain Cook, the great English navigator, in 1778. The Narratives of Cook, published in London, 1784, and La Perouse, published in 1798. They both furnish numerous views of different points along the coast, all presenting the most inhospitable and forbidding appearance.

Facts are worth a thousand theories in regard to isothermal lines. Cook found snow on the coast as late as June 8, south of where the peninsula of Alaska joins the mainland. On the 26th of May, when near Cape Elizabeth, he says, on page 386, volume two:

This land was everywhere covered with snow, from the tops of the hills down to the very sea beach.

La Perouse on the 3d of July, in latitude 59°, found the head of Behring's bay "covered with pieces of ice."

On arriving upon that coast about the last of June, 1786, he says, on page 67, volume two:

The sight of land, which generally gives rise to the most agreeable sensations after a long voyage, failed, in the present instance, to produce the same effect upon us. Those immense heaps of snow, which covered a barren land without trees, were far from agreeable to our view.

Sir George Simpson, president of the Hudson's Bay Company, who had explored the coast, and was perfectly familiar with the subject, says that nowhere is this tract for more than 300 miles of coast over 30 miles wide. He voyaged along the coast between the island and the main, making frequent landings, in 1841, and his descriptions, no doubt, are entirely accurate. In his "Overland Journey Round the World," leaving Fort Simpson September 1, he says, on page 123:

We came to anchor for the night at the southern entrance of the Canal de Revilla. Both mainland and islands became more and more rugged as we advanced, rising abruptly from the very shores in the form of lofty mountains, with the ocean at their feet and the snow on their summits. In perfect keeping with the coast, the inland region consists of some of the wildest scenery in nature, of Alpine masses—in fact thrown together in tumultuous confusion. So uneven, in short, is the whole country, that within any reasonable distance of a stream, or a lake, a level site for a fort can hardly be found. Moreover, this land of rocks is as difficult of access, excepting on the immediate margin of the sea, as it is impracticable in itself.

Again, on page 126, he says:

Starting again at 5 o'clock in the morning, with a foul wind and thick fog, we run through Stephens's passage, and when the mist cleared sufficiently for the purpose, the land on either side displayed to us mountains rising abruptly from the sea, and bearing a glacier from every ravine. Earlier in the season these glaciers would have been concealed by the snow; but now they showed a surface of green ice.

On page 134, he says:

During our four days at Sitka, with the exception of a part of a day, there was one continued fall of rain. * * * * In the morning when we got under way (September 13) the weather was cold and squally, while a little snow that fell in the night had partially whitened the green ice that filled the ravines in the mountains, and the channels were traversed by many restless masses which had broken off from the glaciers. In short, nothing could exceed the dreariness of this inhospitable coast.

This description of Sir George Simpson, as well as those of La Perouse, Cook, and the tempest-tossed Behring, fully justified the lines of Campbell, in his Pleasures of Hope:

Lo! to the wintry winds the pilot yields,
His bark careering o'er unfathomed fields.
Now far he sweeps, where scarce a summer smiles,
On Behring's rocks, on Greenland's naked isles:
Cold on his midnight watch the breezes blow,
From wastes that slumber in eternal snow,
And waft across the waves' tumultuous roar
The wolf's long howl from Onolaska's shore.

Of the character of the people inhabiting that country, Sir George Simpson says of them, that—

They are numerous, treacherous, and fierce, capturing and destroying two forts on the same day near Sitka, and butchering the unfortunate garrisons.

Again, he says:

Immediately under the jaws of the fort at Sitka there is a village of Sitkaguoays, or people of Sitka, who are a subdivision of the great tribe of Thlinkitts. They are the most wretched Indians in appearance that I have ever seen, being bedaubed with filth and paint, and covered with the scars of syphilis.

Other voyagers fully confirm his representations. The great advocate of the treaty thus speaks of them:

For generations they have been warriors, prompt to take offence and vindictive, as is the nature of the Indian race—always ready to exact an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth. This character has not changed.—Mr. Sumner.

La Perouse, in speaking of them, (and it is admitted that they have not changed for the better,) says, on page 134, volume two:

I will, however, admit, if it be desired, that it is impossible for a society to exist without some virtues; but I am obliged to confess that I had not the penetration to perceive them: quarrelling continually among themselves, indifferent to their children, and absolute tyrants over their women, whom they most incessantly condemn to the most painful labor. These women are the most disgusting of any on the earth.

Without occupying more time or space in considering the testimony of early travellers, the minority of the committee will proceed to consider the testimony collected since the treaty was negotiated.

While the treaty was pending in the Senate various persons addressed letters to the Secretary of State, congratulating him on the success that had attended his efforts as a negotiator, and many of them telling of the wonderful stories they had heard in regard to the vast resources of that territory. These letters appeared in the Executive document No. 177, second session 40th Congress. The information they contain is generally hearsay, and wholly unreliable. As a specimen the minority of the committee quote from the letter of M. P. Berry, of Salem, Oregon:

I have in my possession a piece of gold, of the weight of one-half ounce, which was panned out or mined in Russian America during 1862. The person who presented it to me told many strange stories of the mineral wealth of that country, which he undoubtedly believed, and narrated to me at various times during a prospecting tour through eastern Oregon and Idaho. Among the many and various statements he positively affirmed that in one locality there was streaming verdigris, and with many other curious facts, geographical and otherwise, he often regaled me.

Mr. L. McDonald, of Washington Territory, writes the Secretary as follows:

You, sir, the saviour of this great, grand, and glorious republic, have added fresh laurels to your deserved renown by the timely purchase of this mine of wealth. You may rest assured that your successful purchase of this eminent domain will shed lustre on your name.

There are thousands of wild Indians frequenting those waters who are brave and desperate. As they are all fond of spirits, and as this coast has become a resort for the refuse of the earth, severe laws must be enacted to regulate traffic there, as all the outlaws on the Pacific will engage in the whiskey traffic with the tribes, and murders and rapine will follow.

The Indians should be placed under the management of the War Department, and all offenders should be brought to summary punishment by drum-head court-martial. Nothing short of summary trials for whiskey sellers can preserve the peace in Russian America.

Your obedient servant,

L. McDonald.

Hon. William H. Seward,
Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.
One W. T. Ballo, of San Francisco, wrote the Secretary as follows:

SAN FRANCISCO, September 7, 1867.

MY DEAR SIR: Since my last with enclosures a vessel arrived in this port from Kodiak. The following is a copy of a letter received by me:

"Mr. Ballou: We beg to inform you that we have at last found the seam of coal that we have hunted so long—no thanks to the R. A. Co. It is wonderful, over 30 feet deep, pure anthracite; we trace it one mile; good harbor; oak and fir timber. Our fortune is made; thanks to you alone. We hope to see you soon.

"A. & G. Marsh."

The above is verbatim. This is only one instance of the great mineral resources of that country. I know of others more astonishing, and had I funds sufficient, quickly would I develop astonishing facts that would soon make Alaska in many respects vie with almost any portion of our country; but, as I said in my first letter to you, it is no agricultural country. Its minerals, fish, and furs are enough.

Should I not be honored by a government position, as applied for in my last, and some of your eastern capitalists want to form a company whose capital shall be $100,000 or more, I will take $10,000 of stock and manage the affair so as to double the money in two years or I'll lose my head. To do this will require immediate attention and no delay, as the ground must be occupied before the immigration flocks in. My reference can be had and money at any time required. As I suppose I am wearying your patience I close till some reply.

Yours,

Hon. William H. Seward,
Secretary of State.

W. T. BALLOU.

It will be seen hereafter that Captain Howard, of the revenue service, was at Kodiak after this pretended coal discovery, and though constantly looking out for coal, failed either to discover or hear of any on that island. The minority of the committee will not encumber this report by further noticing the mass of extravagant, improbable, and unreliable trash with which the executive document No. 177 now before them is filled, but will confine itself to such official statements therein as serve to throw any light upon the subject under consideration. On the 4th of June last the Secretary of the Treasury ordered Captain W. A. Howard, of the revenue cutter service, to proceed to San Francisco, take charge of a revenue cutter, proceed to the Russian possessions, to acquire a knowledge of the country with a view to the due protection of the revenue when it shall have become a part of the United States, and for the information of Congress and the people. The letter of instructions of the Secretary is given in full, and was as follows, viz:

A.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 4, 1867.

SIR: You will proceed without delay to San Francisco, and take charge of the steamer revenue cutter "Lincoln," commanded by Captain White, which has been designated to make a voyage to Sitka, and the Russian possessions in America, lately ceded to the United States, to acquire a knowledge of the country with a view to the due protection of the revenue when it shall have become a part of the United States, and for the information of Congress and the people.

The "Lincoln" is now undergoing repairs at the navy yard in San Francisco, and is expected to be in readiness on your arrival. You will see that she is provided with supplies suitable for the voyage, which is expected to occupy several months, and you are authorized to add to her outfit such articles as in your judgment are necessary to her efficiency in the service assigned her, but you will be obliged to observe in all respects the most rigid economy.

Before leaving San Francisco there will be received on board five persons, designated by the Coast Survey office, with their instruments, equipments, and supplies, to whom will be afforded throughout the voyage all proper facilities for the accomplishment of the objects intrusted to them. Doctor Kellogg, of San Francisco, will accompany the expedition as surgeon. It is understood that he and Captain White are both experienced naturalists, and it is desired that they may prosecute diligently the line of investigation prescribed by the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution in the memorandum herewith transmitted. The vessel will be expected to leave San Francisco as soon as possible after your arrival, and will first proceed quickly to Sitka, to communicate with the Russian authorities, and present the letter of Baron Stoeckl, herewith enclosed. It will be remembered that the country is yet subject to the exclusive dominion of Russia, and that until the formal transfer of it to the United States the latter can exercise no control within its borders, except through the courtesy of the Russian government.
The collector at San Francisco has been instructed, in conformity with the desire of the Russian minister, to send an officer to Sitka by the first vessel bound thither, to remain for the present and superintend the discharge of cargoes permitted to land by the Russian authorities. The department designated for this service Lieutenant Calvin L. Hooper, or, if he cannot go, Lieutenant George W. Moore, and has given instructions for his guidance, copies of which are herewith enclosed.

If neither of these officers have gone to Sitka, you will convey one of them in the "Lincoln," and deliver to him the enclosed package, addressed to the United States officer at Sitka. You will also call upon the Russian consul at San Francisco, and take any communication he may desire to forward.

After visiting Sitka you will employ the vessel according to your best judgment to effect the purposes of the expedition, between the southern limits of the country and the westerly extremity of the Alaskan islands.

It is not expected that you will pass to the north of those islands, though you are at liberty to do so if it seems best. The objects to which attention will chiefly be given are—

1. The most available channels of commerce, the probable haunts of smugglers, and the most suitable points for custom-house and revenue stations.

2. A general reconnaissance of the coast, soundings, appropriate locations for lights, and other aids to navigation, and certain local surveys desired by the Coast Survey office.

3. To discover available coaling stations, and particularly to determine the fitness of Annalaska islands for that purpose.

4. To ascertain by careful soundings the location and extent of the fishing banks said to exist off the coast to the southward.

5. To pursue the course of inquiry as to the geographical and physical characteristics, the resources, productions and climate of the country, suggested by the secretary of the Smithsonian Institution in the communication herewith enclosed, and to preserve specimens to be carefully forwarded to this department immediately on your return.

It is desired that the results of the explorations be committed to writing, so as to be transmitted to the department without delay, that it may be received, if possible, by the first of December next. More minute instructions the department is of course unable to give, but they are the less necessary on account of your experience in those regions, upon which, of course, the department very considerably relies.

It is suggested that much valuable information may be obtained at San Francisco that will aid to guide the labors of the expedition.

Before quitting the country on your return you will a second time visit Sitka to convey despatches to San Francisco. You will be expected to report progress briefly from San Francisco, and at every other point where an opportunity occurs. If any other instructions are deemed necessary, they will be forwarded to Sitka with the expedition that is expected to go there and receive formal possession of the territory, after the exchange of ratifications of the treaty.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

Captain W. A. Howard,
Revenue Cutter Service, New York City.

Captain Howard, according to instructions, proceeded to San Francisco, and in the steam revenue cutter Lincoln sailed for Sitka and Russian America on the 20th of July. On the 30th they arrived at what they supposed was the southern extremity of the Territory. Captain Howard says in his first report, dated Sitka, August 17, 1867:

Being aware that this was almost unknown territory, it was necessary, in order to work understandingly, to determine the boundary line. Finding that it was also the desire of Professor Pierce and Mr. Davidson to observe for that object here, I readily consented.

Having remained six days without the least prospect of obtaining a sight at the sun or stars, we, on the 10th, at daylight, steamed for Fort Simpson into Chatham straits, through Dixon passage, on route outside to Sitka. It was our desire to verify the headlands of Prince of Wales, Ken, and Banefoff islands, this passage being our boundary, in accordance with the treaty between England and Russia. The rain and fog, however, prevented our getting anything more than an imperfect bearing, without any observations; in fact, to this port it was so thick on our arrival in the bay of Sitka that we anchored without knowing our position in reference to the town. When the weather cleared sufficiently to show it to us, bearing north by northwest, four miles distant, we immediately got under way, and at 10 a.m., August 12, moored ship off the town of Sitka. A boat, with the governor's aid and captain of the port, came alongside with the compliments of the port.

I fill up with coals and water here, and proceed direct to Ounalaska island, in obedience to instructions; but I regret to say that, from information I have received from the prince and officers of the Russian American Fur Company, as well as captains trading in steamers...
on the coast, the coals on all the Aleutian islands are too light, with too much residuum, for
steaming purposes. The Russian American Fur Company gave up the attempted use of
them long since, and obtained all their coals from Vancouver's island.

On the 22d of August Captain Howard steamed out of the harbor of Sitka,
destined for Kodiak and Aleutian islands, sounding on the way for fishing
banks, "in accordance with the wishes of the department." He says:

I reluctantly gave up the search. I will not pretend to say that there are no such banks.

At Kodiak he found but one Russian and one German. The rest of the
inhabitants were Aleutians.

Having obtained such observations as the heavens would permit, and examined the
country as far as the boisterous and rainy weather would allow, and having made the resi-
dents and natives understand their position and rights under their new flag, I prepared to
leave.

On the 31st of August, at 6 a.m., I proceeded to sea, *route for Unga and Ounalaska,
notwithstanding the officers of the company insisted it was too late in the season to visit
that section, and their vessels were all *route home to winter, having collected all furs for
the season. On my arrival at Ounalaska I found such to be the fact; the last vessel of
the season had received its furs and sailed for Sitka.

On Wednesday, the 4th September, steering southwest by west, heavy sea on and very
foggy, we sounded at intervals for fishing banks. At 12.45 breakers were suddenly discov-
dered directly ahead; put the helm down, took in all sail, and with great difficulty cleared
the breakers, head on; sounded in seven fathoms water. Had the ship run twice her length
further all hands must have perished; the sea was tremendous. Having stood to the south
and east until clear of danger, we hauled on our course to the south and west; at night
hove to; thick and heavy weather. In order to find fishing banks I had directed soundings
to be taken every two hours, which were laid down on our chart. September 5, found an
excellent bank with sixty fathoms water; coarse black sand, shells, and rocks. We soon
commenced catching some of the finest and fattest codfish I ever saw, two at a haul, weigh-
ing from 18 to 35 pounds, and from 32 to 37 inches in length; after having cleared up
decks.

On the morning of the 6th bore away northwest for out pass; made the land, but
the weather became so thick I was obliged to haul off and heave to.

It is proper to observe that this was the only fishing bank discovered by
Captain Howard. Professor Davidson locates it in latitude 53° 35' north, longi-
tude 164° 10' west. It is 65 miles from any land, and is south of the southern
line of Russian America, and was never exclusively within the jurisdiction of
Russia, and the citizens of the world have always had the right to fish there.

Captain H. heard of other banks, but he says "their locality is kept secret."

Speaking of Ounalaska, Captain Howard says:

Not a single tree grows upon this or the adjacent islands. A few spruce have been trans-
planted from Kodiak, and, notwithstanding they were planted in the best sheltered soil, they
with difficulty maintained a sickly existence.

Captain Howard, speaking of Sitka, says that he found it totally unfitted
for a commercial port of any magnitude, by reason of its difficult access, con-
tracted harbor, and poor anchorage, and he recommended that it should be aban-
doned and a port established elsewhere. He found such a location—
"in a bay whose soundings and location possessed the attributes of an excellent harbor. I
made explorations on shore, and found the best possible location for a town, cleared of tim-
ber, high, and capable of good drainage, with an abundance of excellent drinking water."

That it may be more perfectly understood what Captain Howard means when
he says that he "found the best possible location for a town," the minority of
the committee will allow Professor Davidson to more fully describe the site of
the future metropolis of Alaska, which he does as follows:

On the 25th we had the first clear day for a week, and the vessel anchored in Little Nag-
woshinski bay in 16 fathoms over soft muddy bottom, abreast of a low flat space on the
south side of the bay, one mile from the northwestern entrance. This low ground was bor-
dered on both sides by small streams, and was covered with a heavy carpet of water-soaked
sphagnum, forming almost a bog. The trees which had been growing on this space many
years before had evidently been torn away by their roots, and the holes are now filled with
water. The extent of this comparatively cleared ground is about 25 acres, and its greatest
elevation above water about 20 feet; in front the shore is low and flat; behind it is a nar-
row valley with great mountains at the head. I have described this small valley because it has been proposed to the military governor of Alaska as a suitable location for a military post. Around this part of Nagwoshinski bay, on either side and abreast the entrance, the borders are comparatively low and densely wooded.

"Keeping in view," says Captain H., "the instructions of the department for the discovery of coal, I have at every anchorage sent a party with the geologist to attain, if possible, that object." At Port Lincoln he despatched six men with the chincologist and geologist, with three days' provisions, in pursuit of coal. The geologist brought evidences of a very superior quality, found at the mouth of a small stream; but the fallen timber, moss, and underbrush prevented them from following the "evidences" up. This is the nearest approach to the discovery of coal that was made.

Whenever Captain Howard speaks of the weather—and he does so almost constantly—it is to describe it as "dark," "dismal," "raining," "foggy," or "boisterous." He left Sitka October 20, and sailed up to Port Lincoln. While there, a terrific storm came, which he describes as follows, viz:

Having coaled the Lincoln with all the despatch the boisterous and rainy weather would permit, supplying the custom-house with everything possible to put it in working order, I paid my respects to the late Russian and present authorities, offering to take despatches, &c., &c. Paying all bills against the ship, I got under way at 3½ p. m., in a heavy rain, blowing a gale from southeast, falling barometer, (29°;) determined to anchor in Port Lincoln, not considering Sitka safe should it blow a heavy gale as appearances indicated. At 5 p. m. came to in Port Lincoln with single anchor, the gale increasing and roaring overhead like a train of railroad cars running with great speed; at this time hardly a breath blew across the ship's decks. At daylight the wind suddenly shifted in a terrific squall and struck the ship broadside on, heeling her three strakes, (what no canvas had done;) before she swung head to it, she broke adrift, but on letting go a second anchor she brought up head to the wind, and during the day the gale was very heavy, but the ship lay perfectly easy, without any sea or feeling the wind, the harbor being so perfectly protected—thus demonstrating the perfect safety of Port Lincoln. The great disasters at Sitka, and the narrow escape of the Ossipee from foundering, show its violence, as well as the unfitness of Sitka (New Archangel) for a port of entry. Had the Lincoln remained that night she could not have escaped destruction; she would have been driven on shore, had her anchor held, (which I conceive impossible in such holding ground,) by other vessels drifting upon her, which subsequently sunk. The Mamouke's masts were blown out of her; other vessels had their boats blown from their tackles and dashed to pieces.

On the 18th of November Captain Howard arrived in San Francisco. He says:

Thus ended the observatory cruise of the Lincoln. Regretting that so little has been effected, by the lateness of the season and the extremely boisterous and rainy weather, * * I beg leave, however, to bear testimony to the untiring exertions of Mr. Davidson and Coast Survey party to accomplish an almost impossibility. For many days and nights they watched in vain for sun, moon, and stars, which led us almost to believe that neither ever had been or would be seen.

If the report of Captain Howard is not flattering, that of Dr. Kellogg, the botanist of the expedition, is hardly more so. He says:

Unfortunately, this vast region of islands and continental coasts is not bordered at the bases of these lofty timbered ranges with sloping or level bottoms; but is gashed with precipitous and inaccessible gorges, the peaks, for the most part, being capped with snow, which, melting in summer, together with the continual rains, makes every rockless footstep a sphagnetous, miry morass. Altitude passes for naught here; even the mountains are miry to their tops.

The timber found was mostly hemlock, spruce, and yellow cedar. We found but one true species of pine, (Pinus Contorta, Doug.) the Jersey or scrub pine, (Pinus Inops.) In this region it is always found in sphagnous swamps, or in sources of retarded streamlets, and rarely of any available size. Near Sitka we found it from a foot to 18 inches diameter, and 30 to 40 feet clear trunk, but such examples are probably rare.

The best timber tree, by far, is the yellow cedar, (Cupressus Nutkatensis, Hook.) From this point more or less north and south it is said to abound; but our personal observations only verify its existence northerly. At Fort Simpson it is now scarce, although we saw a sleeper 30 feet long, 28 inches at the butt, 18 inches at the extremity, and 8 inches thick, besides unwrought knees, &c., used for boat building, for which purposes it is unsurpassed, in addition to its lightness, toughness, ease of workmanship, and great durability. Under constant exposure to rainy weather and water, it is neither liable to watersoak nor subject to the attacks of the teredo, at least for the first four or five years.
The original constructors of Fort Simpson laid the ground timbers of pine, thinking it the best. An accidental piece of this cedar being used, on recently replacing the rotten timbers it was found to be the only sound log left after 21 years' trial. Similar facts at Sitka, verified by samples of an old wreck constructed of this cedar, which is still as sound as the day the vessel was built, though now 33 years since; even the iron bolts or spikes show no signs of corrosion.

This is the wood formerly exported to China, and often sent back to us famed for excluding moths, &c. The timber is sought after by the Indians, and the choicest canoes are made of it. Much is annually destroyed by belting and peeling the bark as far as they can reach, for working into baskets and wearing apparel, and covering their huts, or packed in canoes as portable shelters for camping purposes. At Noquarshinsky bay, standing in our tracks without moving, we counted 23 trees killed in this manner. This practice is, no doubt, general, and has served greatly to diminish its abundance along the coasts, together with other demands made upon it. The grain indicates a rapid growth, and there is no doubt of its desirability for forest culture.

The whole coast to Sitka and far northward exhibits one uniform topography and similar climatic conditions, being rainy and foggy, and the growth is nearly or quite the same throughout.

Dr. Kellogg speaks of various kinds of berries growing in the country, some palatable and some not; also of mushrooms that were so disagreeable as to cause sickness simply by holding them in the hand.

At Kodiak several varieties of vegetables were grown.

In passing through Chatham straits a chief visited captain Howard with some potatoes in his canoe, which he wished Captain Howard to “accept them to eat, but if too small for him, would he accept them for the crew?”

Dr. Kellogg found at Sitka the common white clover (Trifolium repens) and the Medick or burr clover (Medicago denticulata,) recently introduced by California trade. “They seem to flourish and bloom well; hence the use of these and similar grasses as green fodder appears quite practicable; but no reliance can be placed on any of them for hay and winter feeding, as in such a climate no haying is possible.”

Dr. Kellogg, speaking of Onalaska, remarks, “that it seems fair to infer that oats and barley would thrive provided they were fall sown;” and concludes with the sage observation that, “no grain will yield more than half a crop of poor quality if they do not fail altogether, when spring sown, whether north or south.”

Professor Davidson, of the Coast Survey, who accompanied the expedition, appears to have prosecuted his inquiries with great zeal, and with an earnest desire to find a country that would be satisfactory to those who sent him there. His report is very full, and the minority of the committee will make liberal extracts from it.

The following tables exhibit the climate of Sitka. Beginning with the month of March, we can judge of the temperature of the different seasons by the following scheme:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Season</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>Spring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>41°.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>Summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>54°.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>Autumn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>44°.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>Winter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>31°.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following scheme exhibits the rain-fall for the different months:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Months</th>
<th>Inches</th>
<th>Seasons</th>
<th>Rainy days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>March</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>Spring</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>April</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13½</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13½</td>
<td>June</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>Summer</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>July</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>August</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>September</td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td>Autumn</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>October</td>
<td>11.87</td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>November</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>December</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>Winter</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>January</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The greatest amount of rain that fell during any one year, according to the tabulated appendix, was 95.8 inches, or eight feet, in 1850. The enormous amount of rain-fall along a seaboard essentially cloudy throughout the year, has its normal effect upon the class of vegetation that will succeed in ripening under such condition of climate. The whole extent of country subject to these rains is covered with sphagnum from one to two feet in depth, and even on the steepest hillsides this carpet is saturated with water, and renders progress through it very slow and difficult, especially when there is a heavy growth of wood and underbrush. At Fort Simpson, the Stakeen, Chikahl, Kodiak, Unalaska, and the islands westward, this morass exists to the summits or snow line of the mountains. The sphagnum here spoken of is one of the main features of Alaska. It is described as a thick moss, seldom less than a foot and sometimes three feet deep, and covers the whole face of the country from the middle of Vancouver island to the end of the Aleutian islands. It forms a soft cushion into which the traveller sinks at least to his boot-top at every step; and in this moist climate the sphagnum is always soaking wet.

In November last the general in command of the military division of the Pacific, an officer who had previously interested himself in the purchase of Alaska, by sending telegrams from the Pacific coast while the treaty was pending in the Senate, sent the following telegram to the Adjutant General of the army:

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HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE PACIFIC,
San Francisco, California, November 19, 1867.

GENERAL: It is understood that the best agricultural land in the newly acquired territory of Alaska is to be found on the peninsula of Kenai, between Cook's inlet and Prince William's sound. The climate is said to be far better than at Sitka or Kodiak. It is proposed to establish a military post on this peninsula early next spring, and no doubt settlers will follow as soon as they are certain of protection.

I therefore respectfully suggest to the Department of the Interior that these lands be surveyed and brought into market at as early a period as possible.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

H. W. HALLECK,
Major General U. S. A., Commanding Military Division of the Pacific.

ADJUTANT GENERAL OF THE ARMY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Of course this despatch was not intended to have any effect upon Congress, which was to meet two days thereafter. But the importance of having these lands surveyed at once and in mid-winter, in latitude 65°, in the interests of agriculture, could not be overlooked or the information wait the slow progress
of the mails. For the benefit of the agriculturists who are invited to Cook’s inlet and Prince William’s sound by the general commanding on the Pacific coast, the minority of the committee will set before them the entertainment to which they are invited. They quote from the report of Professor Davidson:

Tebenkoff (1848) gives a dark picture of the appearance and climate of Prince William’s sound, calling it desolate, gloomy, and deserted; surrounded by rocks and pine forests; mountains covered with eternal snow and enveloped in perpetual fog, or invisible with drizzling rain. Rain falls sometimes for a whole month, and there are not more than sixty or ninety sunny days in the year. During the months of July and August the thermometer showed 59° on fair days and 46° on rainy days. The frost in winter is very severe, but of short duration, for the south winds change it suddenly to thaw and rain.

In speaking of the Aleutian islands Professor Davidson says that “there are no trees of any size on the Aleutian islands. Not a stick of timber can be procured nearer than Kodiak, and every bit of drift-wood is eagerly seized upon for fuel, for which the inhabitants are dependent upon the heavy growth of sphagnum, covering mountain and valley.”

Of vegetable productions he says:

At Sitka fruit trees were introduced in the governor’s garden, and special attention devoted to their culture, but they have not borne fruit, except a few small specimens that never matured. Berries abounded throughout the country in great abundance and of large size, but generally lack flavor on account of the absence of direct sunlight. Most of the berries were ripe when we left for Kodiak, August 22, and potatoes were in full bloom. The potatoes yield well, but are of small size and watery. Cranberries grow wild, are quite small and well flavored, but not in abundance about Sitka; they might be easily cultivated here, and would form a valuable addition to the California market, which now receives its supplies from the northern coast. None of the cereals are cultivated, and it is very doubtful if they would succeed. In fact, except a few very small gardens belonging to private individuals, nothing is cultivated, the population trusting mainly for their food to the annual supplies brought from St. Petersburg by the company’s vessels.

While speaking of the timber covering the narrow strip of country skirting the coast up to Mt. Elias, which is inaccessible mountain or morass, the professor is compelled to say that “while the vast forests of wood exist upon the waters of Puget sound, Admiralty inlet and Straits of Fuca, it may be commercially unprofitable to cut and ship even this yellow cedar to the California market, unless native labor can be obtained at low rates to get it out.”

“The spruce, yellow cedar, hemlock, &c., cover the coast as far north as Sterya bay, whence westward to Prince William’s sound very little is known, all navigators reporting a very forbidding low coast, covered in part with wood, but closely backed by the great St. Elias range, with its summits averaging from 8,000 to 9,000 feet, and every gorge filled with snow or glaciers.

“The great desideratum of the Pacific coast is coal, and we had been led to suppose that some of the reported deposits in Alaska were really coal, but the specimens from the island of Unga, given to me by the governor of the Russian colonies, are nothing more than lignite, thickly marked with iron pyrites. Moreover, at the worked-out crop in Coal harbor it exists in veins of rarely more than a foot in thickness. This coal has been faithfully tried on the Russian steamers, and after very many experiments has been abandoned and recourse had to the Nanaimo coals from Vancouver’s island. The navigators and engineers of the Russian steamers inform me that it is very light, burns with great rapidity, and leaves very much ash and clinker. The same general remarks apply to the coal obtained from English harbor, at the entrance to Cook’s inlet, and first found and reported by Portlock. But I am informed that at the north-west point of the entrance to Tchugatchnik bay, under the anchor point of old navigators, there is an unworked vein of coal of seven feet in thickness, and this or similar veins crop out upon the shore of Cook’s inlet for twenty miles to the northward towards Anchorage Point. This coal has not been opened.”

The informant in regard to this seven foot vein of coal is probably the same man who reported a 30 foot vein upon Kodiak.

“Two positions on Chatham strait are reported to furnish coal. One has been
worked and tried by the Russians and condemned; the other depends upon
Indian reports. Should petroleum come to be used as a steam-producing fuel
on steamships, there is a prospect of a supply being obtained from the southeast
shore of Alaska peninsula, at or near Katmai bay, in latitude 58° 01', longitude
154° 54', and abreast of Kodiak island. I have been furnished with a specimen
of the crude oil obtained there two or three years since. The finder reports
that he found three streams in the above locality covered with petroleum."

This petroleum discovery was doubtless made by the same individual that
reported to the Secretary of State the discovery of a stream of pure "verdigris."

Copper is reported to exist there, and the public are asked to credit the report
because Charles Brewer, of Jamaica Plains, near Boston, says that he saw and
purchased from a native a copper dagger at Sitka, "and when asked where it
came from he pointed inland."

Professor D. says:

Silver has been reported in several places, but when my assistants sought the localities the
guides could not point them out. At St. Paul I found specimens of quartz with sulphate of
iron and lead. Upon analysis in San Francisco, kindly made for me free of charge by John
Heewston, Jr., M. D., it was found to contain only 64 15 per 2,000 pounds, and had in it a
trace of gold.

Gold is found on the Stakeen river, and even with very crude means of working the
miners report that they can make from $2 to $7 per day, but the climate forbids them working
more than six months of the year. Proper methods of working the fine gold placers of
this river would yield twice the above amount. Gold is reported on the Kalkny river, which
enters Cook's inlet on its eastern side about latitude 60° 31', at the Russian station of St.
Nicholas, but I have no authentic information on the subject, beyond the statement by
Tebenkov. While we were at Sitka experienced miners made two prospecting tours over
part of Baranoff island, but without finding the color.

It should be here remarked that the gold discovered on the Stakeen was 150
miles up that river, and far east of the limits of Russian America.

On the flank of the mountain Verstova, which attains an elevation of 3,474 feet, bismuth
of remarkably pure quality is said to be found, my informant being one of the Russian
American Company's officers. The weather was so shockingly bad and the season so late
that it was impracticable to send a party of exploration, although the time would occupy
but one day. The specimen I obtained was said to have come from the Koloshu river, but
that appeared doubtful, as it was not water-worn, and Mr. Blake made two explorations of
the river for two or three miles without discovering any signs.

Iron ore is reported in the vicinity of Sitka, but after two searches in the localities indi­
cated the examination was abandoned; yet in this case I attribute the failure to our informant’s
inaptitude for topographical description.

In regard to the fur trade Professor Davidson says that:

Of the number and value of the different varieties of skins obtained from the Indians by
the Russian American Company, it is impossible to form an opinion.

In a few years the whole fur trade will degenerate into an illicit traffic with whiskey
smugglers, unless the most rigid and inflexible means are employed to suppress it. The
Indians themselves give aid and comfort to the smuggler, by timely warning of approaching
danger, by false information to the officers of the law, and by secreting the small vessels of
the smuggler when being searched for. The thousand harbors of the coast, the thick
weather, and the multitude of channels and straits, many of which are not even yet laid
down, give the advantage to the smuggler. The number of sea-otter
skins now annually obtained does not amount to over 1,100, where the supply 70 years
since, in the Alexander archipelago alone, was 8,000, of which it was confessed that the
American fur traders secured over 60 per centum. Between Yakootat bay and Dixon sound,
Tebenkov says that not a single sea-otter is found, attributing their absence not so much to
their destruction as to the noise of fire-arms.

With the utmost care on the part of the Russian authorities, the furs and fur­
bearing animals have rapidly diminished from year to year. With the transfer
to this government, and the consequent invasion of the country by our people,

The value of the country, if it has any value, is in its fisheries, and the
minority of the committee do not hesitate to avow the belief that these seas
abound in fish, but there is no known fishing bank within three marine leagues

TREATY WITH RUSSIA. 63
of any portion of Russian America. Our fishermen have fished there hereto-
fore without molestation, as they had the right to do.

The report of Professor Davidson, in the main, seems candid and truthful
but when he, with seeming honesty, tells us that salmon are so plenty that the
bears come down in numbers to feed upon them, their delicate appetites selecting
the heads only; that the bays south of Alaska are so crowded with that fish as
to impede the passage of boats, and that the beaches are sometimes strewn with
stranded salmon two or three feet thick, and that the fish sell for eight cents
per pound, the minority of the committee may be pardoned if they manifest some
incredulity. The story is a good one, and would have done no discredit to
Captain Lemuel Gulliver or Baron Munchausen.

It should be stated that Professor Davidson, in obedience to instructions,
selected sites for numerous lighthouses, but the utility of such structures in a
country enveloped in perpetual fog is not clearly seen.

It remains only to notice the report of Mr. Blake, the geologist of the expe-
dition. He says: “Exaggerated ideas have been formed of the known mineral
wealth of Alaska.” He found no coal of value, and neither precious or base
metals of any kind. He was told of the existence of different metals at various
times, but when sought where they were said to be, they were not there.

The idea has been inferred that this acquisition was demanded on the Pacific
coast, and it will be remembered that, as already stated, while the treaty was
before the Senate a despatch from a prominent officer on the Pacific coast was
published, declaring that the ratification of the treaty was greatly desired on
that coast. The minority of the committee believe that no such desire existed,
either then or now. In the leading republican paper of California, and one of
the ablest, if not the ablest, paper in the State, is an article on this subject in
which Alaska is spoken of as a “terra incognita,” and “that persons well informed
as to Alaska are ungrateful enough to hint that we could have bought a much
superior elephant in Siam or Bombay for one hundredth part of the money,
with not a ten-thousandth part of the expense incurred in keeping the animal
in proper condition.”

A single other quotation, and this report will be brought to a close. It is
from the correspondent of the Alta Californian, and is dated Sitka, October 25,
1867, and is found in Ex. Doc. before named:

Meanwhile the weather has been unremittingly dubious. It was well the ceremonies of
the transfer were held immediately on the arrival of the commissioners. Since then there
has not been an hour of pleasant weather. In a word, reader, Sitka is the region of inces-
stant storms, dripping forests, dank masses, dense mud, and drifting mists. There Pluvius
reigns with undisputed sway. It is the paradise of ducks and sea-gulls, of salmon and shell-
fish. Three Arizona miners, disgusted with the aridity of that sunny region, and yearning
for the sight of a cloud, if no bigger than a man’s hand, decided last June to come to Sitka.
They arrived just in time to enjoy the delightful humidity of August, the rainfall averaging
about an inch daily. The desire of their souls has been satisfied. This opens the way for
me to say a few things upon the subject of

METEOROLOGY.

We have now been here 17 days. Of those, one was sunny, two cloudy, without rain,
seven partially, and seven constantly rainy. According to the Russian meteorological tables,
the average amount of rain falling during the past fourteen years has been 85 ½ inches
annually, a little less than Senator Sumner’s figures. May, June, July, January, and
February are the driest months. All the rest are rainy, and August, October, December,
and March intensely so. According to the measurement of Mr. Treskovsky, of the Russian
observatory, over 21 inches of rain fell during last August. On the 26th of that month he
reports a fall of three inches. When the sun does break through the clouds it is laughable
to see the cattle, dogs, cats, and hens, as well as humans, seek the brief sunshine, and bask
in its transient warmth.

These constant rains are especially annoying to the soldiers. Since the transfer of the
territory they have been detailed from the steamer, 25 at a time, to serve on guard about town.
Returning last night, after a four hours’ endurance of the pitiless storm, one honest Celt,
as he came dripping from the boat up the gangway, vented his indignation by exclaiming,
“Be Jesus, who bought this country? It wasn’t me!”
The minority of the committee having considered the various questions involved, and the evidence in regard to this country under consideration, are forced to the conclusion that the possession of the country is of no value to the government of the United States. That it will be a source of weakness instead of power, and a constant annual expense for which there will be no adequate return. That it has no capacity as an agricultural country. That so far as known it has no value as a mineral country. That its timber is mostly confined to the narrow strip of country only 30 miles wide south of Mount St. Elias, and is generally of a poor quality and growing upon inaccessible mountains. That its fur trade is of insignificant value to us as a nation and will speedily come to an end. That the fisheries are of doubtful value, and that whatever the value of its fisheries, its fur trade, its timber or its minerals, they were all open to the citizens of the United States under existing treaties. That the right to govern a nation or nations of savages in a climate unfit for the habitation of civilized men was not worthy of purchase. That the constitutional right of this house to refuse to appropriate the money was known to Russia at the time the treaty was negotiated, and there can be no charge of bad faith if that right is asserted. They therefore report the following resolution:

Resolved, That it is inexpedient to appropriate money for the purchase of Russian America.

C. C. WASHBURN,
GEORGE W. MORGAN.