Shipping and maritime trade of cities in Mecklenburg and Pomerania in the 18th century reflected by the Danish Soundtoll Registers

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The Danish Sound toll Registers are one of the most important sources in the research of the Baltic maritime trade with Western Europe. Because the Sound trade of Mecklenburg and Pomerania in the 18th century has yet been inadequately explored, I have tried to fill this gap with my work.¹ In this paper I will introduce my work and discuss the main points of my research.

Because it was almost impossible to register the whole region with every port, I focused on the six most important cities at the Baltic coast of Mecklenburg and Pomerania. These cities were Wismar, Rostock, Greifswald, Stralsund, Wolgast and Stettin.

This approach belongs to Stefan Kroll, who analyses these six cities for the year 1706, on whose work my research based on. My work also wouldn’t have been possible without the work of Werner Scheltjens, who supported my work with a nearly complete conversation table of all measures of goods, which have passed the Sound. With these tables it was possible to convert the old, regional measures into modern and universal measures.

As period the 18th century was chosen, because at the beginning phase of the research the data base of the STR-Project only implied data sets till 1799. But not the whole 18th century was analyzed. The research starts with the year 1721. The reason for this proceeding was the Great Nordic War, who broke out in 1700. After the war in the year 1720 the political map of the Baltic area had changed in a fundamental manner. The former great power of Sweden had lost a lot of its territory, thereunder big parts of Swedish Pomerania, and with Russia and Prussia two new actors interfered in the political and economical order of the Baltic area. Because it was the goal of this research to illustrate continuity, the Great Nordic War was spared and as research period the time between 1721 and 1799 had been selected.

The six cities can be allocated to three countries. Rostock belongs to the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Stettin stood after the Great Northern War under Prussian administration. The third party in the region was Sweden, which had control over Greifswald, Stralsund, Wismar and

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5 Data source: STRO database
Wolgast. Wismar was a special case. It was a city of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, but it belongs since the Peace of Westphalia as fief to Sweden.

It is visible that both the import and the export throughout the century continued to rise. Despite some downturns the export as well as the import recovered. In the long term it must be assumed of good economic conditions for maritime trade and therefore it should be noted first that the good development of maritime trade in the 18th Century was a win for this region.

### Export

![Graph 2: Export separated by cities](image)

The Percentage of the Swedish cities on the export was 34.4%. Although these cities had no rich backland, from whom they could export goods, they were possible, with help from the Swedish government, to work economic more successful than especially Rostock. It was a big advantage that they could offer more convenient passages to Sweden than Rostock, because of the lower toll revenue.⁷

Prussia tried to establish the new owned city Stettin as economic outpost. The biggest part of the export from the region was transacted via Stettin. Conspicuous is, that Stettin didn’t export that much in the first half of 18th century, that it exported in the second half. This associated with trade abashments and staple right differences between Stettin and other big cities at the river Oder.

With the development of the port of Swinemünde, which was an outer harbor and the absorption of the river Swine in 1746 the export balance of Stettin improved. The reason for this action was that all

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⁶ Data source: STRO database
ships, which sail to and from Stettin, who used the river Peene as the gateway, had to hold in Wolgast and pay duties there. In addition to that, very large ships on the river Peene had problems to make their headway and had to be unloaded at the island of Ruden. The goods were then brought on smaller ships to Stettin, a highly inefficient transport. The new created link was much faster and ships, which sailed previously over Wolgast, now used the port of Stettin.

Above all, with the annexation of Silesia in 1742 the entire Oder had become Prussian. From 1751 were as good as any staple rights on the river Oder harmonized. Traditionally, the slowdown in exports at the beginning of the 1790s can be explained with the war of Prussia against revolutionary France. But this doesn’t explain the sharp drop that began 15 years earlier. The simultaneous rise of the exports of the other cities could offer an explanation for this.

Rostock limited itself for many years. At the gates and on the access roads to the city duties were levied. There have been so many tolls, that the city became practically abroad for the rest of Mecklenburg. But the most powerful brake for the oversea trade was the so-called Sweden toll. During the Thirty Years' War, the city fathers were forced to enter into an alliance with Sweden, to cast out Wallenstein's troops, who had occupied the port of Warnemünde. In a contract of 1632 Rostock secured the help of the Swedish troops, accorded Sweden the ascertainment of a toll and gave the port of Warnemünde into Swedish possession.

This Sweden toll persisted even after Thirty Years War. In 1714 finally Sweden pledged the toll rights to the Mecklenburgian princes. 1748 Duke Christian Ludwig of Mecklenburg disclaimed on the toll law, which was relinquished to him and declared the port of Rostock on a duty-free zone. After this declaration the export of Rostock rises slowly. Only in the 1770s Rostock could significantly increase its export rates.

Stralsund's export balance was highly volatile. While the city had strong export at the beginning of the 1720s, exports collapsed from the mid-1730s and remained almost continuously at this level. Lotte Müller writes, that this period of economic advancement was related mainly to the export of grain. From 1743 Sweden declared many prohibitions on exports, it came to a standstill. While Rostock and Stettin were able to use a mercantilist administrated, large hinterland, Stralsund had a less good position. Indeed Stralsund had its place in trade with Sweden, but beyond that trade it was almost economically insignificant.

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8 Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 68.
9 Lönnroth: Schwedisch-Vorpommern und das Königstum, p. 25.
11 Müller, W.: Rostocks See Schiffahrt, p. 20
12 Outer port of Rostock
13 Müller, W.: Rostocks Seeschifffahrt, p. 13f.
15 Kusch: Stralsund von 1720 bis 1815, p. 202
After the mid-1770s, exports began to rise. The reason for this rise was mainly commercially beneficial actions of the Swedish government, which in 1766 approved the cancellation of a special tax. This happened in a phase in which the total exports had reached a low point. But again the exports broke in ten years later. This can be partly explained with the Russian-Swedish war (1788-1790). After the war, the exports recovered again.

Wolgast had the best conditions for maritime trade. At this time the basin of the river Peene was deep enough for commercial vessels and all vessels, which were traveling to Stettin, drove past Wolgast and paid their duties to the city. It’s therefore not surprising that Wolgast export balance was so well developed during the 1720s. What followed was a sharp drop in export balance, which undoubtedly was related to the already mentioned absorption of the river Swine and expansion of the port of Swinemünde. Simultaneously Prussia imposed a penalty for all ships, which continued to use the river Peene as connection to Stettin.

During the Seven Years' War the city had suffered greatly. Also maritime trade slumped further. Only in the late 1770s the export, as in many other cities, suddenly rises and broke similar to the overall balance, from the mid-1780s again. The reason for this broke is probably similar to Stralsund, the second Swedish-Russian war. The export balances of Wismar and Greifswald have no particular characteristic curves. They are almost insignificant and will not be discussed here.

Graph 3: main export, separated by countries

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16 Ibid., p. 203.
17 Ressel: Swedish Pomerian Shipping, p. 73.
18 Lönnroth: Schwedisch-Vorpommern und das Königstum, p. 25.
19 Ibid.
20 Data source: STRO database.
Among all exporting countries the Netherlands, Great Britain, France, Sweden and Norway were mostly approached. The entire Mediterranean area played no role. How important the trade with Poland or Russia was, couldn’t be determined. The trade with the East could only be inadequately captured.

The trade with Great Britain was a long time at a very low level. Great Britain covered the most supply shortfalls by using their own colonies, so they were less dependent on foreign imports. In particular, America became more important for imports in the UK in the first half of the century, while imports from North- and North-West Europe began to decline. With the beginning of the American Revolutionary War, the exports to Great Britain rose unexpectedly. This is due to the high demand for timber for shipbuilding and grain. But also fruits were delivered in greater dimensions. Particularly in the first half of the century the exports to Great Britain can be referred as less abundant.

While the Netherlands represented a large market for goods from Mecklenburg and Pomerania, this key market started to decline with the beginning of the 1770s. This was due mainly to the collapse of the Dutch economy in the 18th century. The loss of the port of Amsterdam as a lock for goods to the south is clearly visible in the graph. While the exports to the Netherlands are further decreased, exports of other countries continued to increase. Although Dutch exports recovered again from the 1790s, a sharp drop is seen again five years later. This decrease can be explained with the invasion of French troops in the Netherlands. Because of the French occupation, The Netherlands, now called Batavian republic, were at war with Great Britain, which interfered the trade. In times of war it was usual to head for neutral ports. In addition, the boatmen were afraid to go further than before Lemmer in Friesland and awaited in safe ports the course of the war.

Especially the Swedish market could benefit from this development. 55% of all exports to Sweden were from the Baltic region. This Swedish Pomerania accounted for a share of around 20%, which fell only slightly in the course of the century. Swedish Pomerania trade statistics with Sweden shows that the enclave exported much more goods than it imported.

The French market collapsed primarily during the Seven Years’ War, however, is most resistant in besides the Dutch market. Besides grain, especially wood was delivered to France. With the beginning of the French Revolution, the French market declined.

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24 Ibid., p. 103.
The Export balance of Norway in particular has over the last 20 years of the 18th Century a similar alikeness to the balance of Rostock. Norway could be identified as the main export country of Rostock. There was a lively trade between Rostock and Norwegian coastal cities in the 16th Century, which lasted until the Thirty Years' War. It can be assumed, that Rostock revived its old trade routes after the oppression of the Swedish toll. Norway was that important to the Rostock as that it could compensate the collapse of the Dutch market through exports to Norway.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of goods</th>
<th>Number of consignment</th>
<th>Percentage of consignment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chemical raw material and products</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>0,97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugstore goods</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>1,18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0,26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemp, flax, ropes</td>
<td>709</td>
<td>1,86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass goods</td>
<td>1809</td>
<td>4,74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wooden goods</td>
<td>17157</td>
<td>44,91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchant goods</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>1,15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grain, bread, flour, seed</td>
<td>11270</td>
<td>29,50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal goods</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>0,88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military equipment and weaponry</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0,12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits and vegetables</td>
<td>2234</td>
<td>6,11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil and blubber</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>0,19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fur and leather goods</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>0,50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0,17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spices</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>0,23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stone goods</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0,18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinks und vinegar</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>0,55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles and clothes</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>2,52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living cattle</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0,03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other foodstuff</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>0,49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballast</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>0,95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>2,51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Export goods, sorted by class of goods

Based on the merchandise table it is obvious that only the export of wood, grain and fruits were important. Only grain and wood trade will be determined in this paper. In the cohort of fruits and vegetables just peas and apples were important, mostly shipped to England and Scandinavia. Glass goods were hardly been qualified and were uninteresting, mostly because empty bottles were transported.

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26 Olechnowitz: Handel und Seeschifffahrt, p. 92ff.
27 Data source: STRO database
Looking at the grain export graph, we will see a well-known image. During the first half of the century, the export was moving at an extremely low level, during this time only rye was traded on a larger scale. Typical is the incision during the Seven Years' War. After the war, exports rose again and climbed at the start of the American Revolutionary War to a previously unattained level. The reason for that was the sudden increase in wheat exports. Van Tielhof writes that in the mid-17th century, the demand for rye always continued to decline and was replaced by wheat. Reason for this displacement was probably the fact, that the importing regions have been getting richer over the years and were able to afford the more expensive wheat. This couldn't be observed for Mecklenburg and Pomerania. Rye was the main exported grain good during the first half of the century and it wasn't replaced in the second half by wheat. True, however, is that malt as well as barley was in greater demand. At the beginning of the 1780s was a decline in grain exports, which rose at the beginning of the French Revolution again, where in particular the eastern English Canal ports were supplied.

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28 Data source: STRO database calculated in modern measures with tables of Werner Scheltjens
29 Tielhof, Milja van: The “mother of all trades”. The Baltic Grain Trade in Amsterdam from the late 16th to the early 19th century, Leiden u. a. 2002, p. 57.
31 Müller W.: Rostocker Seeschifffahrt und Seehandel, p. 22
The main export areas for grains included Great Britain, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden. Overall it could be assumed that the crisis of Dutch exports in parts is also transferable to the grain market. However, the grain exports rebounded significantly in the Netherlands from the 1780s. But even here, a new competitive situation can be determined. In the period in which the Dutch exports failed Sweden, Norway and especially Great Britain took over the trade of grain, which were previously claimed by the Netherlands. The 1770s were the decade in which the grain trade was subject to major changes. The date on which the old system, focused on the Netherlands, was replaced by a new, more liberal system.

Among the major European states France had a barely measurable share of grain exports from the research region. Firstly, a large part of the Baltic grain needed in France was taken over the port of Amsterdam, so it doesn't appear as certain grain for France in the statistics. Secondly, even if the crops in France were declining, they didn't decline as bad as that the personal use exceeded the grain production. Imports of grain should compensate poor harvest years and counteract rising grain prices that were kept artificially high by private traders. So it was not necessary for France to obtain large-scale grain directly from the Baltic region.

Great Britain wasn't a long time trading partner for grain in Mecklenburg or Pomerania. During the first half of the 18th Century grain deliveries to the UK were hard to find. Only in the 1720s, small amounts of grain have been delivered to the UK. In the period from 1720 to 1755, British grain prices

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Data source: STRO database calculated in modern measures with tables of Werner Scheltjens
were very low, so that a large grain shortage can’t be assumed in Great Britain.\textsuperscript{34} On the contrary, coupled with a low population growth and good harvests, Great Britain was even possible to export grain until 1766.\textsuperscript{35} This situation changed with the outbreak of the American Revolutionary War. The demand for grain grew that much, that now even Mecklenburgian and Pomeranian cities delivered grain to Great Britain.

Indications that especially the war with revolutionary America was the reason for the export of grain to the UK are, on the one hand, the sudden increase in grain exports and the good nutritional status of the British population. Overall, the entire 18\textsuperscript{th} century in the United Kingdom can be considered as a time without social conflicts or famines. The grain, bread and flour prices were about the whole century at a moderate level. Price increases were never really high.\textsuperscript{36}

But not only the bread and cereal consumption of the soldiers overseas was responsible for the immense purchase of grain. Many British farmers were mainly from 1778 in military service. Correspondingly the harvests were smaller during the war years.\textsuperscript{37}

Another explanation for the sudden initiation of grain exports to the UK offers Lotte Müller. She writes that, due to the lack of grain supplies from North America, Great Britain had to look for other supply regions, and therefore ordered grain from Mecklenburg and Pomerania. However, it doesn’t seem logical that grain from North America was imported on a large-scale, while other grain exporting areas were closer to the British Isles and the transportation was cheaper. However, the loss of other sources of supply may be a reason to buy grain from Mecklenburg and Pomeranian city.\textsuperscript{38}

And there was a rapid population growth in the UK in the second half of the 18th Century. The population increased in only 50 years from 6 to 9.1 million inhabitants.\textsuperscript{39} But it can’t be reconstructed if the domestic demand for grain had to be covered by imports, since meaningful figures about available only from 1866. But it can be assumed that imports and exports had no great influence on the domestic demand.\textsuperscript{40} It is conceivable, that large grain centers, such as Danzig supplied the British Isles with cereals and after an additional shortage caused by the war, Great Britain was forced to fall back to Mecklenburgian and Pomeranian grain. In any case, the American War of Independence, in addition to all other factors, directly or indirectly impacts on grain imports to the UK.

\textsuperscript{34} Barker, Arthur: The british corn trade. From the earliest times to the present day, London 1920, p. 37f.
\textsuperscript{35} Ormrod, David: English grain exports and the structure of agrarian capitalism 1700-1760, Hull 1985, p. 22ff. - cf. the graph on page 25, which shows a decline in british grain exports in the 1720s.
\textsuperscript{36} Barker: The british corn trade, p. 37f.
\textsuperscript{37} Conway: The british isles and the war, p. 72.
\textsuperscript{38} Müller, L.: Die Entwicklung des Stralsunder Seehandels, p. 86.
\textsuperscript{40} Mathias, Peter: The first industrial nation. The economic history of Britain 1700-1914, London 2001, p. 65.
Of all cities the small Wismar exported the most wheat to Britain. Rostock also delivered significant quantities. The two cities of Mecklenburg-Schwerin exported significantly more grain to Britain than any other city in Swedish Pomerania.

By contrast, there was no grain in the Sound toll lists from Stettin, which passed Helsingør in the years 1775 to 1783 heading the UK. Stettin wasn’t a large grain exporter, it is still surprising, that not a single corn was shipped. Apparently the Prussian grain was not intended for trading with the British. That Stettin didn’t deliver grain to the UK can be linked up with the neutral attitude of Prussia against Great Britain during the American Revolutionary war.  

After the beginning of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars grain exports rose again. Unlike the Revolutionary War, Stettin now exported grain for the UK market. This isn’t only understandable by the anti-French attitude of the Prussian government, but also by the fact that with the Prussian annexation of large parts of Poland, the fertile Warthe-area, in 1793. Because of this annexation Stettin became one of the major grain exporters in the region. 

The grain trade with the Baltic region was referred to the Dutch as the "mother of all trade" and a long time the grain trade with the Baltic cities was a profitable investment. Grain was the most important product for the Netherlands, which they imported from the Baltic region. The Netherlands, however, were for the most grain only a stopover. From Amsterdam the grain was shipped to western and southern Europe. From the mid-17th Century to the mid 18th Century this profitable trade declined gradually.

The grain trade with the Netherlands faltered long before Britain's intervention in the grain market. It raises the question, whether the huge demand for grain of Great Britain from the 1770s had pushed the Netherlands off the market? In principle, this question can be negated. The Netherlands imported mainly rye. Great Britain imported mainly wheat. Accordingly, it shouldn’t have come to a competitive situation of both nations on the grain market. However, the intervention of Sweden and Norway on the grain market prevented a resurgence of exports to the Netherlands. Especially rye was delivered to a considerable extent from the 1770s to Sweden. Also through acquisitions of Russian grain by the Netherlands, the grain export from the Baltic coast of Mecklenburg and Pomerania began to run short. After a short increase in the 1790s the export rates began to fall again, because of the French occupation.

The phase of downturn in the grain exports in the Netherlands was characterized by extreme price fluctuations. Poor harvests ensured that the grain trade in the first half of the 18th Century

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42 Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 93.
43 Tielho: The ‘Mother of all Trades’, p. 1.
44 Faber: Structural changes in European economy, p. 86.
45 Tielho: The ‘Mother of all Trades’ p. 61.
fluctuated greatly. One example was the poor harvest in 1729. In this year, the exports increased by more than double. This can be also demonstrated by poor harvests in France in the years 1751/52 and the years 1769/70.\textsuperscript{46} This explains the two peaks in the 1750s and 1770s. Also in 1740 due to bad weather little grain was harvested in France.\textsuperscript{47} However, the data show that in the years 1738, 1739 and 1740, in contrast to previous years, shipped a very large amount of grain to the Netherlands. Araskhaniantz provides the justification for this, by showing that throughout the years 1738-41 the price of grain in France was at a relatively high level.\textsuperscript{48}

The French grain prices remained, apart from 1769 and 1770, to the hunger year in 1789, at a constant low level. 1789 was the year with the highest grain prices since the 1760s. The reason for this was an unexpected drought followed by heavy storms in the year 1788.\textsuperscript{49} Even after the revolution year, exports continued to rise. Due to the political situation occurred repeatedly to crop shortfalls in the 1790s, which had to be compensated with Dutch grain imports.\textsuperscript{50} Despite the new competitors Sweden and Norway, exports rose during the second half of the century. The entire grain trade of the Netherlands recovered in the second half of the 18th Century.\textsuperscript{51}

In addition, the rapid population growth in many European countries had a positive effect on grain exports. However, the export region in the Baltic moved from of the Pomeranian cities to the East Coast. Russian cities were now the main supplier of the Netherlands and Russian grain was in the second half of the 18th Century increasingly important for Western Europe, while the south coast of the Baltic now mainly did business with Sweden.\textsuperscript{52} The instability of the curve can be explained this way, since grain was only ordered on large scales in times of crisis.

\textit{Timber}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sort of manufacture</th>
<th>Number of shipments</th>
<th>Percentage of shipments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unprocessed</td>
<td>1598</td>
<td>9.23 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formed</td>
<td>15109</td>
<td>88.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>processed</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>2.51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textit{Table 2: Wood shipments, sorted by manufacture}\textsuperscript{53}

The timber deliveries were divided into three categories. Unprocessed wood, is wood, which was not further determined. Although it can be assumed that these charges contained pre-cut wood blocks,

\textsuperscript{46} Johansen: Demand and supply factors, S.285.
\textsuperscript{47} Araskhaniantz: Die französische Getreidehandelspolitik, p. 151.
\textsuperscript{48} Ibid., p. 118.
\textsuperscript{50} Tielhof: The ‘Mother of all Trades’, p. 59.
\textsuperscript{51} Ibid., p. 58.
\textsuperscript{52} Ibid., p. 60.
\textsuperscript{53} Data source: STRO database
but the purpose for which this wood was needed, couldn’t be affiliated from the description. Among all the processed wood is to understand what has already been processed by carpenters to end products. These mainly include barrels and barrel flooring, ship components, oars and bowsprits and wooden half-finished or finished products, daily necessities, such as wooden pegs, wooden bowls and furniture. Even a charge of violins was found.

Formed wood included all wood products that have already been placed in a stackable and easily transportable form. Trade names such as balks, boards, planks or staves also fall under this category. The formed wood made up a large part of the charges that have been exported. Therefore, only the group of formed wood was analysed.

There was serious problem in the research of the timber export. Because wooden latches and beams are a countable amount, much of the cargo is measured in pieces. Firstly this makes it impossible to compare wood and grain exports. Secondly it is nearly impossible to measure how much wood has left the Mecklenburgian and Pomeranian ports. A common wood measure was at that time the fathom. This measure, however, was mostly used for firewood, which was much shorter than a balk or a stave. A few charges were measured, for example in fathom or in storage jar, but this amount was that little, that it couldn’t be operated with. The only measure, that could be used for comparisons was piece.

A large part of the timber trade consisted of exports of staves. About 122 million stave boards have been exported throughout the century. These boards formed the hull of a barrel, which was then fixed with iron rings. The staves were probably cut to a proper size and then transported as straight laths. They were bent in the actual barrel production in the country, in which they were exported. In

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Data source: STRO database
addition, also clapboards and staves have been exported to the pipe manufacturing. Almost negligible trade fell out with other wood products such as beams or floor boards. More than 90% of the total timber exports came from Stettin. Indeed Rostock and Wolgast also had a small timber trade, but this was negligible compared to Stettin. Stralsund, Greifswald and Wismar timber trade didn’t even make one percent of the total wood exports. The timber trade was the most important commerce branch of Stettin, rising from year to year. The wood came mainly from Pomerania, especially from the Mark and the Neumark. Also Polish wood was transported on a large scale to Stettin.55 Because of the rigid rules for trade with many other goods and the good location to Poland as wood supplier, Stettin became a major exporter of wood. It was besides Danzig, Memel and Königsberg, one of the major export cities for wood in the Baltic region.

Graph 7: Formed wood, main export countries56

The main export countries of timber from the Baltic region were Great Britain, France and the Netherlands, whereupon timber was shipped from the Prussian ports mostly to the UK.57 Furthermore, a low export to Spain could be identified. However, this had only an amount of 5.8% of total timber exports. There were declines during the Seven Years War. Besides the war there is another explanation for the decline in the 1760s. Stettin had to suffer greatly from the competition of Danzig, Memel and Königsberg. Due to its low price Russian wood was also more attractive than wood from Stettin. Hamburg began to buy up wood from the Neumark and Kurmark in the 1760s,

55 Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 71.
56 Data source: STRO database
which was then transported on inland rivers. Prussia responded by creating a timber merchant company, who bought the wood from the Neumark and Kurmark and distribute it over Stettin. It is surprising that especially staves were exported. Walther Müller writes that due to the many wars in the second half of the 18th Century wood was mainly needed for the marine and Rostock made great profits with the timber trade during the American War of Independence. Faber also noted that Great Britain needed wood for the ship production. Morgan concretize this assumption by writing that ships were needed especially for the Atlantic trade and the timber for building this ships came from the Baltic region.

Of the measurable ship timber narrow 25,000 pieces left the Mecklenburgian and Pomeranian Baltic coast. Even all unprocessed wood together, provided it was only used for shipbuilding, made not more than 2.5 million pieces. In comparison, in the group of formed wood around 147.5 million pieces could be found, mostly staves. Braun mentions a large proportion of the barrel wood in 1781 that left Stettin in direction to the Netherlands, Great Britain and France. He also writes that other wood products were less demanded. But he doesn’t remark on the reasons for this high proportion of barrel wood.

Staves were no building materials for ships, they were too short that a seaworthy design could be created from it. It appears rather as if barrels were needed to transport a large amount of another commodity, namely grain. In addition, other bulk goods such as fruits, ammunition and gunpowder, as well as beer and other drinks are conceivable. This thesis is based on the fact, that a large part of the staves were shipped with the beginning of the American Revolutionary War to Britain. Åström writes that since 1760 the UK bough more wood from the Baltic region, but without specifying the type of wood. Nor he gives reasons why from this moment the Baltic region was important for British wood imports. Equally typical is the sharp drop in exports at the end the conflict, which favors the theory that the staves were used to support the troops overseas.

Furthermore, there was an overall drop in exports at the end of the century, which can be justified by the confusion of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. The drop in French exports can be explained by Prussia's anti-French attitude. This decline, that especially concerned the British exports, can also be caused by the new competition of Russian wood. Åström writes that from 1784 Great Britain bought large-scale wood from St. Petersburg and that the Russian timber exports

58 Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 87.
59 Müller, W.: Rostocks Seeschifffahrt, p. 22.
60 Faber: Struc-tual changes in European economy, p. 91.
62 Braun: Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 86.
63 Åström: From Tar to Timber, p. 111.
64 Ibid.
increased substantially from that date. The Dutch exports clearly show a slow drop of the curve. This can be generally explained with the decline of the Dutch economy. In the end for what finally the staves were needed could not be clarified. It could be that the boards weren’t staves, but ship planks. Assuming this, the theory that Pomeranian wood was used primarily in shipbuilding makes sense. This concentration of stave wood has not yet been discussed in the research, so that at this point can only be speculated, but the most plausible theory is that barrels where needed for other goods.

**Import**

Since imports and exports were running almost parallel to each other, it is not surprising that, in terms of the arrangement of the cities the import roughly corresponded to the proportions of exports. Stettin carried more goods out than it took. However, the difference between imports and exports amounted to only 5.7 percentage points. The other cities exported much more than they imported.

Rostock and Stralsund were unattractive ports to foreign ships. It’s also obvious that the imports to Rostock or Stralsund moved on a constant level, while Stettin had more and more imports from the middle of the century. While the Stettin exports from the 1770s continued to fall, the imports were in the ascendancy. From the mid-1770s, the number of imports for the first time exceeded the number of exports in the port of Stettin. This condition hadn’t returned in the course of the rest of the century. The imports fell in the 1790s, but not as much as the exports fell. Overall, the total trade of Stettin declined from the 1790s.

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65 Ibid., p. 91.
66 Data source: STRO database
Compared to exports, there were no large scale imports to Wolgast. While in the first half of the 1740s, for example, 176 ships left the port Wolgast, there were only 39 ships, which cleared their cargo in the city. Also the deepening of the river Swine and the new competition from Stettin had no visible impact on the imports to Wolgast. Furthermore, an immense increase of imports in the last 10 years of the century could be observed. In these years Wolgast presented itself even as a greater trading city as Rostock. Around this time broke the trade in Stettin. It is quite possible that Wolgast could benefit from the Stettin deficits. Also, the increased export volume at the end of the century in Wolgast could offer an explanation for higher imports.

All other ports were nearly uninteresting. Stettin was the main importer and Wolgast was an exception from the other ports.

The decline of Dutch imports in the second half of the century can be explained similar to the export, where new trade centers in the UK, France and Sweden become a new competitor to the Dutch merchant centers. Furthermore, it can be observe that Sweden imports stagnated in the period from 1785 to 1790. This can be explained with the second Swedish-Russian War of 1788 until 1790. During this time, the number of Swedish ships in the Sound took off significantly.  

Great Britain profited heavily from its colonies, re-exports rose in the first half of the century more than exported goods from the British Isles. In addition, a large proportion of re-exports was sold to North and North-West Europe, which could explain the little British curve in the first half of the century.

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67 Data source: STRO database
century. France itself one of the main exporting countries was mostly known for introducing wine and colonial goods. The outbreak of the French Revolution affected the imports in a considerable manner and also the Dutch imports from the time of Batavian Republic declined heavily.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of goods</th>
<th>Number of consignment</th>
<th>Percentage of consignment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chemical raw material and products</td>
<td>4849</td>
<td>7,78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugstore goods</td>
<td>4410</td>
<td>7,07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish</td>
<td>5014</td>
<td>8,04%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemp, flax, ropes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0,05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glass goods</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>0,29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wooden goods</td>
<td>2533</td>
<td>4,06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merchant goods</td>
<td>3294</td>
<td>5,28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grain, bread, flour, seed</td>
<td>909</td>
<td>1,46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal goods</td>
<td>2810</td>
<td>4,51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military equipment and weaponry</td>
<td>511</td>
<td>0,82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruits and vegetables</td>
<td>2641</td>
<td>4,24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil and blubber</td>
<td>4836</td>
<td>7,76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fur and leather goods</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>0,58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>1003</td>
<td>1,61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spices</td>
<td>4502</td>
<td>7,22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stone goods</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>1,07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinks und vinegar</td>
<td>9196</td>
<td>14,75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles and clothes</td>
<td>1113</td>
<td>1,79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living cattle</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0,02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other foodstuff</td>
<td>6212</td>
<td>9,96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballast</td>
<td>4162</td>
<td>6,68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3101</td>
<td>4,97%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Export goods, sorted by class of goods

Looking at the goods that have been imported, we see a much more nuanced field of goods that can be identified as the main imported products than it had been the case of the main exported goods. The classic imported goods were mainly colonial and luxury goods. In “drinks and vinegar” are mainly listed wines and other alcoholic beverages, which came mostly from southern Europe. Even spices were imported in large quantities, while fish, oil and blubber were imported into the region since time immemorial.

70 Ibid., p. 138.
71 Data source: STRO database
Fish was besides bread the main staple food of that time. It was regarded as a cheap and high-protein food that could be eaten even on Catholic holidays. Herring was accounted as the bigger part of fish imports. Its share of the total fish imports accounted for almost 80%. In addition, cod and dried fish were also imported in larger scales. While cod came mainly from the Netherlands, dried fish came almost exclusively from Norway.

The main importing countries included not only the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway. Herring from German ports accounted for 7% of total imports. Almost the entire German herring import was settled in the Mecklenburg and Pomeranian cities over Emden.

Norway had by the three major herring importers the smallest amount of fish. It was for a long time a fish exporting country. Between 1651 and 1866, the proportion of fish exports accounted for 51-67% of total exports. As it was already seen in other goods, the Norwegians cultivated an active trade with Rostock. The herring trade was no exception. 77.8% of the total Norwegian herring were transacted in Rostock. Further 12.5% arrived in Stettin. Due to the good development of Norwegian exports, the second half of the 18th Century was called as "boom years". This counted also for the fish export, although Norway takes clearly the last place in the graph, the export of Norwegian herring in the long run, however, was considered a positive transaction.

The Dutch herring fisheries in the 18th Century were often described as a key industry that declined rapidly. From 1560 to 1660 the Dutch herring accounted for three-quarters of the total shipped

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72 Data source: STRO database calculated in modern measures with tables of Werner Scheltjens
73 Hutchison, Ragnhild: In the Doorway to Development. An Enquiry into Market Oriented Structural Changes in Norway ca. 1750-1830, Leiden 2012, p. 45.
74 Ibid.
herring across the Sound. From the first half of the 17th Century to the first half of the 18th Century the Dutch herring fishery vanished more and more, so that fewer and fewer Dutch herring passed through the Sound. The ultimate decline of the Dutch herring fleet was finally off the 1750s. The Dutch herring industry was only one-third as strong as it was in the mid-17th Century. The slowdown is also visible in the graph, but it seems to be far less than it is described by Israel and Faber. Apparently the Mecklenburgian and Pomeranian cities were also in times of crisis a good market for Dutch herring, so that from the 1770’s an upturn is visible. However, ultimately there was a downturn in the Dutch herring exports. Compared with the preceding centuries, the import of Dutch herring moved at an extremely low level. The Netherlands supplied almost exclusively Stettin. Only in the 1790s a small trade to Rostock could be identified. It is surprising that the Dutch herring imports felled in the 1740s, while the total import to Stettin had an upward trend. One reason could be the price development. While in the 1720s and 1730s the herring price was at a relatively moderate level and reached a historic low in 1740, it doubled after this time within a few years. At the same time Poulsen shows that prices for herring in Danzig from the 1760s turned out much lower than in Amsterdam. He explains this with the flooding of the market with Swedish Herring who came especially from the region of Bohuslän. This region benefited from an adjournment of herring to the Swedish coast in the third quarter of the 18th Century. The data reflect this image. Almost the entire Swedish herring comes directly from this region or from Gothenburg, which lay in the south and was the nearest major port to Bohuslän.

Already in the past, Sweden succeeded to take over the market by using the Bohuslän herring. In the period 1575 to 1585 the Danzig prices fell far below the Amsterdam prices. The reason for this was the revolt of the northern Netherlands against their Habsburg rulers. During this time, the Dutch herring trade was disrupted. Due to the decline of its fishing industry the Netherlands weren’t able to keep the prices at a constant low level, so that Sweden once again had the opportunity to take over the market. At the beginning of the 17th century, the Netherlands could retrieve the market leadership in herring trade in the Baltic region from Sweden. Now they weren’t able to do that.

75 Faber: Structural changes in European economy, p. 89.
77 Poulsen, Bo: Markets, prices and consumption. The herring trade in the North Sea and Baltic region, ca. 1600-1800, in: Brand, Hanno; Müller, Leos: The dynamic of economic culture in the North Sea- and Baltic region, Hilversum 2007, p. 187
78 Poulsen: Markets, prices and consumption, p. 197
79 Ibid.
Only in the 1770s, when the Amsterdam prices fell sharply again, the Dutch herring could enforce itself. With the beginning of the 1780s the herring in Amsterdam price rose continuously, so that the Dutch herring lost its importance.\textsuperscript{80} In addition to the economic reasons, the political situation in the 1790s was responsible that only little amounts of fish were caught in the Netherlands. The annexation of the Netherlands by France and the blockade of the French coast by the British navy, provided the lowest quotas for 300 years.\textsuperscript{81} In the years 1798 and 1799, ultimately no more Dutch herring reached the research region.

\textit{Wine}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drink</th>
<th>Number (hl)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wine and sparkling wine</td>
<td>845191</td>
<td>86,84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beer</td>
<td>2588</td>
<td>0,27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vinegar</td>
<td>96614</td>
<td>9,93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liqueur, booze and brandy</td>
<td>28881</td>
<td>2,97%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textit{Table 4: Import of drinks}\textsuperscript{82}

Beverages and vinegar were among the most imported goods in the Baltic region. To handle the abundance of drinks in a meaningful investigation, five subgroups were formed. Besides the alcoholic beverages such as wine and champagne, beer, spirits and various other high-proof alcoholic drinks, the subgroups vinegar and soft drinks were formed. The latter group was excluded from the investigation because the value of goods and not the quantity of goods were specified. These were two deliveries of lemon juice. 94.7\% of all beverage imports were transported to Stettin. Rostock made with 3\% from the second largest port for drinks in the region.

The beer trade played no major role in Sound trade with Mecklenburg and Pomerania. Beer generally represented no import product since it could be produced in sufficient quantity in the region itself. Also there was a small amount of strong drinks. In this group the brandies accounted for 97.9\%. Other alcoholic drinks such as rum, corn, rice wine or cognac were hardly traded.

\textsuperscript{80} Ibid., p. 195
\textsuperscript{81} Poulsen: Dutch Herring, p. 45.
\textsuperscript{82} Data source: STRO database calculated in modern measures with tables of Werner Scheltjens
In the first sub-group, the proportion of wine made from 98.3%. Wine was one of the best locally definable goods, because the entry into the Sound Toll Registers often allowed conclusions about the point of origin. There were denotations found refer to the country of origin, such as "Fransk vin" for French wine or even for the growing area, for example "Hogl. vin", refer to wine from the region around Cahors. Wine was in the 17th, 18th and 19 Century one of the top-selling products in France. In particular Bordeaux had an enormous importance as export port for wine. 54% of the total imported French wine came from there. Another one-third was imported from Sète, while the remaining wine came from other locations throughout France. Bordeaux became increasingly important for Stettin, over the century a solid trade between Stettin and Bordeaux was build. French traders took Stettin wood and delivered wine to the Prussians. Many ships left Stettin in autumn, overwintered in Bordeaux, and then in spring they returned to Stettin. It was a fruitful partnership that helped both cities to gain wealth. The downturn at the end of the century can again be explained with the refusal of the Prussian state related to doing business with revolutionary France. It can be assumed that the disruption of trade by the anti-French attitude of Prussia interrupted a very profitable trade. Nevertheless, the French wine imports in the 1790s were still at a high level.

Wine was the most important import product in Stettin. It has always been considered as a luxury product, so there had to be a certain class in the population, which possesses enough financial resources to afford these products. In the small cities of the region this class was too low developed.

Data source: STRO database calculated in modern measures with tables of Werner Scheltjens

Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 85.
Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 71.
than that would have strongly reflects in the trade statistics. Culminating to this came along, that Stettin was the main port for the Prussian state. For example, already in 1716 the Prussian king had the intention to make Stettin the central port for wine to Prussia. But even after the annexation of the city attempts repeatedly failed to promote the wine trade of Stettin. Only with the elimination of the staple right of Frankfurt in 1751 wine imports began to rise in Stettin.\textsuperscript{87} From about the middle of the 18th Century the import of wine began to rise massively. From Stettin the wine was transported to the big cities in the country, especially to Berlin. But also Silesia benefited from the wine of Stettin.\textsuperscript{88} This hadn’t changed in later years. Stettin could even increase its trading area and sell wine until shortly before Lübeck.\textsuperscript{89} The economic power of Stettin in the wine trade also explains why the other cities had such a small part of the general import of drinks. Much of the trade was operated with wine, which was predominantly deleted in Stettin and came from there on the tables in whole Mecklenburg and Pomerania. Therefore it was not necessary for the other cities to buy wine by themself. Rostock is therefore only mention because it was the biggest city in Mecklenburg-Schwerin and therefore a certain trade of wine was found.

The Netherlands were a re-exporter of wine. There was probably no wine production in the Netherlands. French wine was, as measured by the number of deliveries, the major wine export to the Netherlands (44.7%). In addition, the proportion of German wine was particularly high. 34.5% of all Dutch wine deliveries came from the Rhineland. Furthermore, Israels prediction, which indicates that from the 1740s the proportion of Rhine wine constantly decreased, couldn’t be confirmed for the Dutch wine imports to Pomerania and Mecklenburg.\textsuperscript{90} Judging by the quantity of goods, the share of Rhine wine was on average of 48% compared to other wines from the Netherlands. Almost the entire Rhine wine was imported from Dutch ports. Spanish wine has been traded only in small quantities. Many imports from Spain were also French re-exports like in the Netherlands.

\textsuperscript{87} ibid., p. 85.
\textsuperscript{88} Wehrmann: Geschichte der Stadt Stettin, p. 379.
\textsuperscript{89} Braun: Stettiner Seehandelsgeschichte, p. 86.
\textsuperscript{90} Israel, Jonathan: Dutch Primacy in World Trade, 1585-1740, Oxford 1989, p. 380f.
Sugar was in the 18th century still a colonial product, the industrial extraction of the sugar beet hadn’t been yet developed. It was also a popular spice in the old world, because only honey was known as an affordable sweetener. Sugar cane was extracted primarily from the Caribbean and Brazil on large plantations. After the sugarcane was harvested, it was first pressed, then in a complicated process the effluent juice was cooked and finally dried.

The French dominance in sugar trade was distinctive. Amazingly, the United Kingdom, although the largest colonial power in the 18th Century, wasn’t heavily involved in the import of sugar. The Netherlands also played no role in sugar trade, neither sugar was shipped from their own possessions, nor from French storages. Only Portugal can be described as an importer of sugar. But the Portuguese were active not until the mid-1780s in sugar trade with Mecklenburg and Pomerania. So it is the Portuguese sugar, which was in the 1790s with British products in direct competition. France had big problems at this time sell its sugar from overseas, because after the entry into the war the British navy attacked French merchant ships and French ports were paralysed by a British naval blockade.

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91 Data source: STRO database calculated in modern measures with tables of Werner Scheltjens
93 Emmer, Piet; Partenheimer-Bein, Anneli, Petersen-Gotthardt, Susanne (Eds.): Wirtschaft und Handel der Kolonialreiche. München 1988, p. 528ff
 Sugars represented the product, which generated the highest profit margins in the 18th century in colonial trade.  

During the 17th century the price of sugar dramatically fell. This led to an increased demand in Europe, which in turn boosted the production. At the beginning of the 18th Century an enormously large market for sugar had already been established and the price of sugar remained in the first 30 years of the 18th Century on a constant low level, the consumption in Europe increased. When prices rallied again in 1734, sugar was already firmly established in the diet of Europeans.  

No other colonial good was so much in demand as sugar, which created a high profitable market.

During the 17th century, the trade in sugar was firmly in British hands. After the War of Spanish Succession in 1714 Great Britain had to limit its exports, because there was to a significantly rising domestic demand for sugar. From that moment France began to take over the European sugar market, as the French themselves consumed less sugar and could offer their sugar cheaper than the UK. In addition, the French government eased the import duties from their colonies and the export duties from France and opened the market, which was formerly reserved for a few companies, to traders from the 13 largest port cities in France. This fiscal and economic policy ensured that the French sugar production increased massively in the following years.

This great demand in Europe was only able to develop, because sugar was a relatively cheap product. This was due to the systematic allocation of the sugar cane plantations with slaves. The decline of French sugar in the last ten years of the century had its causes besides the British naval blockade, also in slavery. 1791 the slaves in Saint-Domingue, spurred by the ideas of the French Revolution, began a revolt. They used an already existing conflict between whites and mulattoes, who fought for equality with the whites. While whites and mulattos warred among themselves, the slaves received help from Spain, because it expected to gain land on Saint-Domingue.

Great Britain, which was also interested to occupy the colony and control the French sugar trade, sent 1793 troops and subjugated big parts of the colony. In 1798 France recaptured the colony from Spaniards and finally Britons. Saint-Domingue was one of the colonies with the highest colonial exports. Two-thirds of the total exports of French colonial products came from there. The described revolt and the intervention of Spain and Great Britain provided that the sugar production stopped and the French sugar exports largely collapsed. France did not keep control of the colony even after these events. The revolt led into the Haitian revolution and independence from France in 1804, so that it can be assumed that after 1798 no French sugar left the island.

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96 Ibid., p. 97.  
97 Ibid., p. 101f.  
As with other spices, the sugar trade was firmly in the hand of Stettin. Only the import of British Sugar, a small proportion in Rostock and Stralsund could be found. However French ships that had sugar loaded sailed, besides the main port Stettin (98.8%), especially to Wismar and Stralsund. Wismar has been provided since 1786 as a sugar import port by the Swedish government and equipped with special customs privileges.\(^{100}\) Although the sugar import rose in Wismar from this point, it caved in with the disappearance of French sugar. In Rostock, the largest port in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, French sugar was almost never deleted. Wismar was clearly previous to Rostock, even if the trade has to be called extremely low in other cities than Stettin. Lotte Müller writes that before 1766 no colonial goods were imported due to high customs regulations in Swedish Pomerania and were therefore disposed in Stettin.\(^{101}\) This provides an explanation for focusing on Stettin.

It is striking that before 1750 almost no import of sugar can be found. The reason for this was on the one side the beginning lucrative trade in sugar, which was available through the described development in the Caribbean in such large quantities that smaller location could be supplied in sufficient quantity. On the other side, the expansion of the port of Stettin was an important fact, which also fell into this time. The high proportion of French sugar can be explained by the special trade relationship between Stettin and Bordeaux. The French sailors who carried wood from Stettin, brought not only wine but also sugar. More than 85% of all ships which had loaded French sugar, came from Bordeaux. A parallel development of wine and sugar imports can’t be denied.

**Summary**

Among the researched cities Stettin was the most important port in the region. The Prussian city could account for more than a half of the total ship traffic on both sides, the import as well as for the export. Rostock's position was long time weakened by the Sweden toll. However, the exports and imports of Rostock recovered significantly in the second half of the century. Also the cities under Swedish administration saw their commercial peak after in 1750. The rigid import and export regulations of Sweden inhibited the economical movement of those cities. Stettin was paralysed by trade and traffic barriers, through which the trade could not flourish until the 1750s.

The 1770s were an important decade for the export. Probably caused by the American War of Independence, the grain exports rose in previously unreached heights. Especially the Mecklenburgian cities benefited from the fact that Great Britain imported their grain. How the war was responsible for the huge demand for grain couldn’t be clarified enough.

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\(^{100}\) Müller, L.: Die Entwicklung des Stralsunder Seehandels, p. 81.  
\(^{101}\) Ibid., p. 71.
The years before this decade, the grain export was almost broken. The once profitable grain trade with the Netherlands, had declined due to an economic crisis to a minimum. Only in years of poor harvests a large measure of Baltic grain was delivered.

Wood, the second most important export commodity was exported almost exclusively by Stettin. Due to its proximity to Poland and the rich wood stocks in the hinterland, Stettin was possible to export wood to a great extent. Also in the timber export an immense export to the UK could be observed. In addition, France was regarded as a major importer of wood from Stettin. It was surprising that especially a great amount of staves were exported. It could not be adequately explained why these boards were a major trading good. In both export trades, grain and wood, Russia established itself as a new competitor to the cities of the Baltic south coast. But in the end no clear statement could be made how strong the Russian exports oppressed the research area.

Almost every researched import product was mostly traded in Stettin. Especially the colonial goods were imported almost exclusively to Stettin. This was mainly because there was a strong connection with Bordeaux, in which wood was traded with colonial goods. This is also the reason why France’s share of the import trade was so great. UK, although in the 18th Century one of the greatest colonial powers in the world, could only partially sail goods to Mecklenburg and Pomerania. France had much more share of the import trade in the region due to its colonial products and the French wine. Except for the herring trade, imports from Scandinavia were negligible, except the herring import. The Netherlands also had in the second half of the century only a little share on the imports. They couldn’t resist the competition from Sweden, the UK and France.

The Seven Years War lowered the exports, but had little influence on the import trade. Other conflicts, such as the second Russian-Swedish War were too far away that they had great influence on the trade statistics.

Besides the American War of Independence, it was mainly the French Revolution, whose effects were visible in the statistics. Almost the entire colonial trade collapsed due to the Revolutionary Wars. Great Britain could benefit only marginally from it. Also, the imports and exports of the Netherlands collapsed, since the Netherlands were a part of France since 1795. Both the export and imports of Stettin fell in the last years of the 18th Century significantly. In addition to that Stettin, as a Prussian city, had only a minor extent trade with the antagonised France.
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